

FACTORS AFFECTING LOCAL COMMUNITY'S
PARTICIPATION AND WILLINGNESS TO INVEST
IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY
OF LANGKAWI ISLAND, MALAYSIA

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INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED STUDIES
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR

2022

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**THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED STUDIES
UNIVERSITI MALAYA
KUALA LUMPUR**

2022

**UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA
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ABSTRACT

Community participation and investment concepts are vital topics in achieving sustainable development. The development itself deals with humans, and hence the participation of the people in their environment is indispensable. This study investigates the constraining factors affecting local community's willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises (TSME) and their participation intention in tourism development in Malaysia with specific reference to Langkawi local community in the Northwestern part of Peninsular Malaysia. Tourism is an economic, social and cultural event that connects people, services and industries to various places. It also addresses some of the challenges encountered by local communities. Tourism can promote economic growth, reduce unemployment, and improve human and societal well-being. Community participation is of utmost importance in tourism development as it improves community members' standard of living and their sense of belonging. This study examined the factors that affect communities' participation intention and willingness to invest in the development of tourism. In order to achieve the objective of this study, quantitative methods were applied. The quantitative method was conducted based on a survey questionnaire. Grounded on a quantitative method, the primary data were composed with a structured questionnaire and subsequently analysed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and full-fledged Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). SPSS was used for data coding and analysing the statistics. The study roots its foundation in participatory theory and social identity theory and its proposed data is cross-sectional for all the objectives.

The study revealed that there are predominant factors affecting the local community' participation intention and investment in the tourism industry. Some of the factors identified are savings or capital (the most important problem for investment), knowledge, attitude, opportunity, the expectation of benefit and motivation. Most local

communities lack capital involvement, which has a significant positive impact on the community's participation and investment. This study found that attitude, motivation, knowledge, expectation of benefit, etc have positive significant impact on tourism participation and investment. It also indicated that social identity and motivation can play mediating role between participation intention on tourism development.

Finally, this study also observed that specific policy to spur local community's investment is inexistent. Therefore, this study suggests that government should create a policy specifically to inspire local community intention to participation and investment in the development of tourism.

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ABSTRAK

Konsep penyertaan komuniti dan pelaburan merupakan topik penting dalam mencapai pembangunan mampan. Pembangunan itu sendiri berkaitan dengan manusia, dan oleh itu penyertaan orang-orang dalam persekitaran mereka sangat diperlukan. Kajian ini menyiasat faktor-faktor kekangan yang mempengaruhi kesediaan masyarakat tempatan untuk melabur dalam perusahaan kecil dan sederhana (TSME) pelancongan dan niat penyertaan mereka dalam pembangunan pelancongan di Malaysia dengan rujukan khusus kepada komuniti tempatan Langkawi di bahagian Barat Laut Semenanjung Malaysia. Pelancongan adalah acara ekonomi, sosial dan budaya yang menghubungkan rakyat, perkhidmatan dan industri ke pelbagai tempat. Ia juga menangani beberapa cabaran yang dihadapi oleh masyarakat tempatan. Pelancongan boleh menggalakkan pertumbuhan ekonomi, mengurangkan pengangguran, dan meningkatkan kesejahteraan manusia dan masyarakat. Penyertaan komuniti amat penting dalam pembangunan pelancongan kerana ia meningkatkan taraf hidup ahli komuniti dan rasa kekitaan mereka. Kajian ini mengkaji faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi niat penyertaan masyarakat dan kesediaan untuk melabur dalam pembangunan pelancongan. Untuk mencapai objektif kajian ini, kaedah kuantitatif telah digunakan. Kaedah kuantitatif dijalankan berdasarkan soal selidik tinjauan. Berdasarkan kaedah kuantitatif, data utama disusun dengan soal selidik berstruktur dan kemudiannya dianalisis menggunakan analisis faktor pengesahan (CFA) dan Pemodelan Persamaan Struktur Separa Sekurang-kurangnya Kuasa Dua (PLS-SEM) sepenuhnya. SPSS digunakan untuk pengkodan data dan menganalisis statistik. Kajian ini akar asasnya dalam teori penyertaan dan teori identiti sosial dan data yang dicadangkan adalah keratan rentas untuk semua objektif.

Kajian itu mendedahkan bahawa terdapat faktor utama yang mempengaruhi niat penyertaan dan pelaburan masyarakat setempat dalam industri pelancongan. Antara faktor yang dikenal pasti ialah simpanan atau modal (masalah paling penting untuk

pelaburan), pengetahuan, sikap, peluang, jangkaan manfaat dan motivasi. Kebanyakan komuniti tempatan kekurangan penglibatan modal, yang mempunyai kesan positif yang signifikan terhadap penyertaan dan pelaburan komuniti. Kajian ini mendapati bahawa sikap, motivasi, pengetahuan, jangkaan manfaat, dan lain-lain mempunyai kesan positif yang signifikan terhadap penyertaan dan pelaburan pelancongan. Ia juga menunjukkan bahawa identiti sosial dan motivasi boleh memainkan peranan pengantara antara niat penyertaan terhadap pembangunan pelancongan.

Akhir sekali, kajian ini juga mendapati bahawa dasar khusus untuk merangsang pelaburan komuniti tempatan tidak wujud. Oleh itu, kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa kerajaan perlu mewujudkan satu dasar khusus untuk memberi inspirasi kepada LC untuk penyertaan dan pelaburan dalam pembangunan pelancongan.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Most importantly, I would like to thank the Almighty God for bestowing his mercy and blessings on me throughout the rigors of this Ph.D. journey. I thank him for being there for me during the challenging periods. With all meekness, I give him all the glory and praise.

I wish to convey my profound appreciation to my supervisors, Dr. Muhammad Mehedi Masud and AP Dr. Goh Hong Ching, for their unalloyed assistance all through the research process. I am thankful for their invaluable suggestions and guidance at every stage of this Ph.D. research. I am indeed grateful.

I am enormously grateful to my parents and siblings whose financial funding, prayers, valuable advices, and backing had made the implementation of this immense task achievable. “In memory of my father, although you are late, the thesis is dedicated to late Jonah Anaba, who has always been my source of inspiration. Although you are gone, your belief in me has made this journey possible” I gratefully acknowledge.

To all my friends at the University of Malaya, Malaysia and in Nigeria, I appreciate your kindness, encouragement, and support throughout my studies. May God in his infinite mercy bless you all. I extend my sincerest appreciation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	II
ABSTRAK	iii
Acknowledgements	v
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Figures	xiii
List of Tables.....	xiv
List of Symbols and Abbreviations.....	xvi
List of Appendices	xix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Problem Statement.....	8
1.3 Research Objectives	10
1.4 Research Questions	10
1.5 Research Methodology Overview	11
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	12
1.7 Scope and Limitation of Study.....	14
1.8 Structure of the Study	15
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 The concepts of Local Community, Participation, Investment and Tourism.....	18
2.2.1 Community Participation	21
2.2.2 Community participation in the tourism context	26
2.2.3 Stages of tourism development and community participation.....	28
2.2.4 Types of tourism development and community participation	33

2.2.5	Empirical Findings on Participation	34
2.3	Willingness to Invest	37
2.3.1	Tourism Small and Medium Enterprises in Malaysia (TSMES).....	38
2.3.2	Investment and Tourism Development.....	41
2.3.3	Empirical Findings on Willingness to Invest.....	42
2.4	Social Identity as Mediation.....	43
2.4.1	The Concepts of Mediation and Social identity.....	44
2.4.2	Understanding Mediation Effect in Structural Equation Modelling.....	45
2.4.3	Justification of Social Identity as Mediating Variable.....	47
2.4.4	Empirical Findings on the Social Identity	48
2.5	Theoretical Framework used in the study	49
2.5.1	Participatory Theory:	49
2.5.2	Social Identity Theory	53
2.6	Research Hypotheses / Development	54
2.7	Factors Enabling and Constraining Community Participation.....	63
2.8	Research Gap.....	65
2.9	Chapter summary.....	67
CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF MALAYSIA TOURISM DEVELOPMENT		68
3.1	Introduction	68
3.2	Tourism development in Malaysia	71
2.2.2	Tourism and Economic Growth.....	83
3.2.3	Growth of International Tourist Inflow and Outflow in Malaysia	86
3.3	Tourism in Langkawi	90
3.3.1	Langkawi Tourism Blueprint.....	95
3.3.2	The tourism life cycle of Langkawi Island	99
3.4	Government involvement in Malaysia tourism development	103

3.4.1	Investment and Tourism Development.....	112
3.4.2	Investment and Infrastructure Development.....	115
	CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	118
4.1	Introduction	118
4.2	Conceptual Framework	118
4.3	Quantitative Method.....	122
4.3.1	Quantitative research instrument development process.....	122
4.3.2	Measurement of demographic variables	123
4.4	Research Design	125
4.4.1	Choice of Research Design, Instrument and Justification	126
4.5	Research Flow Chart	127
4.5.1	Research Data	128
4.5.2	Cross-sectional Data	128
4.6	Study variables and measurement development.....	129
4.6.1	Attitudes.....	129
4.6.2	Knowledge.....	135
4.6.3	Opportunity.....	138
4.6.4	Savings.....	139
4.6.5	Expectation of Benefits.....	142
4.6.6	Motivation.....	144
4.7	Questionnaire Design	145
4.8	Pre-test of the measurement items.....	146
4.8.1	Validity of the Research Instrument	146
4.8.2	Assessment of content validity by academician	147
4.8.3	Assessment of face validity by potential respondents	147
4.9	Sampling design process	148

4.9.1	Study area	149
4.9.2	Population of the Study.....	153
4.9.3	Determination of Sampling Frame	154
4.9.4	Sampling Techniques.....	155
4.9.5	Determination of Sample Size	156
4.9.6	Data collection	157
4.10	Pilot Test and Results	158
4.10.1	Demographic profile of the respondents.....	159
4.10.2	The Reliability of the Measurements.....	159
4.11	Data Analysis.....	160
4.11.1	Structural Equation Modelling Method	162
4.11.2	Assessment of measurement model.....	167
4.11.3	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).....	168
4.11.4	Convergent validity.....	168
4.11.5	Discriminant validity	169
4.11.6	Construct Reliability	170
4.11.7	Descriptive statistics of the study variables.....	171
4.12	Justification for Partial Least-Structural Equation Modelling.....	172
4.12.1	Estimation Techniques.....	172
4.12.2	Estimation Procedure	173
4.12.3	Data Coding and Outliers	174
4.12.4	Treatment of missing data.....	174
4.12.5	Examination of outliers.....	174
4.12.6	Missing Data Problem and Justification for Cleaning	175
4.12.7	Normal Distribution	175
4.13	Chapter Summary	176

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS	177
5.1 Introduction	177
5.1.1 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Normality Test	178
5.1.2 The SmartPLS Assumptions.....	178
5.1.3 Synopsis of the Analysis.....	179
5.1.4 Multicollinearity Test	179
5.2 Demographic profile of the respondents'	181
5.2.1 Research Objective 1 and 2.	182
5.2.2 Attitude	183
5.2.3 Knowledge	189
5.2.4 Motivation.....	196
5.2.5 Savings.....	201
5.2.6 Expectation of benefit.....	205
5.2.7 Opportunity.....	211
5.3 Empirical Results.....	217
5.3.1 The critical factors constraining the participation of the local community, and the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in tourism development in Langkawi. 218	
5.3.1.1 The Measurement Model	218
5.3.1.2 Model Stability	218
5.3.1.3 Reflective Measurement Model.....	219
5.3.1.4 Discriminant Validity using Fornell-Lacker Criterion	222
5.3.1.5 Assessment of Structural Model.....	226
5.4 Research Objective 3.....	229

5.4.1	To determine the mediating effect of social identity regarding the local community on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development.	235
5.4.1.1	The Measurement Model	235
5.4.1.2	Direct effects between independent and dependent variables	240
5.4.1.3	Mediating effects of SID between MOT and ITPT	241
5.4.1.4	Mediating effects of SID between ATT and ITPT	242
5.4.1.5	Mediating effects of SID between EOB and ITPT	243
5.4.1.6	Mediating effects of SID between KNOW and ITPT	243
5.4.1.7	Mediating effects of SID between OPPT and ITPT	244
5.4.1.8	Mediating effects of SID between SAV and ITPT	245
5.5	Recap of the Hypotheses Test	247
5.6	Chapter Summary	248
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS		249
6.1	Introduction	249
6.2	Summary of the Study	249
6.3	Overall Summary of the Study	249
6.4	Research and Methodological Implications	253
6.5	Addressing the problem statement	253
6.6	The Impact of Covid-19 to the Malaysian Tourism Industry	256
6.7	Implications	258
6.7.1	Theoretical implications	258
6.7.2	Policy implications	260
6.8	Conclusion	264
6.9	Implications of the Study and Suggestion for Future Research	265
References		268

List of Publications and Papers Presented.....	300
APPENDICES.....	301

Universiti Malaya

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Government departments involved in tourism development in Malaysia.....	26
Figure 2.2Development and monitoring planning process and mechanism.	28
Figure 2.3	National development planning horizon	30
Figure 2.4	Malaysia Tourist Arrivals (1998-2015)	39
Figure 2.5	Malaysia Tourism Receipt (2008-2015)	39
Figure 2.6	Gross value added tourism industries	40
Figure 3.1	The Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC)	79
Figure 3.2	Mediation model	95
Figure 4.1	Conceptual framework	121
Figure 4.2	Process for development of survey instrument (Adapted from Malhotra & Grover, 1998).	123
Figure 4.3	Research Process	126
Figure 4.4	Research Flowchart	127
Figure 4.5	Sampling Design Process	145
Figure 4.6	Hypothetical evolution of tourist area life circle	149
Figure 4.7	Map of the study area	149
Figure 4.8	International Tourist arrivals and Receipts, 1990 -2014	150
Figure 4.9	Map of Langkawi Island.	151
Figure 4.10	Data collection Technique and Period.	155
Figure 4.11	Data Analysis Techniques and Procedures.	159

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	: Tourism Strategy Development.....	19
Table 2.2	: Tourist arrivals in Malaysia 2013-2019	23
Table 2.3	: Government Allocation for Tourism Development	36
Table 2.4	: Tourist arrivals and Receipts to Malaysia 2001-2020.....	38
Table 2.5	: Tourist arrivals to Langkawi	44
Table 2.6	: Portfolio of 14 initiatives across 3 themes in Langkawi tourism blueprint	48
Table 3.1	: Distribution of Tourism Small and Medium Enterprises (TSMEs)	89
Table 3.2	: Indicators of SMEs in the Malaysian service sector for the year 2010.	90
Table 3.3	: Factors Enabling and Constraining Community Participation.....	113
Table 4.1	: Latent Variables and Manifest Variables.....	122
Table 4.2	: Table of variables	124
Table 4.3	: Results of the Pre-test by Panel of Academics and Potential respondents.....	145
Table 4.4	: Demographic Variable of the Respondents ($N=30$).....	157
Table 4.5	: Reliability Analysis	158
Table 5.1	: Demographic Variables of the Respondents	176
Table 5.2	: Outer Loadings of the measurement model.....	213
Table 5.3	: Construct Reliability and Validity.....	216
Table 5.4	: Discriminant Validity using Fornell-Lacker Criterion	217
Table 5.5	: Cross-Loadings.....	218
Table 5.6	: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT).....	220
Table 5.7	: Collinearity Statistic (VIF) – Inner.....	221
Table 5.8	: Path Coefficient and Hypotheses Testing.....	222
Table 5.9	: Hypotheses Testing on Mediation.....	225

Table 5.10 : Output of Direct and Mediating Relationship.....	234
Table 5.11 : Recap of the Hypotheses Test	235
Table 6.1 : Tourism performance 2019 and 2020.....	246
Table 6.2 : Hotel performance (2019 and 2020).....	246

Universiti Malaya

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIEST	:	International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism
AMOS	:	Analysis of a moment structures or analysis of covariance
ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
AOR	:	Average Occupancy Rate
ASEAN	:	Association of South East Asian Nations
AVE	:	Average Variance Extracted
CBT	:	Community Based Tourism
CFA	:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CHOGM	:	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting
CMAR	:	Completely Missing at Random
CNN	:	Global News Network
CR	:	Composite Reliability
CR	:	Critical Ratios
DMO	:	Destination Marketing/ or Marketing Organisation
DV	:	Dependent Variable
EFA	:	Explorative Factor Analysis
EPU	:	Economic Planning Unit
FFI	:	Four Factor Index
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GNI	:	Gross National Income
GNNG	:	Global Networks and National Geoparks
HLS	:	Household Liquid Savings
HSR	:	High Speed Rail
HTMT	:	Heterotrait Monotrait Ratio of Correlations
ICT	:	Internet Communication Tourism
IDE	:	Indirect Effect
IIC	:	Investment Incentive Arts

IPP	:	Integrated Promotional Plan or Industry Partner Programme
IV	:	Independent Variable
KLIA	:	Kuala Lumpur International Airport
LADA	:	Langkawi Development Authority
LAVA	:	Langkawi Accommodation for Visiting Academics
LC	:	Local Community
LIFA	:	Langkawi International Festival of Arts
LIMA	:	Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace
LL	:	Lower Level
LVS	:	Latent Variable Scores
MAR	:	Missing at Random
MEP	:	New Economic Policy
MI	:	Modification Index
MICE	:	Meetings, Invention, Conventions and Exhibitions
MM2H	:	Malaysia my second home
MMM	:	Mixed Mode Method
MNAR	:	Missing Not at Random
MOCAT	:	Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism
MoT	:	Ministry of Tourism
MP	:	Malaysia Plan
MTPB	:	Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board
MTTP	:	Malaysia Tourism Transformation Plan
NDP	:	National Development Policy
NEP	:	National Ecotourism Plan
NEP	:	New Economic Policy
NGO	:	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPS	:	Non-Probabilistic Sampling
NTMP	:	National Tourism Master Plan

NTP	:	National Tourism Policy
OECD	:	Organisation of Economic Co-operation and development
PACA	:	Participatory Analysis Community Action
PATA	:	Pacific Areas Travel Association
PLS	:	Partial Least Square
PRA	:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PT	:	Participatory Theory
RRA	:	Rapid Rural Appraisal
SEM	:	Structural Equation Modelling
SES	:	Socioeconomic Status
SIT	:	Social Identity Theory
SME	:	Small and Medium Enterprise
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
STF	:	Small Tourism Firms
STS	:	Sustainable Tourism Service
TALC	:	Tourism Area Life Cycle
TDC	:	Tourism Development Corporation
TDPWS	:	Participatory and Willingness Survey
TFI	:	Two Factor Index
TSA	:	Tourism Satellite Account
TSMEs	:	Tourism Small and Medium Enterprises
UNESCO	:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	:	United Nation World Tourism Organisation
UP	:	Upper Level
VAF	:	Variance Accounted For
VIF	:	Variance Inflation Factor
WTI	:	Willingness to Invest
WTO	:	World Tourism Organisation

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A : Variable Names And Acronyms	286
Appendix B : Sample Size Determination Table.....	287
Appendix C : Cohen’s Effect Size Table.....	288
Appendix D : Questionnaire Survey	289

Universiti Malaya

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Tourism is considered a very important means of raising revenue for a country and as a means of employment for its citizens. It is the fastest emergent industry currently, be it internal, international, or intraregional. Globally, it is seen as a very important industry due to its contributions to gross domestic products (GDP). A well-ordered, structured, carefully and cautiously managed tourism industry needs to be encouraged and supported to ensure the sustainability of tourism development (Dangi, et al., 2021; Zivkovic, et al., 2021). This development, however, must occur within the appropriate, adequate and ascertained parameters that represent the source foundation and basis of the industry such as infrastructural services, local culture and values, and the natural and man-made environment. On the whole, it requires a well-planned policy to ensure that the industry is established in a policy that is vital to ensure that the tourism industry is established in a maintainable and accountable way to make a noteworthy input to the economic development and the quality of life of its host communities.

Due to the vital and multi-faceted issues encountered by the tourism industry, it requires a cohesive policy development approach amid various government sections. Reliability and stability are vital in the plan and the blueprint policies amid all stages of government for effectual tourism policies. Strategically, patrons in the development of a tourism plays a vital part in engrossing the government, the host communities, and other patrons in identifying ideas for tourism development and in setting priorities for its long-term and sustainable implementation. Tourism approaches subsist progressively laying emphasis on public-private sector co-operation (Tourism, 2020).

The plans and policies of tourism development in Malaysia are designed all the way amidst a five-year plan, starting with MP1 to MP11, and reinforced with other national policies such as the National Tourism Policy (NTP) and the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP). As a result, the Malaysia five-year plan is considered as strengthening the NTP as a foundation and guidance for the tourism industry's development. Besides, it is considered important to sustain Malaysia's competitiveness in the region, especially among the ASEAN countries. In view of that, the approach of tourism development in Malaysia has continually been proclaimed based on a five-year plan to ensure that tourism development targets are achieved or grasped. Since the implementation of Malaysian Plan 6 (MP6) till date, tourism has gained more prominence in Malaysia.

The National Tourism Policy (NTP) has been planned for initiation for over 10 years, with the primary aim of advancing the tourism industry as a compelling, ecological, worthwhile and major contributor to the economy (Hamzah, 2004). The NTP conveyed a new-fangled era to tourism development in Malaysia, resulting in the establishment of numerous tourism products (Hamzah, 2004).

The Economic Transformation Programme (ETP), operated by the performance management and delivery unit (PEMANDU), is another tourism-boosting initiative aimed at accelerating Malaysia's economic development and transforming it into a high-income country by 2020. By 2020, the ETP sought to increase the tourism sector's contribution to the country's GNI from RM67 billion to RM104 billion. Through the ETP, 12 Entry Point Projects (EPP), which generated a total of RM28.4 billion and created 497,000 additional jobs, were developed in Malaysia (PEMANDU, 2012). Hence, to upsurge the economic growth through tourism, the ETP targets 36 million tourists with total

expenditure of RM168 billion by 2020 by promoting their length of stay and expenditure (PEMANDU, 2012).

In addition, the government developed different incentive schemes to encourage foreign investors through the Promotion of Investment Act of 1986. Available investors were given "pioneer status" for five years, as well as a tax credit of up to 100 percent on capital expenditures for hotels, motels, chalets, recreation centres, and cultural and handicraft centres. Industrial building allowances of 10% (at initially) and 2% annually were also given to those companies with pioneer status. In addition, tour operators who bring in at least 500 inbound tourists on group tours each year are also free from paying income taxes. Other government incentives to promote tourism-related industries include a reduction in service tax from 10% to 5% for hotels, restaurants, and entertainment charges, as well as an exemption from customs duties and sales tax for machinery and equipment purchased locally or abroad for use by hotels, lodging, and non-accommodation projects (O'Grady, 1990).

Tourism is an economic and social indicator that connects people, services, and industries to different locations (Litheko & Potgieter, 2016). It promotes the economic growth of countries, including Malaysia, through generation of substantial receipts from the tourists (Kreag, 2001; Kauppila, et al., 2009; WTO, 2002). Concurring to Hanafiah et al. (2013), that the development of tourism requires participation and investment of the local communities owing to their direct contact with the tourists. Logically, the higher the quantity of tourist influxes, the greater the demand for community participation and investment in tourism development (Hanafiah et al., 2013). Hence, the local community investment in the industry is a question of their ability to save (Kuznets, 1955; Friere, 1972), while their intention to participate in the decision process is dependent on their

discernment of the benefits of the development of tourism and their involvement (Lim, et al., 2021, Kim et al., 2021).

Throughout the years, tourism has put in significantly to economic growth, improved local community's living standard, reduced unemployment, and enhanced cultural exchange (Mak, Cheung & Hui, 2017; GhulamRabbany et al., 2013; Park & Yoon, 2009). Notwithstanding, some of the local community's are reluctant to participate and invest in the tourism industry. This is because most of the emerging nations political structures are being centralised. Decision-makers and the bureaucrats are unenthusiastic to apportion authority with the general public (Marzuki et al., 2012). Not only are host people usually excluded from planning, but also from decision-making and management of most initiatives that affect them as a result of centralisation. This type of exclusion is widespread in developing countries with a top-down development mindset (Teye, et al., 2002). Malaysia practices a top-down approach, which affects the community's participation and investment. This approach involves the apprehension of sovereign groups to assimilate subservient units into the prevailing philosophy of safeguarding community well-being and claims of reforming the "deserving" poor but they are just exercising their power and might towards them. The ruling classes exploit the resources of countries under the pretence of utilising them for development. They designed the policies and impose them on local communities without taking cognizance of the socio-cultural, environmental and political structure.

The bourgeoisie (capitalists and owners of means of production) and the proletariat (workers or labourers) are related with this method. The top-down approach hinders community cohesion and encourages intrusion into people's lives and properties without their consent. Impositions have social and cultural repercussions, economic, environmental, and political lives of local communities, as well as the disarticulation and

obliteration of nature and the ecosystem, which should not be encroached upon under the human right affirmation. Since the central government administration, ministries, and agencies began working in sectors, it has become the norm for development planning and management projects to be coordinated in the same way, i.e., sectorally and from top to bottom. As a result, the development planning system has two major flaws: a sectorally disintegrating management style and a lack of significant community participation in the planning and management process (Mohammad, 2010). Local community's in Langkawi are rigorously hindered by a slew of matters and encounters, including a top-down management proceeds or approaches attributable to Malaysia intense political structures (Siry, 2006), intellectual discourse, and social factors that have direct effects on the community (Norlida Hanim, Redzuan, & Nurul Fahana-Aini, 2010). Unlike the top-bottom method, bottom-top approach involves local communitys at the numerous stages of development program (Chambers, 1993). This approach emphasises consultation with the local communities, includes them in the planning, enables them to perceive the programme as their own, and motivates them to make every effort to ensure the program's success and long-term viability (Isidiho & Sabran, 2015; Monda & Samaddor, 2021). The bottom-up strategy takes into account the communities' ideas and cultures, as well as the rural people's needs and visions, as well as their sociocultural diversity. Here, the opinions of the local community are considered, thus encouraging their massive participation and investment. It is generally perceived that participation and investment impact the lives of the local community and spur the development of their environs. However, most community members paid less attention to them. Therefore, intention to participate is very important and deserve due attention. In addition, the attitudes of the local community in the direction of tourism development and their sensitivities of its influence on their life must be frequently gauged (Hanafiah et al., 2013).

The idea of tourism development was conceived to recuperate rural economy and ease rural insufficiency. As Sofield (2003, p.23) suggested, “according to United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), tourism development is synonymous to the growth of infrastructure, facilities, attractions, education of locals on tourism positive and negative impacts and many more.” (Boukas & Ziakas, 2016; Zhang, Yamamura, & Fujiki, 2013). The reduction of rural poverty has been an issue of concern to governments worldwide including Malaysia. In so doing, economic development is viewed as an instrument to reduce poverty and increase in-country GDP (Purnomo, 2020). Malaysia’s effort to ensure the participation and investment of local community in tourism development are commendable. Malaysia has had tremendous economic growth as a result of some of its favourable policies and political stability, which is congruent with its goal of being a global tourism destination by 2020. (Mak, Cheung & Hui, 2017). However, high economic growth cannot be said to improve the standard of living in the society if large numbers of people remain in the lower socioeconomic groups. To be globally recognised as a tourist country, Malaysian government need to develop not only Kuala Lumpur but all communities in the country. With this in mind, this study accesses the critical factors constraining the local communitys participation intention in the development of tourism and investment in the tourism industry. The thesis presented how tourism touches, through its activities and development, both the material and the human component.

Several past empirical researches have investigated the concept of participation. According to Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar, (2016), the participation of the community members promotes a bond between the participants towards attaining collective objectives and making the community a suitable dwelling place. The participation of the local community facilitates grassroots democracy whereby people has the privilege to participate in matters that directly affect their life (Lim, et al., 2021). This implies that

total involvement of the community is necessary to attain a higher level of tourism development

Furthermore, Cheong and Miller (2000) revealed that local community be duty-bound to be taking the initiative in development activities in their communities and resist unwanted changes that does not serve their interest (Lim, et al., 2021). The involvement of a community in development process (from design to maintenance) always leads to good results, as opposed to community involvement in sharing and consultation only (Dogra & Gupta, 2012). In effect, tourism formation necessitates and entails host participation to worn down and incapacitate the adverse influences and amplify the remunerations allied with tourism development (Chambers, 2002; Wates, 2000). Community participation should be encouraged among the locals mostly in decision making and monitoring on the matters that affect them directly to ensure sustainability (Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007). They went further saying that a community that has a strong value of their professional traditions, local customs, and norms are in an ameliorate stand point to scheme tourism in a way that will correspond to their sense of communal worth as well as appease the tourists (Macbeth et al., 2004, p. 502; Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007). Hence, for an efficacious tourism development, local communities must be involved in all tourism phases (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000) through the participatory role which is one of the essential rudiments for emerging worthwhile tourism in a country. Park and Yoon, (2009) argued that tourism is a feasible economic alternative for local community development and further attested to the significance of tourism development and community participation. It is widely accepted that participation and investment are interrelated, and that they both affect the economic prosperity of locals, since most locals depend on the natural resources in their localities for their livelihoods. On the other hand, most of the local communities feel reluctant to participate in tourism development due to their apparent routing and adverse influences of tourism (Almeida-Garcia et al., 2016). Many

of these community lacks interest and knowledge about the subject matter which makes it becomes a big issue.

In this context, the purpose of this study is to investigate the factors that limit the local community's willingness to participate and invest in tourism development.

1.2 Problem Statement.

The problem statement of this study highlights the glitches allied with the community participation and investment in the development of tourism in Langkawi. Malaysia tourism industry contributes meaningfully to the country's economy and proves important in stimulating economic growth (Jaafar & Maideen, 2012). On the other hand, local community participation and investment are guarded by a series of factors and encounters such as management issues (Siry, 2006) due to the ineffective top-down approach of the centralist government (Paunović & Jovanović, 2017; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2019). Policies are legally forced on the community, as contrasting to the plebiscite practiced in other countries like Indonesia, Vietnam, and Cambodia. This give rise to be deficient in participation and investment among the local communities (Adedoyin, et al., 2021; Norlida Hanim, Redzuan, & Nurul, Fahana-Aini, 2010).

The top-down approach is “the starting point in the authoritative decision” (Matland, 1995), and involves central decision makers' marginalisation of the local communities. This is in contrast to the bottom-up approach, which favors responsive and active participation of the communities in the various levels of the development. The top-down approach discourages community participation and investment due to unfair policies of decision makers. Lack of required organisational skills, motivation, lack of co-ordination, the expectation of benefit, poor dissemination of information, lack of interest, attitude, low level of awareness, opportunity and inadequate capital hinder community's ability to participate in tourism development. Other factors include inadequate

knowledge, and inappropriate policy framework to support community participation (Tosun, 2000, 2006; Zhao & Richie, 2007; Manyara & Jones, 2007). Kim, Park and Phandanouvong (2014) have classified these constraints into three groups: operational, structural and cultural limitations. Given the interconnectivity of the three constraints, it is imperative to understand how they influence the local community members' participation in the development of tourism.

With the rising tourist influx into Malaysia, there is a need for adequate preparation. This includes tackling the critical factors impeding the local community participation and investment into tourism small and medium enterprises (TSME) for an improved tourism development in Langkawi. Historically, In the year 1995, Malaysia began to track the performance of the tourism industry and had drafted tourism policy to ensure its growth and development. Interestingly, the sector had contributed, on average, 13.62% to Malaysia's economy since 2011 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2017), and ascertains to be a prospective stimulator of economic growth (Jaafar & Maideen, 2012). Community intention to participate and invest are the foundations of policies in the tourism industry. As such, perception on participation, investment and local community attitudes towards their environment are extremely and vastly connected and can affect their participation and willingness to invest. On this ground, there is an inconclusive discourse over the role of local community participation in the development of tourism.

Besides participation, investment is a significant tool for economic development. Tourism is an industry where investment plays a key role. However, there are limited studies on local community willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in Langkawi Malaysia. Expectedly, the federal government had projected to welcome 36 million tourist visits with MYR168 billion receipts for 2020 which would necessitate more investment and participation from the local community, which was affected by Covid-19 pandemic

(Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, 2017). The advent of the COVID-19 pandemic shakes the world's economy and well-being drastically. It was the hardest hits pandemic in the history of mankind causing a total drop of 2.86 trillion US dollars (Abbasi et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted economic activities and constitutes a significant shock to tourism development globally. The pandemic influenced stock markets and caused inflation (Dabwor et al., 2022). It also effected governments budgets and decline in tourist arrivals. It impacted tourism activities and caused a global travel collapse since the beginning of year 2020. The arrivals of international tourists showed a sharp decline of 56% from January to May, and a 97% drop in April and 98% arrivals dropped in May 2020. Achievement of this projection requires an increase in investment and participation in tourist destinations. In other words, failure of the local community to participate and invest in tourism SMEs would reduce the country's capacity to cater for the tourist influx. In that regard, investigating the issues that have an effect on the local community investing in the development of tourism demands a cursory look.

1.3 Research Objectives

The general objective of this study is to investigate the role of participation and investment in the development of tourism in Langkawi. This study was conducted to attain the following specific objectives:

1. To assess the predominant factors affecting local community willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises in Langkawi.
2. To investigate the critical factors constraining the local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.
3. To determine the mediating effect of social identity, attitude, opportunity, knowledge, expectation of benefit, savings of the local community on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in Langkawi tourism development.

1.4 Research Questions

Following the specific objectives of this study, the under-listed research questions were posed:

- 1 What are the predominant factors affecting local community willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises in Langkawi?
- 2 What are the critical factors constraining the local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi?
- 3 Does the social identity, attitude, opportunity, knowledge, expectation of benefit, savings mediate the relationship between motivation and intention to participation in Langkawi tourism development?

All the research questions will be answered through statistical analyses based on collected data.

1.5 Research Methodology Overview

The methodology is the design process of how study ought to be carried out together with the theoretic and idealistic postulations upon which the study is founded or grounded (Saunders, et al., 2017). It is the overall process guiding the entire research project. To achieve the research objective of this thesis, the study adopted a quantitative research method. The quantitative approach involves the analysis of numeric records such as fractions, intervals or ratios and the use of elements of study such as graphs or diagrams to acquire accurate results. The questionnaire was self-administered, and data was collected from 382 respondents from the six districts of Langkawi using a combination of stratified and convenience sampling approaches. The initial step involved stratified random sampling of the six districts that make up Langkawi. These were subdivided into tourism-related activities or service providers (accommodation, transportation, art, entertainment and recreation, food and beverage, travel agency, tour operators and tour guide services, and miscellaneous services). Convenience sampling was then applied

through the selection of the tourism-related activities. The various categories of respondents included were the local residents of Langkawi. They were selected founded on their availability and preparedness to participate in the study.

The quantitative research aspects of the thesis were empirically verified by means of data evaluation procedures. The methods proposed for the quantitative data analysis include confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). These methods were considered due to the hierarchical nature of the study variables. Data collected from the survey was coded and analysed using SPSS. The proposed data for the study is cross-sectional for all the objectives, and the study roots its foundation in participatory theory and social identity theory.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The rationale of this thesis is to investigate the critical issues constraining the local community intention to participate in development of tourism and the predominant factors affecting their investment in the development of tourism. The thesis focuses on local community participation intention and investment in development of tourism, as this has been strained by the adoption of top-down approach (Jovanovi´c, 2017; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2014), lack of organisational skills, motivation, lack of co-ordination, the expectation of benefit, lack of interest, attitude, low level of awareness, opportunity, inadequate capital, etc. Hence, participation and investment have been established with the main goal to preserve, protect and manage resources and develop the socio-economic status of the local community. To achieve this challenging objective, proper communication channel and management is required between the local community and government.

The research began by performing a complete evaluation of literature on tourism involvement and investment in order to address the study's research questions. The literature review includes studies on participation and investment at the regional, national, and global levels. There are several literatures on participation but limited studies on investment in tourism SMEs in Langkawi Malaysia. To date, studies about tourism SMEs of local communities in Malaysia have received little attention. Hence, this research adds to the progress deliberation in tourism literature concerning the role of local community investment and participation in tourism development in Langkawi, Malaysia.

First, the thesis updated the existing knowledge on participation in development of tourism by reviewing the empirical literature on participation. In the same vein, the thesis highlights the critical factors constraining the local community participation and investment in TSMEs towards tourism development in Langkawi.

Second, the novelty of the thesis relates to its inclusion of savings capacity. Existing literature have not considered the influence of saving capacity on local community participation and investment (Kuznats, 1975). The study considered saving to be a determinant of investment, i.e., $S = I$, with S representing the proportion of income saved for future consumption and I being the investment. Investment can only be achieved through capitals, personal savings or loans. Investigating local community's savings will give a clear relationship to their willingness towards investing in tourism development.

Third, the outcomes of the thesis put together inferences for participation and investment policies. Since the study is primarily on factors constraining the local community participation and investment in tourism SMEs towards Langkawi tourism development, the outcome of the study would be advantageous to policymakers for tourism policy formulation. The research outcomes may perhaps aid the authorities and

policy planners by providing vital contributions on the possible impact of prevailing plans on participation and investment. Which would explicitly relief and reduce poverty among the local community and surge the proficiency level of Malaysian economic performance. In addition, the outcomes of this thesis would aid policymakers in formulating investment and participation policies for the local community. The impact of research having an effect on society be contingent on how policymakers, intellectuals and citizens choose to place research and use its outcomes.

Fourth, methodologically, this study develops a proposed research model based on participatory and social identity theories, which were tested in a single diagram using PLS-SEM. It is statistically confirmed that the model attained a good robust result and was espoused by these theories. Therefore, this study contributes a unique academic research model, which was tested using a robust statistical technique (PLS-SEM) to ascertain the exact and implied impacts of the study variables.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of Study

This study encompasses two main important issues in tourism development. First, it investigates the critical factors constraining the local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi using six variables: attitude, motivation, knowledge, opportunity, the expectation of benefit and savings.

Second, it accesses the factors influencing local community willingness to invest in the development of tourism. These factors include savings, attitude, motivation, knowledge, opportunity, and expectation of benefit.

However, there are certain limitations to the study that must be considered. Despite the fact that Peninsular Malaysia has several tourism destinations, this study focuses solely on Langkawi for logistical reasons. Most tourists who visited Malaysia

between 2012 and 2017 was also recorded to have visited Langkawi, according to some literatures. The island was also designated as Malaysia's first tourism city. Because this study only looked at local community in Langkawi, it's critical to manage and organise related research in other parts of Malaysia and other countries. Such research would serve as a foundation for comparison and as a basis for determining the generalisability of the findings in the context of a certain country or region. The concept's generalisability is increased by utilising multi-brand communities in various circumstances.

Another limitation of this study is its consideration of only Langkawi indigenes residing in the community rather than all residents of Langkawi. Future studies could address this issue by considering other involved bodies, such as foreigners, visitors and Langkawi indigenes living in other areas. These would really add to the findings of the thesis and provide a more comprehensive view.

The study is also limited to review of existing literature that shed light on community investment and participation in tourism development. The current study performs PLS-SEM with mediating effects of social identity on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development. The conceptual framework for the study is developed based on participatory and social identity theories. This needs to be tested by other researchers

Methodologically, the study chose pure quantitative approach. Further studies based on qualitative and mixed mode approaches would be necessary to complement the findings of this study.

1.8 Structure of the Study

This thesis is divided into six chapters. The study's first chapter began with background information on the thesis, followed by the problem statement. The research questions and

objectives are then drawn out. Finally, the thesis' importance and contributions are discussed. In conclusion, chapter 1 seeks to establish a strong belief for this study.

The second chapter provides an overview of Malaysia's tourism development. It covered topics such as government participation in tourism development, tourism's economic growth, investment and tourism development, investment and infrastructure development, TSMEs in Malaysia, the Langkawi tourism blueprint, tourism in Langkawi, and the tourism life cycle in Langkawi. The chapter finishes with a review of prior research on Malaysian tourism participation and investment.

The third chapter examines the existing literature on the topic of the thesis. It includes a literature review as well as all of the variables and theories used in the thesis. With current gaps identified in the literature review, this chapter supports the problem description and research questions.

The quantitative approach is covered in Chapter 4, which is about research technique. The general processes for empirical investigation of the problem statement and research questions are drawn in this chapter. This chapter also double-checks the consistency of research that is relevant to this study, such as the sampling procedure and analysis devices.

Chapter 5 states the discussion and data analysis for the data obtained to achieve objectives 1, 2, and 3. It also includes the thesis' findings.

The conclusion and policy implications are reported in Chapter 6. The results of each test were presented in this chapter and compared to the hypotheses given in Chapter 3 to determine if the hypothesis was supported or not.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This research encompasses three core objectives, which pertain to exploring the critical factors constraining the local community participation in tourism development and their willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in Langkawi. This chapter guides the development of the research framework. It begins with a comprehensive review of the literature on community participation and investment, subsequent to determining the mediating effect of social identity, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity, of the local community on the relationship between motivation and participation intention in Langkawi tourism development. The discussion draws from the participation and investment framework, relevant theories of this research as well as past empirical studies to assess local community's participation intention and willingness to invest in tourism development.

The chapter concludes with a summary of the chapter and identifies the research gaps to which this study is enthusiastic and dedicated to addressing.

2.2 The concepts of Local Community, Participation, Investment and Tourism

It is critical to comprehend the meanings of community, participation, investment, and tourism in order to adequately handle this research topic. Understanding what it means to be a part of a community will help us grasp the concept of community participation and investment.

Community is multidimensional and has been defined differently by varying scholars. Evidence has shown that community is a fundamental part of tourism development because it affects their social, economic and cultural activities (Munhurrun & Naidoo, 2010). Community is a place where local communities live and implement their everyday schedules and other societal activities. Hence, the advancement of such

community will not be easy without involving its host. Most activities like cultural festivals and community traditions are target for tourist as well as promoting tourism in the destination sites. Cultures, heritage and festivals hold tremendous uniqueness, as they vary with destinations. Arguably, tourism development is dependent on the local community's participation as employees in advancement authorities, guides and hoteliers (Dogra & Gupta, 2012). The community provides enabling environment for the tourists through provision of services, such as transportation, restaurant, facilities, information, accommodation, etc., (Aref, et al., 2010; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000).

Diverse definitions of community have been offered, which could guide us in selecting the study population. For example, Aref et al. (2010) defined community as "any existing or potential network of individuals, groups, and organizations that share or have the potential to share common concerns, interest and goals." According to Douglas, (2010, p. 1), a community is "a set of meaningful social connections in a group of any size where members have something in common." From the sociological perspective, the community is seen from the territorial or geographical point of view and as a relational concept. While the above definitions are from the social perspective, Isidiho and Sabran (2016 p. 2) defined community as "any collectivity of individuals, groups, subgroups and/or institutions or their representations which share time, space and resources for mutual concern." The fundamental purposes as having "both vertical and horizontal interrelationships" (Sabran, 2003, p. 2). Likewise, Warren (1972) look at community as a midpoint for essential events accomplished by the community. This indicates a social system in which people live among others and sharing services, facilities, communication networks, interest, needs, values and functions. MacQueen et al. (2010) viewed the community from five different perspectives. They characterised community as being people in a geographic entity or location, people with common interests and perspectives, coherence and identity, social ties, and diversity. Also, a more simplification of

community is to understand it as a place/location, social interaction and, political and social responsibility.

This array of definitions about the community could be classified into people and location. However, there is a shift of thought in the literature that geography or location is not a critical bound of the community (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Attention was more focused on (1) consciousness of kind, i.e., how members feel towards each other (Gusfield, 1975); (2) "the presence of shared rituals and traditions" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 413), which addresses the issue of culture, consciousness, and history; and (3) "a sense of moral responsibility" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 413), which explains the duty/obligation to individuals and the community (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Community from the traditional point refers to people living or working within the same geographical area and also share common ideologies together like cultures. On the other hand, the modern understanding of community advocated that the community has progressively developed from the traditional understanding, which emphasises to location and boundaries as opposed to interest, values and visions.

Following the above arguments about community, Aref, et al. (2010) highlighted that "local communities may be considered as the main attractions to community skill and knowledge while for others the community is simply the setting where tourism occurs." Their emphasis is on the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of the local community to boost tourism development, as more attention is placed on the function of the local community supply side in tourism development (Aref, et al., 2010). The features and behavior of communities be at variance from each other depending on their historical background. In political science, the community can be defined as a political constituency that has the right to participate in political activities, such as election of leaders and formulation of government policies.

Generally, the term “community” can be depleted in two different ways. Firstly, the regional or environmental notion of community, while the second relates to the social notion concerning the human relationship in terms of location. Again, the community can be seen as a group of socially interdependent people who participate in decision-making and share certain ideologies. In the tourism context, the local community are not to be classified by its territory alone but by affairs that gather people who share common interest about tourism activities. In this study, a community refers to group of people who live together in a particular place and are also indigenes of the place. Specifically, they are indigenes who reside or live in that community and are affected by tourism development at that destinations. This definition excludes foreigners living in the community or community members residing outside the community.

Based on this thesis, the sociologist definition will be used. Therefore, the community is defined as the assemble of folks who disclose the same characteristics and dwell in the same area or district. Langkawi community was chosen as the case study, with specific focus on the indigenes who are also residents of Langkawi. This excludes foreigners residing in Langkawi and Malaysians who are not native of the community but reside there.

2.2.1 Community Participation

Participation is a purposive state of mind in which a person prepares his or her mind to be involved in any activity like tourism development. It involves designing activities that expose the local people to the tourism industry to stimulate their participation in policy design and implementation of tourism development (Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007; Moyo & Tichaawa, 2017).

Many scholars become perplex when it comes to participation. Participation which is the voluntary involvement of people in development project, which often involve

the contribution of their labour and properties and in return for some anticipated benefits. From World Bank perspective, participation is a means within which shareholders induce domination over development initiatives and decisions which affect them. For that reason, participation is pondered a vital means to encourage people in development activities. Simply, participation gives power to the people. The basic features of tourism development are to inspire local community's participation in the tourism industry. Their participation contributes to tourism development. In the study of Telfer and Sharpley (2007), local community offers numerous viewpoints on tourism development. Inskip (1991) claimed that the only way to maximise the socio-economic benefits of tourism is for local community to participate in tourism activities. Participation has long been viewed as a constructive force for change and authorisation in the growth of a country. However, Chili and Ngxongo (2017) argue that this is an overly simplified conclusion. While it is simple to promote the concept of local engagement, putting it into practise is far more complex. Local participation is a characteristic that is frequently agreed upon as an essential need for any sort of tourism's development and sustainability (Lekaota, 2015).

Previous studies addressed the significance of participation in tourism development (Park & Yoon, 2009). According to Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar (2016), "Community participation constitutes a relationship, established by the members of the community, through their collaboration in achieving common goals and making the community a better place in which to live" or grassroots consensus anywhere people have the privilege to participate in issues affecting their life. This implies total involvement of the community in all aspects to attain tourism development (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016).

The result of Rasoolimanesh et al.'s (2017) study on community participation revealed that there should be a suitable communication channel between the local

authorities and government to safeguard constant flow with the community as well as facilitate their participation. They further argued that knowledgeable and highly educated residents should only be allowed to participate in tourism development. Pongponrat & Pongquan (2007) revealed that local participation should be encouraged among the locals mostly in decision making and supervision of matters that affect them directly. Hence, to ensure sustainable tourism, the entire community should participate rather than only highly educated and knowledgeable ones. Mayo and Tichaawa (2017) indicate that local communities should take full responsibility of every development in their environment, this helps them to have some influence in tourism development.

Michael et al. (2013) in their paper argued that regardless of the community demography, local community's desire to actively partake in the administrative procedure, as that is the only way their interests can be considered. Prabhakaran et al. (2014) addressed the poor knowledge of the community, which hindered their full involvement in tourism. As a result, he suggested that the qualitative approach should precede quantitative approach due to poor knowledge of the community members. He further highlighted that workshops and conferences should be organised in these environments to enlighten the indigenes on the impacts of tourism development and other subject matter. This he said will help them have more knowledge and give them the courage to stimulate their participation in the development of tourism. More possibilities should be provided for local community to participate in the expansion of tourism in their communes for their greater benefits.

Several researchers (Tosun, 2006; Zhao & Richie, 2007; Manyara & Jones, 2007; Micheal et al. 2013) have identified constraints to community participation and investment. These include among many others, lack of co-ordination, poor dissemination of information, unavailability of data, lack of interest, low level of awareness, inadequate

capital, attitude, skills, resources, knowledge, empowerment, opportunity, involvement, motivation, lack of ownership, expectation of benefit, inappropriate context towards community participation. Similarly, most community members have their jobs which they might not want to jeopardise because of tourism participation or tourism investment (Pongponrat & Pongquan, 2007).

Pongponrat & Pongquan (2007) revealed that most of the local communities have little understanding about the impacts of tourism and also lack organizational and management skills. As a result, they are hesitant towards tourism participation.

Furthermore, most local communities feel reluctant to participate in tourism development due to their perceived weightier discouraging influences of the tourism project (Almeida-Garcia et al., 2016). As Sofield (2003) suggested, in accordance to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), tourism development is one and the same with the growth of infrastructure, education of locals on the constructive and unconstructive effects of tourism, and many more. Most of the tourism activities are tourist-oriented and are provided at the expense of many local resources including norms and culture. This upturned method is apparent in contemporary tourism (Boukas & Ziakas, 2016; Zhang, Yamamura, & Fujiki, 2013). Hence, Kim, Park & Phandanouvong (2014) classified these constraints into three groups, namely operational, structural, and cultural limitations. As all these constraints are closely interconnected, it is imperative to understand how each avert the local community members from enthusiastically participating in tourism development.

Participation is valuable to development, but encounters many challenges that affects its success and sustainability. community participation remains unsettled. Importantly, little research has been done on the impact of community participation on outcomes at both the community and individual levels. Process outcomes, community

outcomes, health outcomes, empowerment, and stakeholder viewpoints were all classified as outcomes. The success of collaborative processes and activities throughout time is reflected in process outcomes, which are short-term results. The establishment, operation, and accomplishments of a community-based group or coalition are all referred to as organisational processes. Process-related improvements in the targeted community, such as greater community participation, outreach, or service consumption, are linked to community processes. They are intermediate social impacts that indicate changes in the knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours of community members. They also contain outcomes that represent the impact on social capital, community development, socio-cultural, and environmental benefits, among other things. The changes in the health status of community members are referred to as health outcomes. Stakeholder perspectives are stakeholders' positive feelings about community engagement processes or the outcomes of those efforts. Again, empowering them give them the enthusiasm of working together to address a self-identified community problem and create positive change that is self-sustaining, culturally relevant, and encourages knowledge transfer among community members. This is in accordance with the view that participatory approaches and positive outcomes like community empowerment and improvements are the result of complex processes influenced by a range of social and cultural elements rather than a straight-line element. Changes in social, economic, and political situations can have a long-term impact on outcomes. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) recognised several situational aspects as either encouraging or impeding the desired outcome, such as time available or attention paid.

Community participation has been a critical component of development procedures for the past two decades. Both the international and local communities urge the government to include local populations in decision-making that affects them directly. The concept of community participation has been articulated by various researchers and

institutions in various circumstances. The Economic Commission for Latin America (1973) defined community participation as an individual's voluntary contribution to a public programme in one form or another, whether in cash or in kind. Community participation is viewed as a bottom-up method in the definition above. Community participation, according to Christens (2012, p.45), is an active process by which communities influence the direction and execution of development in order to improve their well-being. The terms "community participation" and "knowledge" are often used interchangeably. Community engagement strengthens communities because it includes forging bonds between members of the community, with these bonds fostering a sense of belonging, trust, and trustworthiness (Jaafar, Md-Noor & Rasoolimanesh, 2015). In any country, community engagement is a crucial instrument for growth. The relevance of local community participation in the development process has been emphasised by global and bilateral assistance organisations, as well as NGOs. Local people's participation is required for the government to accomplish sustainable tourist development, which can be fostered through educating them on the benefits of tourism development (Blamey, 2021).

2.2.2 Community participation in the tourism context

The concept of participation originated in political science, but it pertains to political activity and individual rights (Tosun, 2005). Participation in development, on the other hand, is broader than the political right to vote in elections. The Economic and Social Council of the United Nations affirms the concept of development participation as follows:

‘Participation requires the voluntary and democratic involvement of people in (a) contributing to the development effort (b) sharing equitably in benefits derived there from and (c) decision making in respect of setting goals, formulating policies and planning and

implementing economic and social development programs' (Midgley, 1986a, p. 25).

In many domains of development, including tourism, the concept of involvement is extensively used. Tosun (2000) suggested that the definition of participation in the tourism development process is an adaptable and flexible paradigm that allows local communities in various tourist destinations at various stages of development to participate in tourism development, including determining the share of benefits from tourism development and the type of tourism development in their communities. Planning, implementation, and assessment are all stages of participation (Rojana, 2013). Community participation in tourism context can be investigated from two angles, according to Yeing and Zhou (2007): the decision-making process and the tourist advantages. For indigenous people, the benefits of participating in tourism development could include the preservation of sites, the preservation of culture, and the conservation of biodiversity (Nurse-Bray & Rist, 2009; Smith, Scherrer, & Dowling, 2009). Participation of the community in the planning and development process is critical for tourism development to be sustainable. Instead of the local government representing the larger community, Dredge (2006) argues that the broader community should be included in tourist planning. Community managers and planners must provide educational material and activities (e.g., workshops and awareness programmes) to local communities in order to engage them in tourism development processes. Many scholars thought community participation was a key technique for achieving long-term tourism growth. However, local community normally weighs the constructive and unconstructive effects of tourism development in deciding their participation (Amuquandoh, 2010). Hence, to ensure tourism development and sustainability, there is a need to understand local peoples' perceptions, participation, awareness and attitudes. Such understanding is vital for policymakers and can significantly aid the government in organising appropriate programs and events to facilitate growth (Choi & Murray, 2010; Kim & Butler, 2014).

Identification of mechanisms that influence local people's intents to participate in tourist activities is necessary for increasing their participatory intention towards tourism development (Zhang & Lei, 2012). The participatory development approach is thought to make tourism development principles easier to implement by giving local people more opportunities to gain larger and more balanced benefits from tourism development in their environment (Tosun, 2000), resulting in more positive attitudes toward tourism development and local resource conservation.

However, it was also discovered that many destinations with incredible tourism potential are still underdeveloped, and the community is unwilling to participate in their development for reason which is still largely inconclusive. However, the conflicts of opinion often expressed by the local communitys concerning the benefits of tourism development could be a contributing factor.

2.2.3 Stages of tourism development and community participation

One of the most crucial components of long-term tourist growth is community participation. However, meaningful participation is not easy to achieve because there are various obstacles to overcome. Looking at Butler's (1980) stages of tourism development and the local community's changing role in the process at different stages of development. It demonstrates that the local community plays a lesser role in the development of tourism in their destination. Many stakeholders are involved in tourist development, notably significant external tourism organisations. Tourism in destination communities may progress through many stages, resulting in differences in accessibility, physical infrastructure development, tourist numbers, and tour operators, all of which may have an impact on community engagement. Understanding community participation at each step of tourism development is critical. Butler (1980) devised a classic model, the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), which is widely acknowledged by tourism experts to define the development of tourist sites. Exploration, involvement, development,

consolidation, stagnation, and rejuvenation are the five stages of tourist development depicted in Figure 2.1.

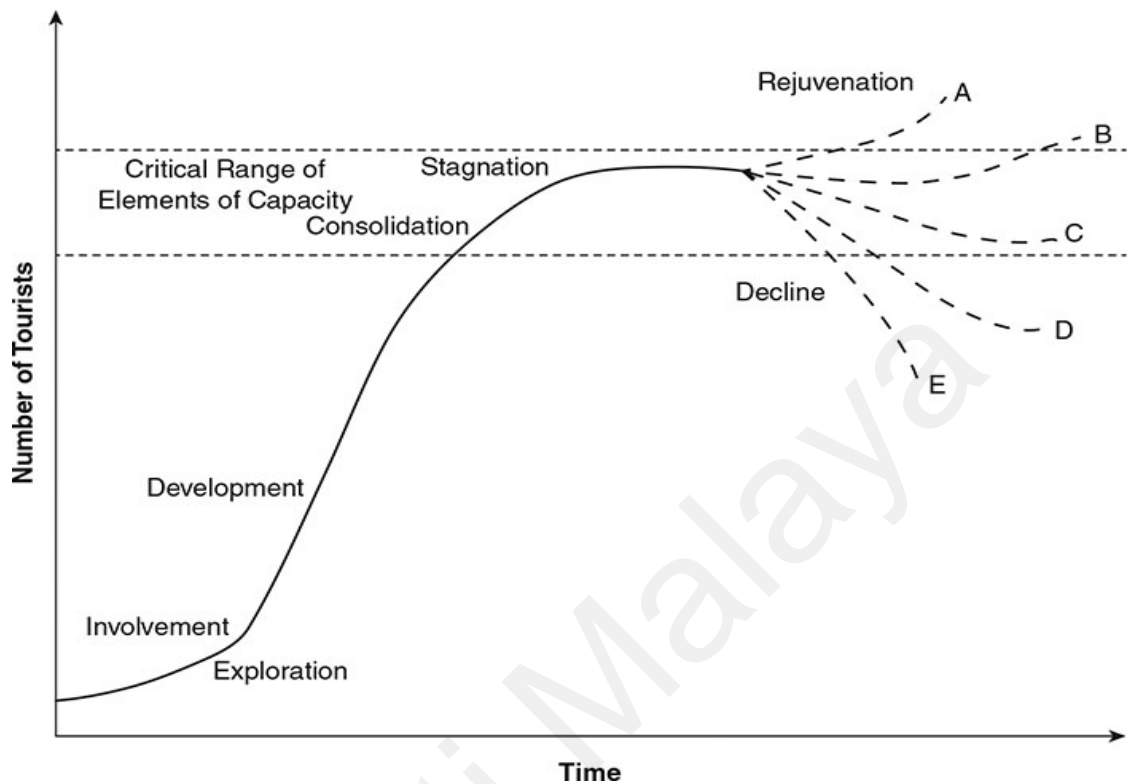


Figure 2.1 : The Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC)

Source: Butler, 1980.

Butler’s model explains how tourism development develops in a destination in terms of physical changes. The model clarifies each level of development and the level of involvement of the local community. He states how the level of local community involvement and control declines at development stage due to massive involvement of external bodies. The findings are consistent with Keller's (1987) research, which focused on the shift in control of tourism development from local communities to investors as tourism grows.

Butler's model depicts how tourism providers, visitors, and regulatory agencies are drawn to development over time. As the number of tourist’s expands, diverse authorities take prominent parts in the administrative and management process relating to

tourism development leaving the local communities only at the discovery level (Keller, 1987). Even though both Butler and Keller's models are in alignment of local communities decline in control and involvement when tourism is more developed.

Doxey's index of irritation (Irridex), the study delineates the degrees of host frustration over time. The Irridex model centers on tourism development and the relationships between tourist and the host community (Doxey, 1975). In her model, the result revealed four stages involved: (a) euphoria, (b) apathy, (c) annoyance and (d) antagonism. At the preliminary phase, there is little or no pressure between the tourists and the host community. Based on the model, tensions begin to increase from apathy to the highest level of antagonism. As tourist players take control of management and administration, dominance becomes increasingly unbalanced. The greater the decline in community participation, the more irritated they become. Looking at Butler's TALC, in the exploration stage, the destination has few tourists which are adaptive and self-governing. At this stage, local community involvement is likely to be high. Similarly, tourism activity during this time is generally new and irrelevant to the local people because of the little income that comes out of it. Simply, local communities do not have much interest in the tourism activities as at then. However, local communities involved in tourism activities then, they appear to have complete control over both management and the benefits that come to tourism.

The involvement stage is the second stage. At this point, visitor numbers begin to rise, and some locals begin to offer them with minimal amenities, such as accommodation, transportation services, food services and guides. At this stage, tourism activity is managed and control by the host community. Tourists and locals continue to interact often, but with a greater emphasis on delivering services to them. Due to the attractive income realized from the tourism activity, many local communities become

involved. Here, the community begins to give extra care to tourism. Even though the development of tourism is under the control of the host community, the possibility of clashes of interest may arise between the host and tourists. It is worth noting that local community's control of tourism development at this stage does not guarantee equal distribution of benefits among the local communities. In terms of decision making, power might be relinquished to the elite or prominent ones in the community.

The third stage is the development stage. At this stage, the destination is more popular and attracts more tourists into the community. Consequently, the services offered by local communities become inadequate for the existing demand which mostly are been replaced by more up-to-date facilities provided by external organisations. At this stage, local involvement and control declined drastically. Tourists at this stage become more concerned about facilities and activities to satisfy their needs. They began to weigh and value every cent spends in that community. Since many came to develop tourism facilities and invest in many businesses, control shift from the locals to the external investors. On the other hand, the local community may gain more income from the tourism expansion at this stage. When tourism expands further, the local economy and income also improves. Again, the decision making and management by the local may be dissolved.

On the fourth stage, the consolidation stage, tourist visitation begins to decrease, although total numbers still increase. At this stage, a major part of the area's economy is tied to the tourism industry. Doxey (1975) described this negative impact as "annoyance." The local people continue to have a little participation in tourism management, and income received from tourism begins to minimize. Nevertheless, this situation may become a turning point for all tourism stakeholders (dominated by external organisations) to reconsider their mode of tourism development following the unsuccessful outcomes of

the previous mechanism. At this point, destinations may move into one of the three stages (decline, stagnation or rejuvenation) depending on whether innovation occurs to deal with the unconstructive effects of tourism. Malaysia tourism is at this stage now.

At the fifth stage, which is the stagnation stage, the destination becomes unattractive to most tourists. If no further development is undertaken, the destination tends to lose its competitiveness to other developing destinations. Usually, the host community does not stay in this stage for long and will lead towards decline or rejuvenation. A decline stage may arise after destination capacity is reached, and is not re-imaged. At this point, the number of tourist visits drop dramatically and existing tourist curbing their stay.

The sixth stage, rejuvenation stage, this stage occurs when the community undergoes great transformation in its tourism attractions by creating man made attraction. On the other hand, if no new initiative is introduced, the destination will enter the decline stage whereby the negative impacts of tourism outweigh its benefits. Once there is a drop in tourism revenue, the external tourism organisations will desert the community and go to another place to explore advanced yields. At this stage, rehabilitation of the destination is almost impossible even with full community participation. Nevertheless, partnering with the local people could enable changes that will move the destination to stagnation stage rather than the decline stage.

As tourism grows, local people can engage in tourist planning and administration in a variety of ways and at various levels. Participation in the form of citizen control may be conceivable in the early phases of development. Later on, as the destination develops, it attracts more actors who exercise control over tourism, perhaps leading to further conflict in the area. When power is transferred to external investors, the local

community's interests and well-being are jeopardised. Keller (1987) presented two strategies for preventing disputes between tourism stakeholders (normally residents and outside investors). The first is limiting tourism development decision-making to local authorities and/or representatives who are trained and knowledgeable in the field of tourism. This strategy implies that local governments can withstand outside investor demands and incentives to participate in development, or at the very least, can ensure that local representatives have a majority on boards of foreign investment ventures. "Limited development" is the second. By limiting tourism development to a scale that is compatible with local resources, this plan helps to avoid an external takeover of the development.

2.2.4 Types of tourism development and community participation

Aside from the stages of development, the types of tourism development that have been developed are another important factor that may influence community participation in tourism development. According to Scheyven (2002), mass tourism is frequently connected with luxury hotels and resorts, and it entails busloads of visitors visiting a local town once a day for a cultural performance and souvenir shopping before returning to their hotels. Weaver (2001) also made a distinction between mass and alternative tourism. The majority of mass tourism begins with the purchase of a batch or package trip at a low cost so that travellers can enjoy standard amenities. As a result, mass tourism has a depersonalised relationship with the host community, as accommodations are frequently big-scale and owned by major businesses. Furthermore, the non-local private sector is subject to minimal municipal regulation. Alternative tourist offerings such as ecotourism, responsible tourism, green tourism, cultural tourism, soft tourism, ethnic tourism, and sustainable tourism have been developed in response to criticisms of mass tourism's detrimental effects.

Rather than focusing exclusively on economic growth, alternative tourism promotes small-scale tourism that minimises environmental and cultural interference and prioritises community needs, involvement, and interests (Scheyvens, 2003). Alternative tourism, according to Butcher (2003), is tourism that adheres to natural, social, and communal values, allowing both the host and the guest to have positive and worthwhile interactions and shared experiences. The degree to which local people are involved depends on the type of tourism development involved. Local people, for example, may have more opportunities to participate in cultural tourism and eco-tourism by working as porters, local guides, or cultural performers. High-end resort tourism, on the other hand, may limit local participation in tourist enterprises, which are largely owned by outside investors who frequently allege that locals are unable to deliver normal tourism services (Scheyvens, 2003). Community-based tourism is one type of alternative tourism that is being considered in this study. Community-based tourism, according to the definition, refers to tourist projects in which citizens of local communities have a high degree of control over tourism activities and share a major percentage of the economic advantages.

2.2.5 Empirical Findings on Participation

Previous studies addressed the importance of community participation in tourism development. There has been a relatively slow realisation of the importance of community participation in tourism development (Aref, 2011). Rasoolimanesh et al. (2017) argued that a consultation channel should be made available by the local authorities and government to guarantee continuous tie with the community and also ensure local participation. Communication is very important and leads to a good relationship. Hence, when communities are carried along with detailed information, it brings in them great confidence.

Mayo and Tichaawa (2017) opined that local communities should take full responsibility of every development in their environments to help them gain some influence in tourism development. Local communities should take an active part in the decision-making process, as it is the only way to ensure that their interests are considered during tourism development planning in their community.

Fariborz (2011) also emphasised that all tourism-related initiatives should incorporate the local population. Obtaining the opinions of the local population before commencing on a development project is a smart management technique (Li, 2006). This ensures that the local interests are considered in decisions regarding them and their community. Prabhakaran et al. (2014) highlighted that the poor knowledge of the community hinders their active participation in tourism development activities. They further noted that adapting the qualitative method should precede the quantitative approach due to poor knowledge of the local communities. Similarly, Sirakaya (2001) and Dinham (2005) claimed that community engagement has the ability to shift local people's views from passivity to responsibility, as well as to create a new relationship between persons and their destination based on shared authority. Local communities, according to Cheong and Miller (2000), should be proactive and resistant to undesirable change, and there should be flexibility for debate in planning and development to ensure that development is carried out in the best possible way. Tourism development inside a community necessitates the willing engagement of the host community. The best results are attained when a community is active in the destination development procedures (from design to maintenance). The results, on the other hand, are poor when they are merely participating in information sharing and consultation. To mitigate the negative effects of tourism development and maximise the advantages, effective tourism planning necessitates resident participation (Chambers, 2002; Wates, 2000). Tourist satisfaction is expected to be higher in areas where hosts support and take delight in tourism, according

to Page (2007). As a result, local community participation is critical for long-term tourism sustainability. It will most likely reduce enmity between tourism developers, tourists, and the community in terms of activities performed, and the consequences of those actions will fall on the local population (Nyaupane et al., 2006). According to Teye et al. (2002), community involvement in tourism planning and development is critical. Wilson et al. (2001) agreed with Teye et al. (2002) and went on to say that tourism development and management should not be left to the government alone, as it is in many developing countries, but that the community should be fully involved in tourism development projects and decision-making, as many previous studies have suggested (Aref & Ma'rof, 2008; Andriotis, 2002; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001; Botes & Van Rensburg, 2000; Watt et al., 2000; Hanafiah et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the composite interaction of local communities with the environment, it's critical to look at the relationship between the factors affecting intention to participate and willingness to invest problems as well as those shaping the local community's views. Malaysia is among the countries that are globally recognised as a tourist country due to its significant development and security, which can be credited to the country's vision of becoming a top tourist destination. These features serve as a major tourist draw, resulting in tremendous economic growth. Participation of the community in the development process can result in economic, social, and environmental gains. Governments all across the world, including Malaysia, have long been concerned in reducing rural poverty and tourism development is commonly considered as a tool for alleviating poverty. Nonetheless, the significance of economic development to poverty decrement can be demoralised if the benefits of development are impartially dispersed among the citizens, particularly the vulnerable and poorest groups in the public eye (Grindle, 2004).

Because the tourism business is a service industry that involves many participants in its effective growth at a destination, tourism development at a destination is often considered like other commercial industries. Community managers and planners must provide educational information and programmes (such as workshops and awareness programmes) to host communities in order to engage them in the tourism development process.

2.3 Willingness to Invest

Willingness to invest can be defined “as the quality or state of being prepared to do something; readiness, preparedness, disposition, inclination, will, wish, desire, eagerness, keenness, enthusiasm to invest.” Investment comprises of the investor, capital and private individuals willing to share resources (Beazer, 2012). Investment seems enthralling to people because it makes them take decisions. Making decisions by individual help them to judge their ability to take the right steps. This is because decisions based on hasty investment and poor forecast often lead to an unpredictable business outcome and an inability to avert situations characterised by high uncertainty (Beazer, 2012). As a result, an investor's willingness to invest is determined by his or her ability to share resources with the firm, make good use of other resources such as time, and optimise the firm's venture fund. Uncertainty is a cogent variable depriving investor to invest in certain businesses or industries. Putting up an investment requires consideration of a cost-benefit benchmark. Koellner, et al. (2010) argued that the cost-benefit of an intention defines the attitudes towards either willingness to invest or intention to participate. Hence, the intention arises from knowing the cost-benefit accrued to such behavior, which is determined by the direct and indirect financial or non-financial benefits. Investment increases people’s understanding, expedites development and improves awareness on the worth of the environs (Séraphin et al., 2018; Ma & Kaplanidou, 2016; Jeon, et al., 2016). Investment not only contributes to economic

prosperity and individual well-being, but it also protects citizens from the unknown future.

2.3.1 Tourism Small and Medium Enterprises in Malaysia (TSMEs)

The dimension of investment investigated in this study relates to activities that are frequently used by tourists. They include accommodations, food, transportation, entertainment, a tourist guide, etc. This study examines the willingness of the local communitys to invest in TSMEs.

The efforts of the Malaysian government towards tourism have yielded positive outcomes, with 85% of tourism activities resulting in the country's TSMEs (Monda, et al., 2021). The Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) are used by Malaysia's government to characterise tourism-specific products from the perspective of suppliers, using guidelines from the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), Eurostat, and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The government has recognised the relevance of tourism SMEs in the tourism industry in addition to tourism products and services. The government has put in place financial and non-financial programmes to help tourism SMEs succeed. In 2010, there are a total of 239,110 tourism SMEs, majority (59.7%) of which offer food and beverages services, followed by transportation services (16.7%) and others (8.2%) (Set, 2013; Malaysia department of statistics, census 2011, 2012). This demonstrates that the Malaysian government is actively working to improve the capabilities of tourism SMEs, which are the backbone of the Malaysian tourism economy.

Malaysian government policies on tourism planning implementation, particularly during the sixth, seventh and eight Malaysian plans, brought about a high number of tourism SMEs. The government set up a special fund of RM 200million for tourism, purposely for tourism SMEs projects. The government also included a new article to the

1968 Investment Incentive Act, which exempted tour operators from paying income tax (Economic Planning Unit, 1991). To spur further tourism growth and sustainability, tourism SMEs are expected to play a dynamic role. The government recognised the role of tourism SMEs especially entrepreneurial skills in its plans and has subsequently affected some initiatives designed at improving efficacy in the tourism industry (Set, 2013).

Table 2.1 : Distribution of Tourism Small and Medium Enterprises (TSMEs)

TSMEs Business Activities	Establishment	%
Accommodation services	2,817	1.2
Transportation services	40,025	16.7
Art, entertainment and recreation	6,217	2.6
Food and beverage services	142,721	59.7
Miscellaneous tourism services	36,721	15.4
Travel agency, tour operators and tourism guide services	10,609	4.4
TOTAL	239,110	100.0

Source: Shariff & Abidin (2018).

Because of the increase in visitor arrivals and diversification of tourism products and services, the tourism industry has provided business opportunities, particularly among tourism SMEs in Malaysia. In Malaysia, the number of tourism SMEs in the services sector increased from 100,637 (21.1%) in 2005 to 239,110 (41.1%) in 2010. (Malaysian Department of Statistics, Census 2005, 2012). On the other hand, with respect to the gross output of SMEs in the service sector, tourism SMEs recorded a low output (24.7 percent) when compared with other SMEs (75 percent). In term of employment, the tourism service sector employed more than a third (38.1 percent) of the 2.6 million employees of SMEs in the service sector (MOTOUR, 2011). Hence, TSME contributes income to the nation as well as the tourism industry.

Table 2.2 : Indicators of SMEs in the Malaysian service sector for the year 2010.

Indicators	Total SMEs in the Service Sector		TSMEs		Other SMEs Service	
Number of establishments	580,985	100.0%	239,110	41.1%	341,875	58.9%
Gross output (Million R)	286,640	100.0%	70,846	24.7%	215,794	75.3%
Value added (Million R)	165,284	100.0%	31,043	18.7%	134,241	81.3%
Employment (persons)	2,600,000	100.0%	991,419	38.1%	1,608,518	61.9%

Source: Set, (2013)

Tourism is one of the most essential components of the global economy on a worldwide scale. It brings in billions of dollars and millions of employments all around the world. In many countries, it is regarded as a tool for development and increased living standards (Mak, Cheung & Hui, 2017; GhulamRabbany et al., 2013). The tourist business is one of the world's largest, contributing about \$7.6 trillion in worldwide economic contribution (direct, indirect, and induced) in 2016. In 2016, the industry's direct economic impact, which includes (1) entertainment, (2) lodging, (3) transportation, (4) attractions, and (5) food, was estimated to be around 2.3 trillion dollars. Countries like France and the United States have long been famous tourist destinations, while others, less well-known countries, are rapidly growing to profit from the industry's economic benefits. With foreign tourist arrivals increasing from 528 million in 2005 to 1.19 billion in 2015, the tourism industry has seen consistent expansion. Furthermore, it was predicted that by 2030, the global population will top 1.8 billion. With 607 million outbound tourists in 2015, Europe receives the largest international tourist arrivals on a yearly basis (Statistica, 2021; Tourism Malaysia, 2021).

International tourism income reached 1.26 trillion dollars in 2015, more than twice the level reported in 2005. China, the United States, and Germany were the countries with the most foreign tourism spending. The most important city in term of international visits is Dubai, generating a total of 31.3 billion U.S. dollars in revenue in 2016 (WTTC, 2020). Tourism is considered a means for development due to its positive economic impacts (WTTC, 2020).

2.3.2 Investment and Tourism Development

The commitment of existing financial resources toward obtaining larger future profits is characterised as investment (Malik, 2009). It includes all types of property or assets, including movable and immovable property, intellectual property, franchise rights, and shares and bonds (Huan, 2011 p.554). As a component of aggregate demand, it impacts a country's proportion of economic growth and, more significantly, the economy's productive capacity. Investments in a community generate growth and create job possibilities, ultimately enhancing the communities' living conditions (Mrema, 2015). Investment is stated as involving knowledge and information sharing. This emphasises the value of knowledge and information in the investment process. Investors demand a positive return on their investment. In other words, what the destination presents and what it proposes to deliver them triggers their desire to invest (Set, 2013). Governments also support tourism investment because of the enormous contribution it makes to a country's development and economy (Tourism Malaysia, 2021; Puah, et al., 2018; Nawaz, 2016; Richardson, 2014). In comparison to other sectors, it also produces more exponentiation and multiplier effects (Yang et al., 2018; Faber & Gaubert, 2019). Investment instils pride in the community, as well as boosts and fosters the sector's ability to obtain recompense (Nawaz, 2016; Balamohandas, & Sharma, 2011).

Savings are concentrated in the high-income category, according to Kuznets' (1955) inverted U-shaped curve. As a result, tourism investment is proportionate to households' willingness to save from their earnings. The ability of a household to save from its earnings is determined by the size of the local community's expenditure. According to Kuznets (1955), people in the lowest quintile of the income distribution save very little. Because savings = investment, and household income describes how much a household can save from a given income, the local community's willingness to engage in tourism is determined by their ability to save. Tourism growth necessitates financial investment and a determined effort on the part of the local community to increase their saving capacity. While income is expected to match expenditure in order to maximise the required level of consumption, the perception of savings in the local community will determine their willingness to invest in tourism development. Savings deprives households of immediate consumption, increasing investment and future consumption prospects. Because capital is so important, the study claims that include saving would help us better understand the local community's propensity to invest in the tourism business. The goal of every investor is to earn annual returns on assets by taking advantage of the rise in value over time. When an investor decides to buy or sell, he glimpses the company's performance, price and how it operates over some period. He also figures out the future performance based on the past investment.

2.3.3 Empirical Findings on Willingness to Invest

Willingness to invest can be seen as favorable disposition or inclination towards allocation of money or time in anticipation of some future benefits. Willingness is all about a gut feeling of comfort and a non-quantitative concept. Moon and Tikoo (2003) positioned that manufacturers can boost their willingness to invest in a dealer if there is clear communication between them towards maintaining a long-term relationship. Small Tourism Firm (STF) owners are motivated into accommodation companies depending on

what the destination presents and intends to offer, according to a study by Lai et al. (2016). According to Koelliner et al. (2010), people have a poor desire to participate in the ecosystem. Their findings revealed that a firm's willingness to invest (WTI) is influenced by its origin. Although willingness to invest was discussed in the study, which applies to firms, they failed to examine the economic value of ecosystem services and also discuss role of local community in policymaking. Set (2013) examined tourism investment in SMEs and found that majority of tourism SMEs in Malaysia are small-sized and family-owned.

Surugiu & Surugiu (2015) revealed that social media correlates with heritage tourism development in Romania and that expansion in ICT promotes tourism entrepreneurs. However, they did not investigate the activities of the local community, such as their willingness to invest. In Zhou et al. 2017, in their study, the study agrees with social capital theory about willingness to invest in tourism, however the study failed to investigate the entrepreneur mobility in tourism in urban centers. In Narayan et al. (2017), results reported that investors can gain substantially by investing in certain sectors.

2.4 Social Identity as Mediation

Social identity is “a social psychological analysis of the role of self-conception in group membership, group processes, and intergroup relations” (Hogg, 2006; p111). The theory is “explicitly framed by a conviction that collective phenomena cannot be adequately explained in terms of isolated individual processes or interpersonal interaction alone” (Hogg, et al., 2017). It is “a social group that involves individuals who hold a common social identification or view themselves as member of the same social category” (Stets & Burke, 2000, P.225). In categorising social group, Stets and Burke (2000) proposed “in-group” and “out-group” (P225). The “in-group” refers to people that have similarity to

'the self,' while "out-group" refers to people that differ to 'the self.' Hence, the local community in this study conforms to the in-group category in which the tourism destinations have similar identity, thereby forming a tourist center.

Social identity theory, according to Liu and Laszlo (2007), is a theory that provides a framework for psychologists and sociologists to comprehend the relationships between individuals and the social settings in which they live. The theory also addresses the distinction between social and personal identity, which is at the heart of the distinction between interpersonal and group circumstances (Brown, 2000). The idea begins with the assumption that social identity is primarily generated from participation in groups (Brown, 2000). Group, in this instance, is a self-conceptualised thought, and "exists psychologically if three or more people construe and evaluate themselves in terms of shared attributes that distinguish themselves collectively from other people" (Hogg, et al., 2017).

2.4.1 The Concepts of Mediation and Social identity

While examining the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, intervening variables can be utilised to explain the outcome of the analysis. This is referred to as mediation, a concept that originates from the settling of disputes in the judiciary (Lande, 2000). By and large, the use of analytical intervening variables is relevant and widely used in applied as well as basic researches, such as medicine, psychology, communication, business, social and economics. The mediation analysis is usually based on underline assumptions (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011, P. 692) depicted in a specified mediation model. The assumption is that a predictor changes the mediator effect, which in turn changes the outcome effect. In other words, the hypothesis is that "the mediated effect is the effect of the intervention on the outcome that is transmitted through the mediator" (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011, P. 692). This gives what James and

Brett (1984) referred to as “mediation hypothesis.” Hence, the attempt to analyse the third variable in a regression model is to examine the causal process (Mackinnon, Krull & Lockwood, 2000). The mediation hypothesis accounts for two paths: The first path is to examine the causal effect of the predictor variable (X) on the response variable (Y), with the outcome explaining the direct effect of the relationship. The second path accounts for the examination of the predictor variable (X) on the response variable (Y) through a mediating variable (M), with the effect of M on Y variables explaining the indirect effect of the relationship. This mediation relationship is explained in Figure 2.2

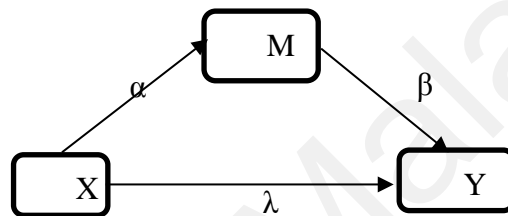


Figure 2.2 : Mediation model

The Figure 3.3 shows a single mediator model, where mediating variable, M, transmits the influence of the predictor variable, X, onto the response variable, Y. The model equally shows a direct relationship of the predictor variable with the response variable, Y; the two paths contain three parameters, with the total effect being $\alpha\beta + \lambda$ (Fairchild, et al., 2009).

2.4.2 Understanding Mediation Effect in Structural Equation Modelling

In social and behavioral research, several factors could influence the outcomes of the research. For example, in statistical research, beginning from the research design and through the collection and analysis of data, the research results are affected (Aktas & Keskin, 2013). Although effect size is not exceptional in hierarchical modeling, its establishment helps researchers using a primary (survey) data rather than secondary data (Aktas & Keskin, 2013). Hence, avoidance of testing for effect size in a study usually has

a serious consequence on the findings (Aktas & Keskin, 2013). According to Cohen (1992), analysing the effect size began with Neyman and Pearson (1928) and was later expanded by Cohen (1988) and applied in social researches. Further value of effect size is the shifting of research focus in determining the statistical significance to “practical significance of their work (study)” (Fairchild et al., 2009). The earlier approach to mediation analysis was the use of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to carry out mediational hypothesis (Fiske, Kenny & Taylor, 1982). However, the ANOVA method was found deficient because of its limited provisional tests. Hence, Baron and Kenny (1986) argued for three regression equations emerging from the mediation framework. The equation is stated in equations (2.1) to (2.4).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \mu_1 \quad (2.1)$$

$$M = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \mu \quad (2.2)$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 M + \mu \quad (2.3)$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 M + \mu \quad (2.4)$$

With data availability and as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), equation 2.1 shows a simple regression analysis where X predicts Y to test for the parameter, λ path alone. The equation 2.2 shows a simple regression analysis where X predicts the mediation variable, M with parameter α alone. The equation 2.3 explains a simple regression where the response variable, Y, is being predicted by a mediating variable, M, with the parameter β . At this juncture, it is assumed that there should be a correlation between the two variables; otherwise, estimation of equation 2.4 is not necessary. Hence, the equation 2.4 is a multiple regression where mediation, M, and predictor variable, X, are the explanatory variables to the response variable, Y.

Baron and Kenny (1986, p.1177) argued that “the independent variable can have a smaller coefficient when it alone predicts the dependent variable than when it and the

mediator are in the equation” but the larger coefficient is not significant and the smaller one is to determine the indirect effect. He suggested Sobel test statistics because it gives “an approximate significance test” (p.1177). However, Baron and Kenny (1986) pointed out that the Sobel statistics is defective due to omission of standard errors of the predictor variable-mediator variable path (i.e., σ_a and σ_b). As such, the multivariate model for the standard errors is presented in (2.5)

$$\sqrt{b^2 S_a^2 + a^2 S_b^2 + S_a^2 S_b^2} \quad (2.5)$$

Nevertheless, Akter et al. (2011) argued that the alternative Variance Accounted For (VAF) was recommended by Akter et al. (2011) to establish the size of indirect effect (IDE) in the relationship using the following formula: $VAF = a + b / a + b + c$

This indicates effect (IDE) medication is effective than the method earlier described. It is less time consuming as well as having a minimal error in the estimation (Kock, 2014). Therefore, we choose to test for IDE in our mediation analysis to see the actual mediating effect of the relationship

2.4.3 Justification of Social Identity as Mediating Variable

Understanding the intergroup relationship is to demonstrate salient self-categorisation, in other words, social identity. Liu (2012, p. 5) argued that “the awareness of belonging to a group that is different than another group is enough to create prejudice in favor of the in-group against the out-group.” Among the local communities and investors, there exist social groups that could intervene in the relationship of motivation with participation due to self-categorisation. To achieve this, two issues arise: the definition of the group and the maximum benefit of the individual self-esteem arising from the group (Hymans, 2002). The effect of pushing for the individual self-esteem is to cajole the relationships. In other words, the classifying self in a group gives way to flatter

the relevance of another group in terms of qualities, distribution and motive attribution (Hymans, 2002). From the foregoing, it can be argued that social identity could mediate a relationship, particularly, the factors affecting local community's participation intention. In the previous studies on motivation and participation, evidence showed that the individual self-categorisation within a group or the social identity is missing (Chris, Zhao & Zhu 2014; Weinberg et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2013). For example, Weinberg et al. (2000) investigated the relationships between motivation and participation in sports activities without giving much consideration to the effect of individual self-categorisation in the community. Instead, frequencies (time and week) of participation were examined; likewise, Chris, Zhao, and Zhu (2014). Zhang et al. (2013) came up with intrinsic and extrinsic as latent variables for motivation to predict people participation in activities known as crowdsourcing. In so doing, this thesis positioned that examining the social identity, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity, savings on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development of the local community would be necessary.

2.4.4 Empirical Findings on the Social Identity

Various studies on social identity have been undertaken, but not as a mediating variable. In the study of Sukoco and Wu, they employed social identity as a motivation mediator and discovered that self- and social-related motivation play important roles in members' brand identification and integration. The cornerstone of members' motivations to join in a community activity is their sense of identification (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Other research suggested that the goal-directed behaviour model, together with social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), could explain community participation (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b).

The findings accord with those of Wright et al. (2006) and Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006b) in that knowledge that encourages members to identify and support community activities needs to be updated. Furthermore, Sukoco and Wu (2010) and Füller, et al. (2007) found that the enjoyment motive motivates people to identify with and integrate into a group. Members' demand for esteem drives them to identify with and integrate into a group, according to this study, which supports the claims of Tajfel and Turner (1986) and Crocker, et al (1994). Furthermore, according to Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) and Schouten and McAlexander (2001), the need to identify with others pushes communities to integrate into the community (1995). Again, social status stimulates communities to engage in community activities, confirming Schouten and McAlexander's hypothesis (1995). However, the majority of these studies focused on the basic reasons why consumers join a brand community and the implications of doing so. In conclusion, the notions of self-categorisation, self-esteem, and group affirmation are used to assess social identity (Sukoco & Wu, 2010).

2.5 Theoretical Framework used in the study

The section explains the theories used in this study and presents the framework, which explains the 13 hypotheses generated from the previous findings.

2.5.1 Participatory Theory:

Research in participation requires a strong and consistent explanation of the theories, since this is important for the users of information (Audretsch, et al., 2007). The participatory theory (PT) states that participation is an approach that facilitates folks' involvement in planning on matters that affect them. It addresses the needs related to them and also empowers them as well (Freire, 1972). Similarly, Freire (1972) saw the PT as a "dialogical pedagogy" based on the ideals of equity distribution and active grassroots engagement. In general, his concept suggested a human-centered approach that

emphasises the role of communication in communal decision-making. Participation, he argued, should be present at all stages of development, from planning to implementation, as well as during the evolution phases. Participation has become the dominant approach in all development initiatives, as acknowledged by the World Bank, which recognises that meaningful social change in any development initiative cannot be achieved solely through external experts involved in development processes, whether in developed or developing countries (World Bank, 1996: p. 7). The participatory philosophy enables development projects to include local populations in the development process while avoiding being dominated by them (Rahim, 1994: p. 118). This method is still relevant today because it allows individuals and communities to determine and become subjects of their own development rather than becoming objects of technological processes (Thomas, 1994 p. 49). As a result, a participatory approach enables local people to gain the skills they need to implement and coordinate development projects on their own, allowing them to enjoy greater benefits and sustain such goals and gains over time. Despite the positive direction that participatory theory is taking in terms of enhancing community participation in development processes, it nonetheless confronts operational problems. As an instance, “a potential pitfall of joint decision-making in a group of stakeholders representing diverse social positions is the power imbalance among actors that intimidates the reliability of a participatory strategy” (Inagaki, 2007: p. 13). This is clear, as Inagaki points out, in a study of a community cooperation project in South Africa to improve healthcare services (El-Ansari & Phillips, 2001). The author of the study (Inagaki, 2007: p. 13) discovered the various methods in which particular groups of participants were excluded from the decision-making process. The contributions of the old, young, ignorant, and low-income people were once again overshadowed by those of elites, professors, and government organisations. According to the findings, different groups of project participants felt varying degrees of project ownership, which led to inconsistent levels of commitment to

coalition-building efforts among members, according to Inagaki study. Some stakeholders were also unsure about the purpose of building community partnerships, noting a lack of clarity in partner relationships. Despite its flaws, the participatory approach to development has clearly earned mainstream acceptance in recent empirical literature. There are more participatory projects among the development projects reviewed so far than programmes based on the modernisation or diffusion theories.

Between 1945 and 1965, the modernisation proposition was at the forefront of traditional theory where development was seen as growth. Since the 1960s, the development failure of the low-income countries increased the attempt to change the argument of growth to concentrate on human capital development. As such, the evolution of participatory theory began in the 1970s, which arose from the market and government failures in the least developed countries. Regarding the good living proposed in development studies, Anand and Sen (2000) argued for health, education, and standard of living as human development indices that promote living a good life. Thus, since the 1980s and 1990s, the participatory theory got a wider understanding across disciplines but with the same goal of involving people. For example, in economics, the goal is to enhance the equal distribution of the available economic resources belonging to a community. The participatory theory emphasises people's involvement in collective decisions that directly and indirectly affect them to enhance good governance. In the firm, the entrepreneur involves the workers in decisions on planning, policy, purchase of equipments, and evaluation of the implementations of those plans and policies to achieve the profit goal of the firm. In rural development, the people in the community are gripped in the project planning, strategies, policy formulation, implementation and evaluation of the projects. Following these arguments, participatory theory stipulated that:

“public or stakeholder individuals, groups and/or organisations are involved in making decisions that affect them, whether passively via

consultation or actively via two-way engagement, where publics are defined as groups of people who are not affected by or able to affect decisions but who engage with the issues to which decisions pertain through discussion and stakeholders are defined as those who are affected by or can affect a decision” (Reed, et al., 2018, p.3).

Thus, government failure as a result of development regarding human needs could be minimised by participatory interventions of the stakeholders. To achieve success in governance, the profitability of the firm and provision of good living for the people is required. In the development process, different approaches were introduced over time. These include the Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Participatory Analysis Community Action (PACA). The RRA, as the first among the series, focused on how the external people would quickly acquire knowledge from the local people regarding their challenges and actualities. However, the RRA was challenged on the word ‘rural,’ that is, the model could apply to urban. Also, the word ‘rapid’ and the application of the concept were questioned. These shortcomings led to the development of PRA. The PRA is a set of the semi-structured process of learning from, with and by rural people about conditions. In other words, PRA is rural-centered, while the RRA is outsider-centered. The PRA proposed empowerment, the local knowledge, facilitation that would lead to a sustainable project. The PRA was effective in bringing the stakeholders to the forefront of decision making. PACA was introduced to empower women in agriculture. The PACA was developed in 1994 at Ecuador's participatory conference to enhance the capabilities and involvements of women in agriculture.

The participatory theory is investigated in the context of tourism development in the Langkawi district in this thesis. In addition, the Langkawi local communities were chosen to test the hypothesis that development failure in developing countries is due to a failure to engage local populations in development processes. While this study does not undertake a comparison analysis, it does seek to determine whether communities are involved in development and policy initiatives.

2.5.2 Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is defined as, “a social psychological analysis of the role of self-conception in group membership, group processes, and intergroup relations” (Liu & Chan, 2010). Or “the individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). Groups strive for evaluative positive distinctiveness as collections of people who have the same social identity. Tajfel (1978) proposed social identity theory, which was later utilised by Muniz and O’Guinn in their later studies (2001). The SIT stipulates that one is socially identified when he is aware of his status in a social group. Hence, the local community’s (people) social identity is useful to build interest in tourism development. The fundamental relationships sensed among them are embodied in the dimensions of a community, which is the consciousness of sorts (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001). This dimension is based on the concept of social identity (eHogg & Abrams, 1988; Tajfel, 1978). Tajfel (1978) proposed that a person’s social identity is formed through self-awareness of group membership. There are three pillars in use, according to Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk (1999). These include a cognitive pillar that discusses self-categorisation in a social group, an evaluative pillar that discusses the positive and negative effects of social identity, and an emotional pillar that focuses on consciousness or emotions to involve in the group activities. So, this study claims that the SIT would stand as a mediator where the three pillars of Social identity theory are (i) local community self-categorisation, (ii) local community self-esteem, and (iii) local community affective-commitment as later used in Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006). These pillars would account for the examination of the local community’s intention to participate and the willingness to invest in tourism development. Social identity theory demonstrates how it is a broad view of group membership and phenomena that includes small and big groups, interactive and non-interactive groups, task-oriented and self-definitional groups,

as well as intra and intergroup phenomena. It's a viewpoint that can and does deal with tiny groups of people (Hogg, et al., 2017).

According, to Sukoco and Wu, (2010) used social identity theory as a mediating variable between motivation (self-motivation and social-motivation) and participation. The findings show that motivation (both self- and social-related drive) is important in encouraging people to identify with and integrate into a group. These findings are in line with Muniz and Schau's findings (2005), and Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006b), that knowledge motivates members when they know the negative and positive impacts of what is going on in their environment, it gives them the power to support the activities in their community. Again, the findings confirm the results of Schouten et al. (2007) and Füller et al. (2007), where local communities' motivation leads them to identifying and integrating themselves perfectly in their community. The study also demonstrates that communities' need for esteem drives them to identify with and integrate into the community, bolstering Tajfel and Turner's (1986) and Crocker et al (1994) assertions. Furthermore, the community integrates as a result of the need to identify with others, as Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) and Schouten and McAlexander (2001) found (1995). Finally, social status stimulates communities to engage in activities in their immediate surroundings, confirming Schouten and McAlexander (1995) and Leigh et al (2006) study.

2.6 Research Hypotheses / Development

There are 13 different null hypotheses to be tested regarding factors affecting local community intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development.

3.6.1 Attitude: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development.

The findings of Fong and Lo (2015) indicated the importance of understanding local communities' attitudes towards tourism development. Attitude helps to capture the perception of the tour participants to adopt a responsive mechanism in controlling the negative influences that could arise from tourism (Sharma & Dyer, 2009). A similar finding was reported by Andereck et al. (2005) and Teye et al. (2002). Consequently, Fong & Lo (2015) applied knowledge sharing, participation in decision making, degree of knowledge about tourism and empowerment as the community participation manifest variables, while Zhang and Lei (2012) used management training programs, discussion meetings and service as a management committee member.

Furthermore, understanding local community attitude towards tourism development triggers their participation (Page & Dowling, 2002). According to Lai and Nepal (2006), there are four dimensions that are applied to explain local community attitude while constructing the ecotourism model. Natural resource conservation, cultural tradition preservation, sustainable community development, and participation in ecotourism planning and management are among them. Technically, detecting the contrivance behind the intention to participate is helpful towards increasing the participatory behavior of local people in tourism development (Vaske & Donnelly, 1999). Hence, Vaske and Donnelly (1999) used value orientation to explain attitude. The study of Eshliki and Kaboudi (2012) stated that identifying the attitudes of local communities makes it easier to set up programs that would help to minimise friction between tourists and local communities. Though Eshliki and Kaboudi (2012) observed that negative aspects of tourism discourage community participation in tourism development in Iran, the study is said to be inapplicable to other societies and inconclusive. Examining the locals' attitudes toward and impressions of their surrounding environment and industry is crucial since the host community's attitude toward tourists will impact tourist re-visitation. The importance of forming a beneficial cooperation between the tourism

industry, government, and local communities cannot be overstated. To face this issue, rural areas must have a management plan and policies in place that aim to preserve the area's character and qualities while also taking into account the social, economic, and cultural demands of local populations to assure culture and tradition's survival and perpetuation. This will present a general overview of culture and society, as well as the tourist industry, rural development, and islander social well-being.

H1: There is a positive relationship between attitude towards tourism development and the intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H2: There is a positive relationship between attitude towards tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.2 Expectation of benefit: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development

Both tourists and the local community are expecting certain benefits from tourism. The thesis focuses on the local community's expectation of benefits. Zhang and Lei (2012) used financial benefits, which Koellner et al. (2010) split into direct, indirect and non-financial benefits. Others included empowerment and tourism effects (Negative positive) (Honey, 2008; Page & Dowling, 2002). In a similar study, Page et al. (2017) introduced well-being and public health to explain the expected benefits of tourism.

H3: There is a positive relationship between expectation of benefits in relation to tourism development and the intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H4: There is a positive relationship between expectation of benefits in relation to tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.3 Knowledge: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development

Knowledge refers to residents with a strong awareness of tourist management, their community, and how they may participate in the tourism development process. Knowledge correlates with the growth of the industry, as it transforms low economy into medium economy (Jerit et al., 2006). As such, the findings of Robin (2015) stated that lack of knowledge among local communities triggered unfavorable bias towards tourism development. He also revealed that knowledge is the main or key element causal to local communities' level of power.

Nunkoo (2015), on the other hand, found a substantial link between knowledge and perceived unfavourable consequences. Despite these findings, Látková and Vogt (2012) discovered that knowledge was an insignificant predictor of good and negative tourism impacts. The knowledge and awareness of the good and negative aspects of tourism development in a community can stimulate or discourage local community support and engagement in tourism development (Jaafar et al., 2016; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Tosun & Timothy 2003).

Again, without the local community's consent, it was confirmed that the government usually imposed tourism development on the local people in the tourism destinations. In a related study, it was discovered that local communities have inadequate knowledge to operate the tourism industry (Moscardo, 2011; Zhang & Chancellor, 2013). Hence, educational attainment, skill acquisition and awareness can explain the impact of knowledge on the intention to participate as well as a willingness to invest (Nunkoo, 2015; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2016).

H5: There is a positive relationship between knowledge about tourism development and the intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H6: There is a positive relationship between knowledge about tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.4 Motivation: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development

Motivation is defined as the interest of the local community to engage in activities with others within the community. To begin the process of participation and investment, one must have adequate motivation to want to participate in the process, as well as the opportunity to participate in the process and the ability to continue with the process. Tourism development can have a good impact on local communities by increasing income, creating job opportunities, raising living standards, improving public infrastructure, and promoting and preserving local culture (Andereck et al., 2005; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Tovar & Lockwood, 2008). Motivation can stimulate the interest of the local community, energized them, and makes them engage in development activities. Motivation is a force that directs individuals toward achieving goals. Tourism is a rural growth driver (Park & Yoon, 2009) and requires the rural people to develop tourism planning and development. On the part of the rural residents, there is a need to motivate them regarding participation and investment. Hence, in previous studies, motivation was seen from the perspective of the tourists without considering the local community. For example, Park and Yoon (2009) examined the motivating factors influencing the tourist to embark on rural tourism in Korea and consequently classified tourist into following categories: learning and excitement seeker, passive tourist, family togetherness seeker and want-it-all seeker. Yoon and Uysal (2005) argued that travel motivation arises from “push” and “pull” forces (P.46). While pushed factor is related to

the desire of the tourists (the emotions), the pull factor explains the attributes of the tourism destinations, i.e., the situation of the destinations (Chetthamrongchai, 2017). In a related study conducted in Thailand, Chetthamrongchai (2017) delved into the use of the pull force instead of the push factor. Hence, he utilised information services, destination and crisis to explain tourist motivation in Thailand. The result indicated that information services and crises explain the Thai tourism image such that travel motivation to Thailand declines. Since we failed to get a discussion on local community's motivation to participate, the approaches of push and pull in Yoon and Uysal (2005) used by Chetthamrongchai (2017) shall be applied to determine the local community's intention to participate and invest.

H7: There is a positive relationship between motivation regarding tourism development and the intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H8: There is a positive relationship between motivation regarding tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.5 Motivation → Social Identity, Attitude, Expectation of benefit, Knowledge, Opportunity, → Intention to Participate

In promoting tourism development, the local community needs to be involved in activities that affect them. As such, the study asserts that the self-esteem, self-categorisation and affective-commitment (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006) of the local community are gestural views proposed to mediate the relationship between the study variables and intention to participate. This aspect is directly captured by the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978). For example, the self-categorisation enables a person to have a purposeful formation of oneself in a social group. In this instance, "a social group is a set of individuals who holds a common social identification and see themselves as member

of the same social category” (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 225). Members of the community identify themselves intellectually, affectively, and evaluatively with others based on social identity, which leads them to share their useful knowledge, which arouses pleasant behavioural intentions associated to the group (Bagozzi, & Dholakia, 2020). Members who identify with the community (either cognitively or affectively) may be more motivated to integrate into the community (e.g., Algesheimer et al., 2005; Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a). A basic human need is to have relationships with people in the society. The bonds that exist among community members who share the same values and norms have resulted in a strong attachment to them and a drive to control or influence others to participate. Members' participation in community events is motivated by a desire to improve their own self-esteem, both individually and collectively (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). (Crocker et al., 1994). Individuals that participate in community activities appreciate the enthusiasm that frequently surrounds such events. Members who take part in tourism activities can have a good time, which encourages them to participate in more events in the future. In other words, when a community succeeds, its members feel a sense of achievement and accomplishment. As a result, the motivation of self-esteem may encourage community members to identify with and be more integrated into their surroundings (Benkraiem, et al., 2020).

H9: There is a positive relationship between social identity mediating the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.6 Savings: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development.

Tourism development is a capital-intensive endeavour that necessitates a concerted effort on the part of the local community to increase its saving capacity. While income is expected to match expenditure in order to maximise the required level of consumption, the perception of savings in the local community would spur investment in

the tourism business. However, according to Kuznets (1955), a person's saving ability is determined by his or her income and desire to save. The desire to conserve deprives a household of present consumption and material acquisition. Because of the importance of capital in participation and investment, this study asserts that including saving would improve our understanding of the local community's readiness to invest and participate in tourism development. This theory would result in a new contribution to current works.

H10: There is a positive relationship between savings towards tourism development and the intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H11: There is a positive relationship between savings towards tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SME in tourism development in Langkawi.

3.6.7 Opportunity: A critical factor influencing the local community's intention to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development.

Opportunities to improve the local community's understanding of tourism participation should be offered. The term "opportunity" refers to how favourable a circumstance is to reaching the intended result (Gruen et al., 2007). Several situational circumstances (time available or attention provided), according to MacInnis and Jaworski (1989), can either support or hinder the desired outcome. Furthermore, the ability of the local community to organise activities for members is an opportunity (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Political will, rules, and political channels, according to previous works on opportunity, are the opportunities that attract tourism engagement (Aas et al., 2005; Gruen et al., 2007; Hung et al., 2011). In the case of the political channel, Aas et al. (2005) claimed that in order to stimulate participation, a communication route between the local population and tourism organisations is essential. To capture opportunity, the researchers examined eccentric characteristics as outlined by Hung et al. (2011). The eccentric factors would help in the perception of the local community participation and their willingness

to invest in the tourism industry. This is because the participatory role of the community depends on the local political structure and the extent to which the tourism agencies allow them to grab the opportunities (Aas et al., 2005). When community members realised that the government conditions are favorable and directed towards achieving their aims, they become more interested in participating in tourism development of their community.

H12: There is a positive relationship between opportunity with respect to tourism development and intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.

H13: There is a positive relationship between opportunity with respect to tourism development and the willingness to invest in tourism SME in tourism development in Langkawi.

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2.7 Factors Enabling and Constraining Community Participation

Table 2.3 : Factors Enabling and Constraining Community Participation

Factors enabling community participation	Adopted sources	Factors constraining community participation	Adopted sources
Strong and stable community leadership	Bjorkman & Svendsson (2009); Hossain & Ross (2006); Ahluwalia et al., (2010).	Attitude	Harun et al., (2018); Peters, Chan & Legerer, (2018); Meimand et al., (2017); Abas & Hanafiah, (2013); Lo, Ramayah & Hui, (2014); Fong et al., (2014); Hanafiah et al., (2013); Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012); Zhang et al., (2013); Zhang & Lei, (2012).
Effective structures	Kaufman et al., (2012)	Knowledge	McCamley & Gilmore, (2017); Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, (2016); Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2016); Robin, (2015); Nunkoo, (2015); Kollmuss & Agyeman, (2002); McCamley & Gilmore, (2017); Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2017); Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, (2016); Zhang & Lei, (2016); Timothy & Tosun, (2003); Meimand, et al., (2017); Stylidis et al., (2014).
Enabling environment	Kaufman et al., (2012)	Expectation of benefit	Zhang & Lei (2012); Koellner et al., (2010); Honey, 2008; Page & Dowling, (2002); Page et al., (2017); Milošević et al., (2016).
Coordination	Kaseje et al., (2010); Kaufman et al., (2012); Bjorkman & Svendsson, (2009)	Savings	Attanasio, et al., (2000); Kuznets, (1955)

Good governance	Kaseje et al., (2010); Kaufman et al., (2012); Bjorkman & Svendsson, (2009)	Motivation	Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, (2016); Jepson et al., (2014); Park & Yoon, (2009); Yoon & Uysal, (2005); Chetthamrongchai, (2017); Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2017); Jaafar et al., (2015); Jepson et al., (2014); Nicholas et al., (2009)
Presence of strong committees and coordination structures	Hossain & Ross, (2006); Kaseje et al., (2010); Kaufman et al., (2012); Bjorkman & Svendsson, (2009)	Lack of transparency in decision-making and management of resources	Bjorkman & Svendsson, (2009); Kaseje et al., (2010)
Good governance and management,	Ahluwalia et al., (2010); Hossain & Ross, (2006);	Leadership transitions	Bhutta, et al., (2011)
A supportive political environment with supportive policies	Ahluwalia et al., (2010); Hossain and Ross (2006).	Trust and relationship building	Bhutta, et al., (2011)
Direct interaction with government officials	Paxman et al., (2005)	Lack of awareness	Emmanuel, Kilewo & Gasto-Frumence, (2015).
Rapid implementation of policies.	Hossain & Ross, (2006); Kaseje, et al., (2010); Kaufman, et al., (2012).	Poor communication and information sharing	Emmanuel, Kilewo & Gasto-Frumence, (2015).
Community management capacity	Malhotra, et al., (2005).	Lack of management.	Emmanuel, Kilewo & Gasto-Frumence, (2015).

Income	Salleh et al., (2016)	Lack of financial resources	Emmanuel, Kilewo & Gasto-Frumence, (2015).
Transparency in decision-making and management of resources	Hossain & Ross, (2006); Kaseje et al., (2010);	Support	Bray & Gates, (2013); Qian, et al., (2014).
Acknowledgement and improvement of existing traditional/local beliefs and practices	WHO, (2010)	Life quality improvement	Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012); Malhotra, et al., (2005).
Maintenance of gender rights and roles.	Hossain & Ross, (2006); Kaseje, et al., (2010);	Water and coast pollution.	Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012).
Family encouragement	Salleh, et al., (2016)	Economic effects	Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012).
Interest	Salleh, et al., (2016)	Social and cultural effects	Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012).
Confidence	Salleh, et al., (2016)	Environmental destruction	Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012).
Opportunity	Salleh, et al., (2016)	Ineffective structures	Kaufman, et al., (2012)
Increase awareness and support of community members	Hossain & Ross, (2006); Kaseje, et al., (2010); WHO, (2010)	Lack of financial and technical resources	Malhotra, et al., (2005).
		Not-so-enabling environment	Malhotra, et al., (2005).
Time available or attention paid	MacInnis & Jaworski, (1989)	Time available or attention paid	MacInnis & Jaworski, (1989)

Source: Author's Computation

2.8 Research Gap

This thesis has reviewed related works on the research questions of the study. The literature covered the theories and empirical findings. Hence, some observations were

discovered and missing gaps (research gaps) were identified. This section highlights the research gaps from previous studies that would be the focus of this study.

First, to my understanding, there is a methodological gap in the existing studies. More focus was given to qualitative methods without considering the importance of quantitative method, which reflects a lack of empirical evidence in this context.

Second, there is still limited numbers of research focusing mainly on tourism SME in Malaysia (Set, 2013; Jaafar et al., 2011). Rather, most studies focus on SMEs in the manufacturing industry (Ismail & King, 2005; Rahman & Tannock, 2005). Local communities have neutral perceptions towards investment due to lack of knowledge and awareness, in other words, there are mixed feelings on investment among them. Therefore, more literature on tourism SMEs will help provide a better insight into tourism SME investment.

Third, the savings capability of the local community with respect to investment and participation in tourism development is lacking in the current literature. However, the level of saving has been observed to trigger the willingness of the local community to invest. Also, Kuznets (1955) asserted that the saving capacity depends on the income level and the interest to save. Considering the major role of capital, this thesis stresses the inclusion of saving to enrich the understanding of investment and participation in tourism development.

Fourth, social identity plays a significant role between the study variables and intention to participate. However, previous studies have failed to look at its effect. Hence, this will be examined in this study to obtain a clearer understanding of community participation and tourism development.

Lastly, there is a lack of theoretical application such as participatory theory in the previous studies.

2.9 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed a wide range of theoretical and empirical studies that are most relevant to the study variables under consideration. On the basis of empirical findings, it first examined the concept of local community engagement, willingness to contribute, and the relationship between community participation, investment, and tourism development. The notion of mediation, the application of partial least square structural equation modelling in understanding mediation effect, the rationale of social identity as a mediating variable, and empirical data on the social identity theory were then highlighted.

Universiti Malaysia

CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF MALAYSIA TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

Tourism development began in Malaysia in the 1960s, with the aim of developing rural areas and diversifying the national economy. In terms of contribution to Malaysia's GDP, tourism is the second most important sector after petroleum. Malaysia covers a land area of 329,758 square kilometers and is divided into two regions: peninsular Malaysia, which consists of 12 states (Perlis, Kedah, Penang, Perak, Pahang, Selangor, Kelantan, Terengganu, Negeri Sembilan, Malacca, Federal Territory, and Johor), and East Malaysia, which consists of Sarawak and Sabah. It has a population of about 35 million people, divided into three ethnic groups: Malays, Chinese, and Indians. Kuala Lumpur is the capital city and houses colonial buildings, shopping malls, resident buildings and iconic buildings, such as the 451m-tall Petronas twin towers. Malaysia has an average temperature of 26 °C year in year out.

The documentation of tourist arrivals by the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Tourism (MOCAT) and the World Bank dated back to 1995, during which 525,138,403 tourist visits were recorded. Interestingly, this figure increased to 1.2 billion in 2017 (World Bank, 2017). The Malaysia tourist arrivals were 7,469,000 in 1995 and increased to 25,721,000 in 2015. Although there had been an increasing trend, the Malaysia tourist arrivals dropped from 27,437,000 in 2014 to 25,721,000 in 2015 (MOCAT, 2017; World Bank, 2017). Equally, the tourism sector's contribution to GDP has been increasing, with the values of 12.59% and 14.83% in 2011 and 2016, respectively (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2017).

The Malaysia tourism industry has grown over the years with coherent policies, development and model implementation. The industry is projected to provide an incremental contribution by 2020 through Malaysia Tourism Transformation Plan (MTTP), and consequently, the government is assisting in the establishment of a legal and institutional framework to encourage growth. Year after year, the contribution of tourist arrivals and expenditures to per capita GDP rises, and the government has been focusing on the tourism sector by adopting necessary policies. In 2015, the tourism sector improved its position from fifth in 2014 to the third-largest contributor (MYR67.1 billion) to the Gross National Income (GNI) of the economy. By 2020, Malaysia's Ministry of Tourism and Culture planned to welcome 36 million tourists and generate MYR168 billion in tourist receipts (Malaysia Tourism Statistics, 2014). However, these targets were massively thwarted by the COVID-19 pandemic. The epidemic is a setback for Malaysia's "Visit Malaysia 2020" (VM2020) campaign, as half of the country's visitors come from Singapore and China. As the number of cases of COVID-19 increased in both nations, many trips were cancelled, resulting in a considerable decline in tourist visits to Malaysia (Lee-Peng Foo, et al., 2020).

According to the Ministry of Tourism (MoT, 2013), the surrounding ASEAN countries were Malaysia's main tourist markets in 2012, with Singapore topping the list (52 percent), Indonesia (9.25 percent), China, Hong Kong, and Macau (6.23 percent), Thailand (5.05 percent), and Brunei (5.05 percent) (5.03 percent). The 5-year Malaysia Plans (MPs) first revealed a committed interest in growing the tourism sector, which was later reinforced with other programmes such as the National Tourism Policy (NTP) in 1992, the National Ecotourism Plan (NEP) in 1996, and the Tourism Transformation Program (MTTP) in 2010.

Table 3.1 : Tourism Strategy Development

MP6(1991 – 1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Encourage foreign direct investment into the country.• Assist in the promotion of Malaysian tourist hotspots both locally and globally.
MP7 (1996 – 2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Increase the variety of products and services available to fulfil the needs of tourists.• Increase the effectiveness of your marketing and promotional initiatives.• Encourage private sector investment in particular.• Increasing the participation of local communities and small businesses.• Improving infrastructure and providing basic services.• Publicize new products.• Establish communication channels.
MP8 (2001 – 2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Planning and implementation of tourism activities striking a balance between economic, environmental, cultural, and social factors.• Develop techniques for preserving the natural environment and cultural heritage.• Develop a holistic tourism development strategy.• Ensure visitor safety, comfort, and well-being.
MP9 (2006 – 2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Assist in the growth of long-term tourism.• Encourage the development of new tourism services.• Promote marketing and promotional efforts.• Focus on new product development, such as agrotourism, ecotourism, educational tourism, meetings and exhibitions, sports and recreational tourism, and Malaysia as my second home.
MP10(2011– 2015)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Enhances the image of tourism locations; improves the development of tourism infrastructure and facilities.• Emphasise the importance of high-quality training and human resource development in providing high-quality services.• Emphasise the state's tourist development through heritage tourism, eco-tourism, homestay tourism, sports tourism, coastal and island tourism, meetings and exhibitions tourism, food tourism, golf tourism, shopping, and health tourism.• Promote inclusion in the pursuit of a more equal society.
MP11(2016–2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Enhance everyone's well-being.• Increase the rate at which a nation's human capital develops.• Strive for green growth in order to ensure long-term viability and resilience.• Improve infrastructure to facilitate economic growth.• Re-engineer economic growth to make it more prosperous.

Source: Musbah Al Khauja 2014; Ministry of Economic Affairs, 2019)

3.2 Tourism development in Malaysia

Tourism is a social, cultural, and economic activity that involves people travelling to different nations or locations for personal or business reasons (UNWTO, 2014). Tourism is the most significant and largest industry on the planet today (Bhuiyan et al., 2016). This industry has been identified as one of the most important service sectors in the world and has been designated as one. Governments view tourism as a vehicle for infrastructure development, job creation, foreign exchange, balance of payments, regional development, and community development. In many countries around the world, tourism is becoming an important aspect of economic development (Harrill, 2004). At the macro level, tourism boosts foreign exchange profits, revenue generation, the balance of payments, and contributing to the GDP, while at the micro level, it boosts community participation, people's well-being, job creation, income distribution, and long-term regional development (Bhuiyan et al., 2013).

Malaysia is the top tourist destination in Asia, as well as one of the top ten tourist destinations worldwide (Nanthakumar et al., 2012; WTO, 2010). Since its founding in 1972, Malaysia tourism has grown by leaps and bounds, establishing itself as a major player in the international tourism scene. Malaysia Tourism presently has 35 international offices and eight marketing agents around the world. There is a total of 13 state offices across Malaysia. To serve visitors, twenty-two tourist information centres have been established across the country. Malaysia tourism continues to push the industry to new heights, fueled by a desire to position Malaysia as a regional destination of distinction. Malaysia has witnessed a significant growth in tourist visits, from 12.7 million in 2006 to 25.72 million in 2013. (Tourism Malaysia, 2014). Malaysia's government has implemented a number of programmes to boost the tourist industry in order to diversify its export-dependent economy. Malaysia agreed to a £2 million sponsorship arrangement with Manchester United in 2006 to promote "Visit Malaysia Year 2007." The Visit

Malaysia Year 2007 event is a celebration of Malaysia's many cultures, beautiful vacation spots, and unique attractions, and it has assisted the country's tourism development. As a result of their efforts, the tourism industry has grown to become Malaysia's third-largest source of foreign exchange income (Bhuiyan, et al., 2013). The Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) is the government agency in charge of publicising Malaysia's tourism industry.

The Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Tourism (MOCAT) was founded on May 20, 1987, and Tourism Development Cooperation (TDC) was merged into it. In 1999, Malaysia launched a global marketing campaign called "Malaysia, Truly Asia," which was a major success, attracting over 7.4 million visitors. Malaysia's tourist industry has boosted the country's economy, prompting the government to focus on promoting and enacting policies and regulations that promote alternative types of tourism. Malaysian environmental policies, local Agenda 21, sustainable tourism policies, and responsible tourism policies are only a few of the important policies (Siti-Nabiha, et al., 2012). According to Awang and Aziz (2011), the government's goal of promoting different types of tourism will widen the country's market sectors as well as marketplaces that are attractive to tourists. As a result, new types of tourism would emerge, such as rural tourism, which includes ecotourism, agrotourism, adventure tourism, shopping, meetings, innovative, conventions, and exhibitions (MICE), and others.

In 2010, Malaysia announced its decision to attract New Zealand citizens into the country. As a result, the country is now focusing mainly on ecotourism and the introduction of major cultural events and activities for young urban professionals. Several interesting policies were also introduced to attract tourists from all over the world. This includes Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H), which was introduced to allow for non-Malaysians to retire and live in Malaysia for an extended period. The program encourages

foreigners to apply for citizenship for themselves as well as for their family members and dependents. In 2011, Malaysia's Tourism Transformation Plan (MTTP) set a goal of attracting 36 million tourists and earning MYR168 billion in tourism revenue by 2020 which was heavily affected by Covid-19 pandemic. However, with the COVID-19 insurgence, the Malaysia tourist arrivals was brought down from 27.1 million people in 2019 to 4.33 million in 2020 (Hirschmann, 2021; Tourism Malaysia, 2021) having 83.4% negative decline due to restrictions. The course of the COVID-19 on the tourism industry result was massive nationwide. Globally the World Health Organisation (WHO) declared the COVID-19 disease an outbreak in March 2020 and as at that time, the pandemic has infected more than 119 million people, of which more than 2.66 million individuals have died from the pandemic (Lange, 2021). The Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (Tourism Malaysia) unveiled its integrated Promotional Plan (IPP) 2018-2020 in March of the same year, as part of a strategy to market Malaysia's wide tourism options and increase tourist arrivals and receipts. Another year, 2020, has been set aside for "Visit Malaysia Year". In 2016, Tourism Malaysia ensured that the country does not only experience more mass tourists but also tries to develop certain niche tourism products, such as sports (golfing, bird watching, motoring, etc.), medical and lifestyle (shopping). The Malaysian government has been instrumental in establishing legislative and institutional frameworks that will ensure long-term tourist development. Today, tourism is the second-largest source of revenue for the Malaysian economy, and it continues to develop at a rapid pace year after year. As a result, the country has received various prizes and distinctions in the field of tourism destinations. In the 2014 edition of lonely planet's best travel, Malaysia was ranked among the top ten tourism destinations in the world. In 2013, CNN's World's 100 Best Beaches list included Perhentian Kecil Island in Terengganu (No. 13), Juara Beach in Tioman Island, Pahang (No. 21), and Tanjung Rhu in Langkawi, Kedah (No.49). Kuala Lumpur was named the fourth best shopping city in

the world by CNN in 2012, while the globe shopper index ranked it second best in Asia Pacific. Malaysia was named 10th in the world's friendliest countries by Forbes online, and third in the world's top retirement havens by internationalliving.com's annual global retirement index 2013. In addition, the Malaysian homestay experience programme received the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) Ulysses Award for public policy and governance innovation.

Generally, Malaysian do have difficulty in meeting set targets. Between 2015 and 2017, they set a target higher than the previous year despite not meeting the previous year's targets. Beyond arrival targets, Malaysia tourism needs to employ recent strategies in marketing and promoting the country as a tourist destination. This necessitates accepting the shortfalls present in the existing policies or strategies and then improving on them. Also, the government needs to rethink the Industry Partner Program (IPP) 2008-2020, as most of the strategies are no longer achievable.

Table 3.2 : Tourist arrivals in Malaysia 2013-2019

Country	2019	2018	2017	2016	2015	2014	2013
Grand total	26100784	25832354	25948459	26757392	25721251	27437315	25715460
Singapore	10,163,882	10,615,986	12,441,713	13,272,961	12,930,754	13932967	13178774
Indonesia	3,623,277	3,277,689	2,796,570	3,049,964	2,788,033	2827533	2548021
China	3,114,257	2,944,133	2,281,666	2,124,942	1,677,163	1613355	1791423
Thailand	1,884,306	1,914,692	1,836,522	1,780,800	1,343,569	1299298	1156452
Brunei	1,216,123	1,382,031	1,660,506	1,391,016	1,133,555	1213110	1238471
India	735,309	600,311	552,739	638,578	722,141	770108	650989
South Korea	673065	616783	484528	444439	421161	385769	274622
Japan	424694	394540	392777	413768	483569	553106	513076
Philippines	421908	396062	370559	417446	554917	618538	557147
Vietnam	400346	375578	248927	216877	229626	285716	235700
Taiwan	382916	383922	332927	300861	283224	274665	286266
Australia	368271	351500	351232	377727	486948	571328	526342
UK	346485	361335	358818	400269	401019	445789	413472
USA	269928	253384	198203	217075	237768	262106	246936
Bangladesh	179000	150054	111836	114607	147152	204418	134663

Source: Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, (2018).

The government's commitment to the development of tourism and the improvement of service and infrastructure quality is unwavering (Mosbah, 2014). Prior to 1970, tourism in Malaysia was stagnant, as it was not seen as an important economic pursuit. This remains so until the redefinition of the old tourism department to Tourism Development Corporation (TDC) under the auspices of the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MITI). On the other hand, the tourism industry began to develop in the 80s following certain positive transformations, which present the Malaysian government with the pivotal responsibility of tourism on the country's economy. Consequently, the Malaysian government undertook a lot of comprehensive planning and infrastructure development to promote Malaysia as a tourism destination of choice on a global scale. The government's obligation to the development of tourism and the improvement of service and infrastructure quality is unwavering. This includes Malaysia development of

tourist attraction areas like the islands and others. The government was also instrumental in the drafting and adoption of various legislation, as well as the establishment of the required institutional and legal framework to assure long-term tourist sustainability (Bhuiyan et al., 2013). In relations of GDP input, the tourism industry is one of the most important industries, and it has helped the country rank among the top ten tourist destinations in the world. These findings suggest that government planning, which considers the interaction of all affecting factors as well as the larger international environment, is successful. Malaysia's tourism growth potential is enormous, and the government has taken an intense attention in the role of tourism in the country's economic development.

Although there are overlaps, it does not stop the duties of government agencies nor prevent smooth coordination in the development of the sector (Hamzah, 2004). Efforts are constantly devoted to the sector's development, and laws, programmes, initiatives, and infrastructure have all been put in place to create a productive tourism environment. Tourism planning appears to be extensive and involves careful coordination of all sectors, such as infrastructure, marketing and promotions. However, given the increase in tourist numbers and the quality of tourist products, as proposed in all Malaysian Plans (MP), the government efforts towards tourism planning and development can be considered largely successful. Government involvement in tourism development started in 1953 following the the official launch of the cultural department (Hamzah, 2004). Initially, Malaysia's tourism industry focused solely on one component of the country's economic diversity: agriculture, which includes rubber and tin. However, tourism resurfaced with the Pacific Areas Travel Association (PATA) meeting in Kuala Lumpur in 1972. This conference served as a wake-up call to the Malaysian government and people about the importance of the tourist industry. The conference paved the way

for the establishment of the Tourist Development Corporation (TDC) in 1972, as well as the completion of the national tourism master plan in 1975.

The Ministry of Culture and Tourism was established in 1987, and in 1990, it was enlarged into the Ministry of Culture, Arts, and Tourism (MOCAT) (Shariff & Abidin, 2017). The purpose of this ministry is to extend and diversify tourism. The Tourism Development Corporation (TDC), which was part of MOCAT's tourism branch, was replaced by the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) in 1992. (Sharif, 2002). The Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board has aggressively promoted Malaysia as a tourist destination to the international market (MTPB). Malaysia Truly Asia was introduced, and MTPB opened multiple abroad operations in cities such as Amsterdam, Dubai, and London. While Malaysia's tourism industry is operated by the Ministry of Tourism, it is regulated by the federal government (Shariff & Abidin, 2017). The government has set stimulating goals for the 2020 vision aimed at transforming the country into a high-income country. It is also in a good position to attract tourists from ASEAN regions. Tourism, as a smokeless sector, requires policymakers to continually assess, screen and gauge tourism enactment to safeguard the long-term sustainability of the industry. Below are the government departments that are involved in tourism development in Malaysia.

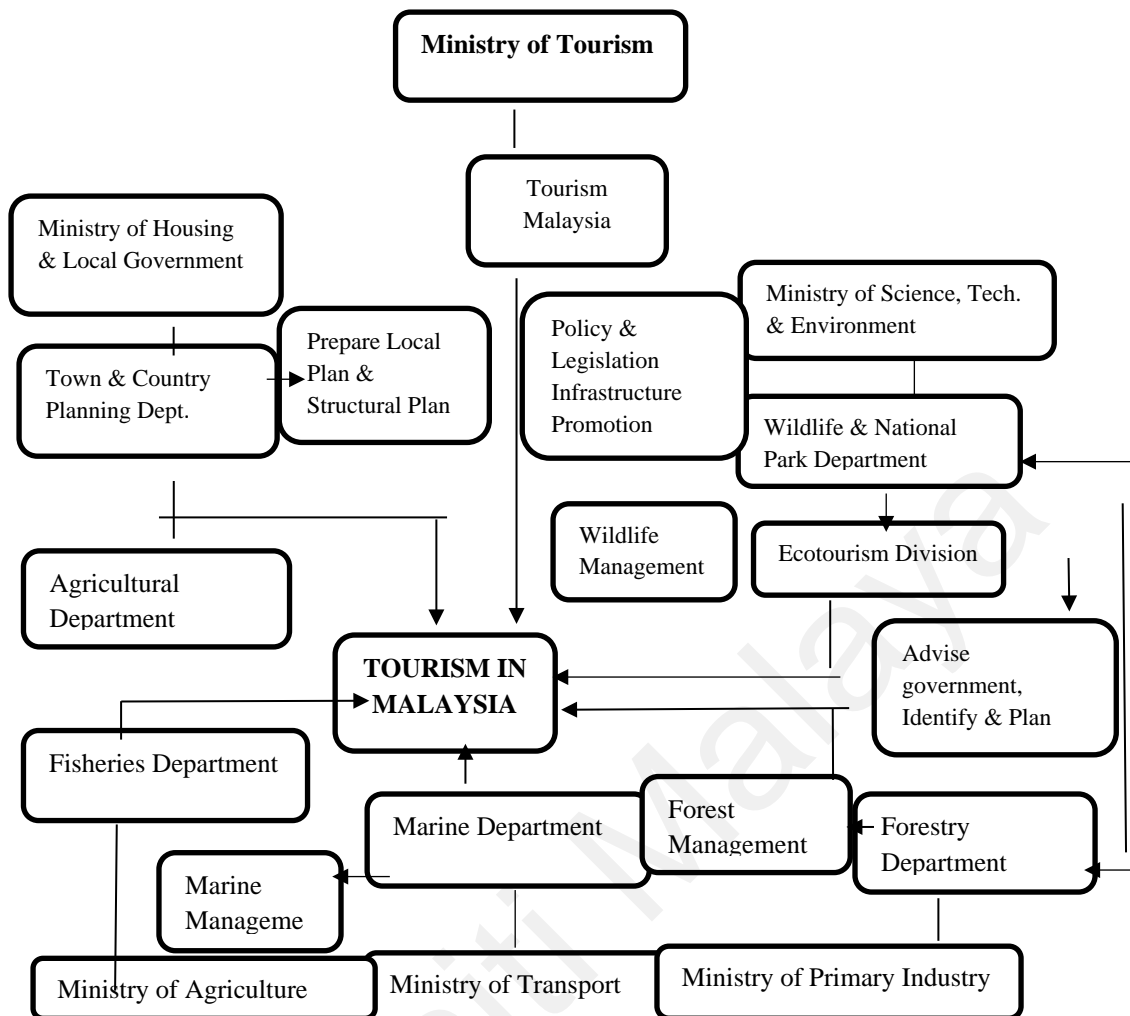


Figure 3.1 : Government departments involved in tourism development in Malaysia.

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture, (2018).

3.2.1 National Tourism Policies, Strategies and Master Plans

The publication of the draught Malayan development plan in 1950 marked the start of Malaysian development planning. There are 27 development planning papers in all, three of which are long-term plans and 24 of which are five-year development plans that span six years and include a mid-term assessment of the five-year development plans. In Malaysia, planning is a collaborative effort involving the Economic Planning Unit (EPU), ministries and agencies, state governments, universities, the corporate sector, and non-governmental organisations. International agency input is also taken into account. At the Inter-Agency Planning Group (IAPG) meeting, all issues relating to macro and sectoral

targets are discussed (IAPG). The "top-down" and "bottom-up" approaches to planning for socioeconomic development are used to ensure that national policies and plans are executed. The National Development Planning Committee (NDPC) is the highest governing body of government officials in the formation and coordination of policies in Malaysia, and the parliament is the highest level in national development planning. The Implementation Coordination Unit (ICU, JPM) is responsible for monitoring and implementing government policies, programmes, and projects at the ministry and agency levels. They are in charge of project supervision at the federal, state, and local levels. The National Action Working Committee receives the quarterly implementation evaluation reports before submitting them to the National Action Council, which is the highest level in the governance of national development monitoring. The national socio-economic development policy's development and monitoring planning process and mechanism are depicted in the diagram below:

Development and Monitoring Planning Process and Mechanism

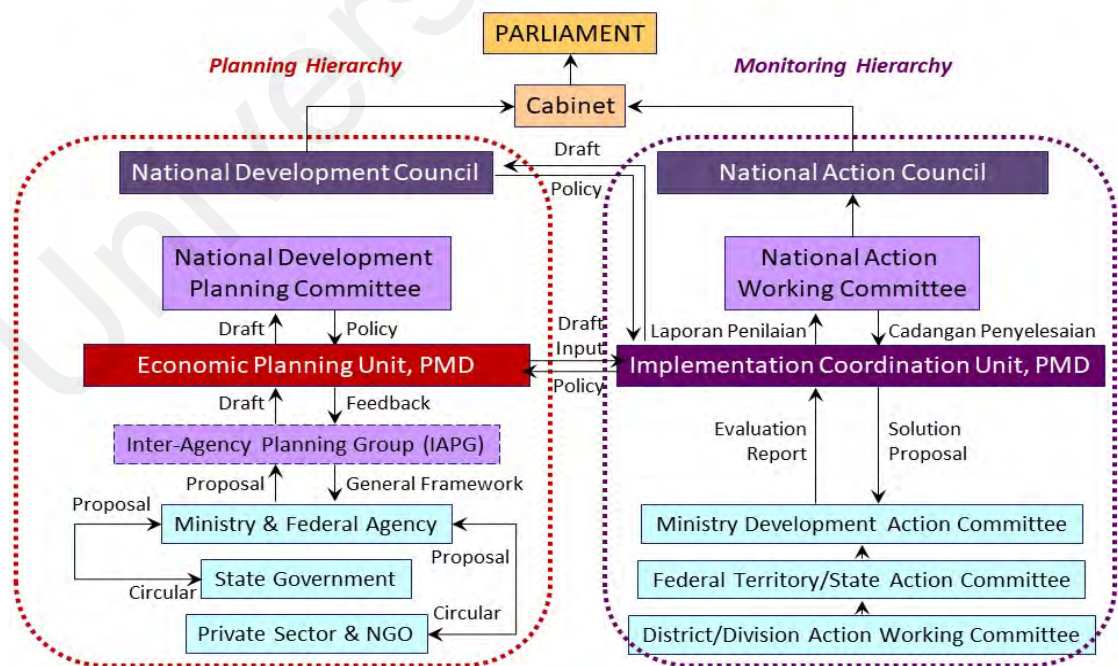


Figure 3.2: Development and monitoring planning process and mechanism.

Source: Economic planning unit, prime minister’s department, 2020.

Malaysian development planning is divided into three levels: long, medium, and short-term planning, each of which establishes comprehensive strategies to meet the country's objectives. The long-term plans consist of

- New economic model, 2011-2020
- Third outline perspective plan (OPP3), 2001-2010
- Vision 2020, 1991-2020
- Second outline perspective plan (OPP2), 1991-2000
- First outline perspective plan (OPP1), 1971-1990.

The OPP has developed a five-year framework for medium-term planning. It is the primary document used to carry out the government's development plans. The five-year development plans specify the economic growth targets as well as the public-sector development programme allocation ceiling. It also discusses the private sector's role.

- Five-year development plans, such as the Eleventh Malaysia Plan (11MP), 2016-2020, are among the medium-term plans.
- Mid-term reviews (MTR) of the five-year development plans.

The Ministry of Finance prepares annual budgets, which are used for short-term planning. The medium and long-term plans are coordinated with the annual implementation of policies and strategies. Through budget talks, the annual budget takes into account the perspectives of all stakeholders, including the corporate sector and non-governmental organisations. The annual development allocation is based on the two-year rolling plan's approved list of development programmes and projects. The following are the short-term plans:

- Annual Budget

Below is the figure of the national development planning horizon:

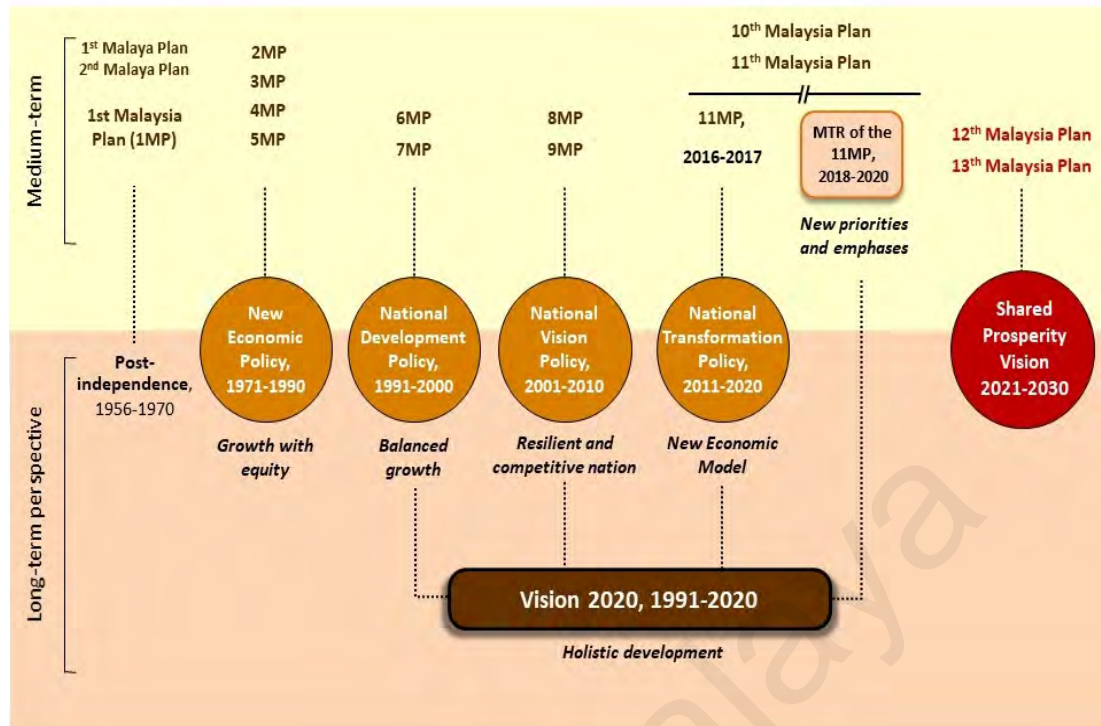


Figure 3.3 : National development planning horizon

Source: Economic planning unit, prime minister’s department, 2020.

The Economic Planning Unit (EPU) produces selected economic indicators to track the economy's short-term progress. These figures are released on a monthly basis and are broken down into consumption, investment, and production data, as well as external sector indicators. The key policies in Malaysia are:

- Human resource development
- Knowledge-based economy and ICT
- Rural development
- Sectoral policies
- Agriculture
- Industry & economic services
- Science, technology and innovation (STI)
- Distributive trade
- Manufacturing
- Finance

- Energy
- Small and medium enterprises (SMEs)

Enhancing SME Performance: The government helps to boost SMEs by establishing new policies and streamlining prevailing initiatives to help them become more resilient. Improvement of the institutional support system, enhancement of technological skills, promotion of the use of ICT, facilitation of access to finance, and improved market access, increased awareness of product branding, and protection of intellectual property rights, are among the measures that have been identified. To help Bumiputera businesses enhance their abilities in business management, ICT, R&D, product development, and marketing, as well as form strategic partnerships with non-Bumiputera companies, efforts would be stepped up under the Bumiputera Commercial and Industrial Community (BCIC). The competitiveness of SMEs in rural industries must be improved in order for them to enter global markets. In addition, the notion of one district, one industry will be expanded to include a broader range of participants.

The National Tourism Policy (NTP) was established in 1991 with the goal of portraying Malaysia in a unique light, including its diverse culture and natural resources, product development and investment, and community engagement. Policy guidelines were developed to assist the government in accomplishing tourism goals and to raise public awareness of tourist development and job prospects (Langkawi Municipal Council, 2005). For development in certain tourism zones, some sectors received a number of investment incentives. All of these measures were designed to help Malaysia's tourism industry grow.

Bumiputera participation is one of the new economic policy's ideas for reconstructing society, with a minimum of 30% Bumiputera participation in the country's wealth. The tourist sector is projected to give chances for both ownership and engagement

in this environment. To this purpose, organisations such as the State Economic Development Corporation (SEDC), the People's Trust Council (MARA), and the National Equity Corporation (PNB) were formed to aid Bumiputeras, notably in the establishment of commercial firms.

Again, Identity and image: In the formation of a distinct Malaysian identity and image, different ethnic groups' cultures, values, and lifestyles could be highlighted. The purpose is to strengthen national heritage preservation through arts, customs, folklore, handicrafts, architecture, and cuisines. These activities should be promoted more widely in order to create a positive picture in the eyes of potential tourists and to help them understand the country.

Environmental preservation and protection: Tourism resources in Malaysia are mostly dependent on landscape, natural, and cultural components. These resources are extremely vulnerable to pollution and ecological imbalance. This means that tourist initiatives and projects must be carefully chosen and contain certain environmental controls to avoid negative consequences. As a result, beach and coastline protection, as well as forest and other ecosystem conservation, must be considered. Tourism-related projects must adhere to strict rules in order to avoid having a harmful influence on natural resources and the ecology. Failure to follow the guidelines will result in a punishment of not more than MYR10,000 or two years in prison, or both, as well as a daily fine of not more than MYR1,000 for each day the infraction persists.

Management: In view of long-term benefits and increased ties with other sectors of the economy, the institutional and management aspects of tourism development must be emphasised. Increased coordination and greater collaboration between all levels of government (Federal, State, and Local authorities) and the business sector are vital for

achieving beneficial and cost-effective development (Government of Malaysia, 1989:104). To ensure the success of development programmes, including the future expansion of the tourism industry, a more comprehensive tourism plan and implementation instructions are also required.

3.2.2 Tourism and Economic Growth

Tourism development is vital to the economic development of both emerging and developed countries (Liu & Wall, 2006). Tourism development is seen as a means of generating jobs and revenue. Through commodity trade, capital goods importation, critical services, and the manufacturing sector, tourism boosts an economy's foreign exchange revenues ((Băndoi, et al., 2020; Monda, et al., 2021). In terms of economics, tourism increases revenue for hotels, restaurants, and tourism organisations. As a result, tourism growth has a multiplier effect on a variety of economic sectors. Khalil and Kakar (2007) discovered that tourism stimulated economic growth in Pakistan in the short run through a bivariate analysis. Kadir and Karim (2012), Ohlan (2017), and Al-mulali et al. (2013) found that tourism and economic growth granger-cause each other regardless of model parameter. Economic growth and the Sustainable Development Goals can be related to tourism development and its influence on communities at the national level (SDGs).

The tourism business in Malaysia has received some funding. Despite the fact that the first Malaysia plan (1966–1970) received no funding, the second Malaysia plan (1971–1975) received MYR859 million in order to accommodate an estimated 170,000 international tourists by 1975. Following that, the number of rooms expanded from 1,900 in 1965 to 6,000 in 1970, and the number of hotel staff increased from 2,700 to 8,000. Malaysia's tourism development remained moderate throughout the 1970s until the end of the 1980s, when the government began to promote tourism abroad. As a result, the third Malaysia plan (1976–1980) and the fourth Malaysia plan (1981–1985) each

allocated MYR 27.19 million and MYR 40 million, respectively. By 1989, the tourism industry had contributed 24 percent of Malaysia's GDP, making it the country's second largest contributor. Tourist arrivals increased from 22.5 million to 33.5 million, and income increased from MYR12.8 billion in 1980–1985 to MYR31.2 billion in 1980–1985, according to data from the fifth and sixth Malaysia plans (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, 1999). MYR140.5 million was allotted in the fifth Malaysia plan, whereas MYR533.9 million was allocated in the sixth Malaysia plan (Marzuki, 2010).

Malaysia's vigorous marketing efforts paid off, as the number of tourists increased from 2.2 million in 1980 to 7.4 million in 1990. In addition, revenues climbed from MYR729 million in 1980 to MYR4.18 billion in 1990. Malaysia had MYR9.9 billion in total tourist receipts in 1995, with 7.5 million visitors (Awang & Azizi, 2011). During the 1990s, there was a great achievement in tourist development as a result of the government's involvement in the industry's development. In the 1990s, the MOCAT was founded, and the first international conference was held "In 1990, the 'Visit Malaysia Year' campaign was launched. The tourism industry's successful effort was followed by another "In 1994, a campaign called "Visit Malaysia Year" was again launched. It includes support for the expansion of domestic tourism. During the 1996 National Budget, the Malaysian government granted incentives totalling MYR294.5 million (Marzuki, 2010).

However, due to the economic downturn of the 1990s, tourism development was slowed. Tourist arrivals fell for two years (1997-1998), however statistics data for the seventh Malaysia Plan (1996-2000) showed a rise from 7.5 million in 1995 to 10.2 million in 2000. The tourism industry's revenue increased from MYR9.175 billion in 1995 to MYR17.3 billion in 2005. In the Seventh Malaysia Plan, the tourism budget was boosted to MYR605.5 million, with the majority of the funds going to infrastructure and

development. In 2005, there were 155,356 hotel rooms, up from 124,413 in 2000. Another MYR2.4 billion was set aside for tourism infrastructure and development expenditures by the government. The majority of the funds were allocated to the development of tourism destinations, with Pangkor, Redang, Tioman, and Langkawi Islands receiving the highest priority. The federal government has allocated MYR1.9 billion in the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010) to upgrade tourism infrastructure and facilities, as well as environmental conservation in tourist areas, due to Malaysia's rapid tourism boom. By the end of 2009, Malaysia's hotels rose to 2,373, the most of which are located in large cities such as Kuala Lumpur and Johor Baharu, Penang, had 168,844 rooms available. Tourist arrivals increased to 23.6 million in 2009, bringing in MYR52.4 billion in revenue, up from MYR32 billion in 2005.

Table 3.3 : Government Allocation for Tourism Development

Five years' plan	Allocation (MYR MILLIONS)
1 st Malaysia plan (1966 – 1970)	No Allocation
2 nd Malaysia plan (1971 – 1975)	8.59
3 rd Malaysia plan (1976 – 1980)	27.19
4 th Malaysia plan (1981 – 1985)	40.00
5 th Malaysia plan (1986 – 1990)	140.50
6 th Malaysia plan (1991 – 1995)	533.90
7 th Malaysia plan (1996 – 2000)	605.50
8 th Malaysia plan (2001 – 2005)	1009.00
9 th Malaysia plan (2006 – 2010)	1847.90
10 th Malaysia plan (2011-2015)	230 (billion)
11 th Malaysia plan (2016-2020)	260 (billion)

Source: Government of Malaysia (2018).

3.2.3 Growth of International Tourist Inflow and Outflow in Malaysia

Tourist arrivals in Malaysia have increased dramatically during the last 11 years. As a result, Malaysia was named one of the world's top 10 tourism destinations in 2009.

Between 2005 and 2008, there was a 7.2 percent rise in tourist visitation, with 23.6 million foreign tourists' arrivals and more than MYR53 billion in revenue earned. In general, monetary receipts rise as the number of tourist's visits rises. In 2012, the number of tourists increased to almost 25 million, bringing in over MYR60 billion in income (Marzuki, 2010; Government of Malaysia, 2001, 2006).

In 1980, international tourist arrivals to Malaysia reached 2.3 million, with a total receipt of MYR7 billion, which increases yearly. In 1999, the Malaysia tourism board launched "Malaysia Truly Asia" to promote Malaysia worldwide. As a result of this campaign, international tourist arrivals increased to 7.9 million and the receipts to MYR12.3 billion. Due to many issues (e.g., 9/11 bombing, Bali bombing, SARS and Iraq war) and natural disasters from 2001 to 2005, the economy including the tourism industry experienced a decline. In response, Malaysia launched "Visit Malaysia Year" in 2007 to boost international tourist arrivals, resulting in the rise in tourist number to 20.9 million and receipts to MYR46.1 billion (Tourism Malaysia statistics, 2010). The government, on the quest to further develop tourism and boost the economy, launched another program "Malaysia My Second Home" (MM2H) to encourage foreigners to invest in Malaysia. The idea was to have many foreign investors as well as enhance the country's economy and create job opportunities.

According to 2005 data of WTO, Malaysia was ranked 14th in the world ranking tourist arrivals. International tourist arrivals increased from 7.9 million in 1999 to 23.6 million in 2009, while tourist receipts rose from MYR12.3 billion in 1999 to MYR53.4 billion in 2009 (Malaysia tourism statistics, 2010). By 2010, the tourism industry had generated MYR98 billion to the country's GDP. In 2010, the direct and indirect effects of travel and tourism generated MYR37 billion in GDP (equal to 5.1 percent of total GDP) and 597,000 jobs (5.3 percent of total employment). The travel and tourism sector

contributed MYR89 billion (12.7 percent) to total exports and injected MYR98 billion into the economy (equal to 13.4% of total GDP). It also created 1,331,000 jobs (equivalent to 11.9 percent of total employment). As a result, tourism is Malaysia's second-largest source of foreign exchange profits, after the manufacturing sector (WTTC, 2010). In 2019, preliminary figures showed that the tourism sector directly contributed around 102.22 billion Malaysian ringgits to its gross domestic product (Hirschmann, 2021, Statista 2021). 7.4% to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 10.4% to exports in the same year. The income ratio with GDP rose from 3.3% (year 2000) to 7.4% (2016) and the ratio with exports rose from 4.6% to 10.4% for the respective years indicating increasing trends. The contribution of tourist arrival and expenditure on the per capita GDP is increasing year by year, and the government has been focusing on the tourism sector by adopting necessary policies, development and model implementation. In 2015, the tourism sector improved its position from fifth in 2014 to the third-largest contributor to the Gross National Income (GNI) of the economy. In addition, the development in tourism sector also contributed positively to the expansion of activities in other sub-sectors, particularly in the accommodations (hotel, motel, home stays etc), travel and tour industry, food sectors (restaurants), entertainment, and transportation and also provided employment to about 3.5 million Malaysians and residents (Bãndoi, et al., 2020; Monda, et al., 2021). All these sectors contribute significantly to the economy of Malaysia.

Table 3.4 : Tourist arrivals and Receipts to Malaysia 2001-2020

Year	Arrivals	Receipts	Threats
2020	4.23 million	12.5 Billion,	Covid-19
2019	26.1 million	86.1 Billion	
2018	25.83 Million	84.1 Billion	
2017	25.95 Million	82.1 Billion	
2016	26.76 Million	82.1 Billion	
2015	25.70 Million	69.1 Billion	
2014	27.44 Million	72.0 Billion	
2013	25.72 Million	65.4 Billion	
2012	25.03million	60.6 Billion	
2011	24.71million	58.3 Billion	
2010	24.25million	56.5 Billion	
2009	23.6million	53.4 Billion	Hini & Wec
2008	22.0million	49.6 Billion	
2007	20.9million	53.4 Billion	
2006	17.45million	36.3 Billion	
2005	16.4million	32.0 Billion	Tsunami
2004	15.7million	29.7 Billion	Sars & Iraq War
2003	10.5million	21.3 Billion	Bali Bombing
2002	13.2million	25.8 Billion	9/11 Bombing
2001	12.7million	24.3 Billion	

Source: (Government of Malaysia, 2006; Marzuki, 2010; Hirschmann, 2020).

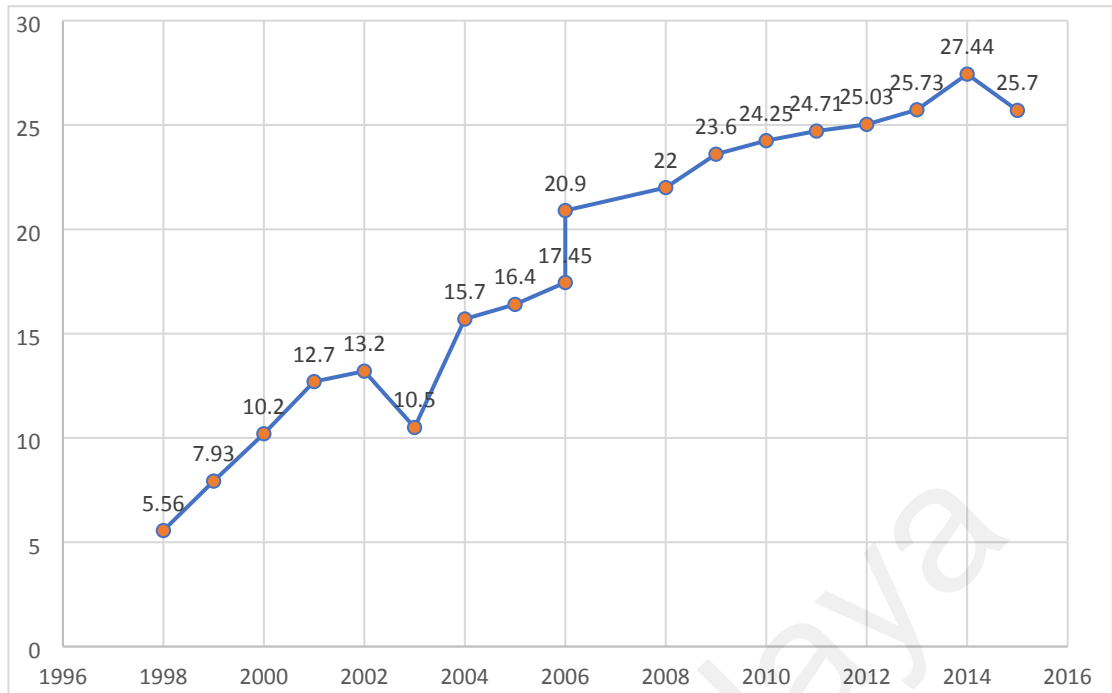


Figure 3.4 : Malaysia Tourist Arrivals (1998-2015)

Source: Government of Malaysia 2006; Marzuki, 2010.

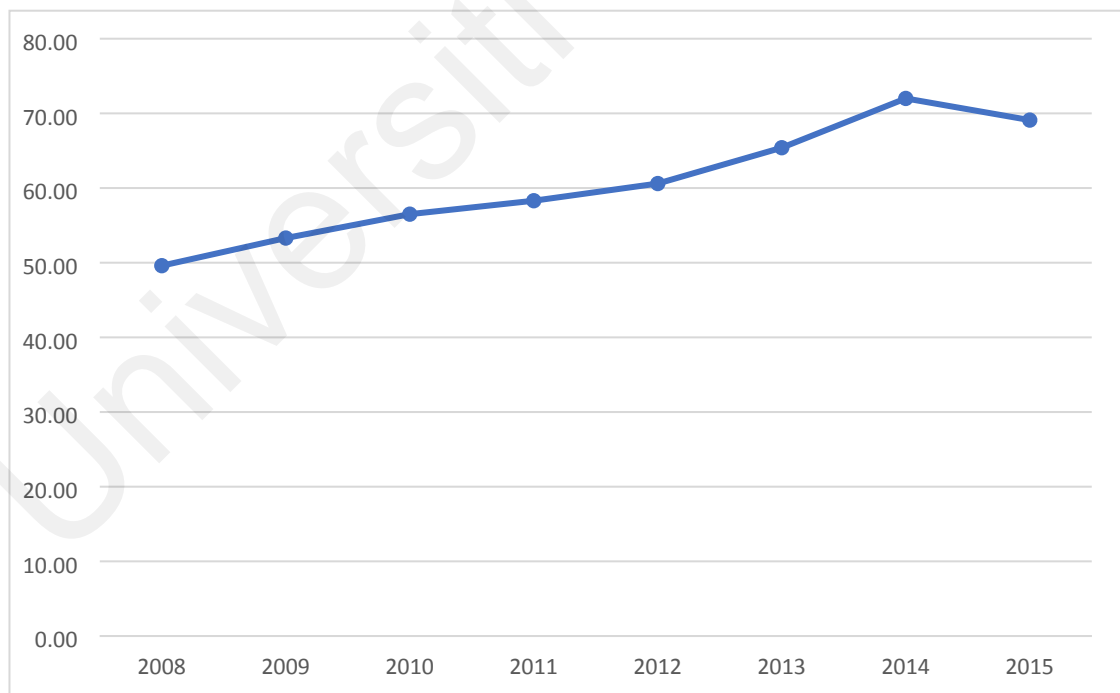


Figure 3.5 : Malaysia Tourism Receipt (2008-2015)

Source: Government of Malaysia 2013; Marzuki, 2010.

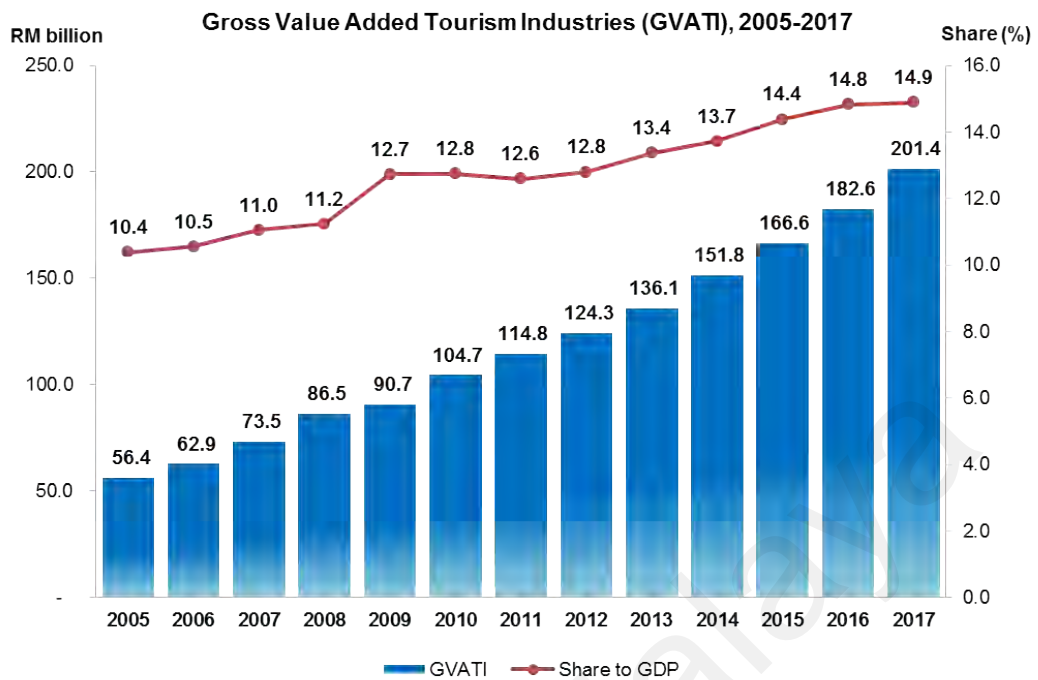


Figure 3.6 : Gross value-added tourism industries

Source: Department of statistics, 2019.

3.3 Tourism in Langkawi

Langkawi Island is one of Malaysia's most popular tourist spots for both domestic and foreign travellers. The coastline portion of Langkawi Island is made up of flat, alluvial plains accented by limestone ridges. Forest-covered mountains, hills, and natural vegetation encompass two-thirds of the island. Langkawi has a land size of 478.48 km² and is roughly 30 kilometres from Kuala Perlis, 51.5 kilometres from Kuala Kedah, and 109 kilometres from Penang. Langkawi is a fascinating microcosm of Malaysia. It is multiracial and multiethnic Island, with more Malay and few Chinese and Indian. Although they all practice different religions, ranging from Islam to Buddhism, Taoism and Hinduism, they live together in peace and harmony.

Following the formation of the Langkawi Development Authority (LADA) in 1990, economic development in Langkawi was enhanced even more. The LADA is in

charge of planning and implementing development in Langkawi, as well as ensuring the island's tourism development (Omar et al., 2011). Initially, LADA provides an overall improvement on basic tourism infrastructures of Langkawi and promote the island as meeting venues for government agencies as well as non-governmental organisations. Subsequently, international events were hosted in Langkawi to project the island into the international tourism market. Tourism development in the island has brought a direct and indirect impact on the local communities. The development of Langkawi was presaged in the Langkawi 5-year development plan.

Langkawi was a sleepy lonely island prior to the introduction of tourism on the island. The majority (63 percent) of the local populace engaged in fishing and agriculture industries, such as rubber tapping, rice farming, and gardening, and Langkawi Island was once unwelcoming to tourists and was regarded as one of Kedah's least developed districts (Omar et al., 2011; Langkawi district council, 1992). Poverty and emigration were high among natives during those times due to a lack of work. There were only a few basic sectors with a few job openings for the locals. The local economy was orientated toward tourism in the mid-80s, with residents abandoning their fishing nets and farming tools in order to embrace tourism. Tourism was seen as the only way to get away from it all to escape from economic hardship (Kayat, 2002).

Tourism developments have progressively changed the economic activities of the local community. Local communities engage in business and service sectors for income. The tourism industry has fueled economic expansion by creating jobs and influencing foreign exchange operations, which has resulted in an influx of visitors. Several activities have also been organised to boost Langkawi's image. This includes putting on international events like the Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace (LIMA) exhibition, International Paintball, Langkawi Accommodation for Visiting Academics

(LAVA), Langkawi International Festival of Arts (LIFA), Langkawi Ironman Triathlon Competitions, International Cycling Competition (Le Tour de Langkawi), Indy 40 Enduro Prime Minister's Cup (Go-kart racing), Langkawi International Dialogue (LID), Sailing Competition (Langkawi regatta), 16th Pelangi Cup International Golf Open Championship 2006 and Langkawi International Water Festival 2006. In 2007, UNESCO designated Langkawi Island as the first geopark in Southeast Asia. The international accreditation of this geopark attracted additional visitors and scholars. LADA established a high goal for themselves in the Langkawi tourist blueprint 2011-2015, namely to become one of the top ten islands and ecotourism destinations in the world. 14 initiatives were planned to achieve this objective, which were divided into three primary themes: products, infrastructures, and enablers. The three-key iconic geosites in Langkawi UNESCO Global Geoparks (LUGGp), namely the Machinchang, Dayang Bunting, and Kilim, which are developed for study, conservation, training, and education, are one of the efforts designated as goods. The endorsement programme, which controls high precision quality grading for all tourism items, including eco-tourism products, is another product effort. Branding and marketing are critical for enablers in promoting geosites and other Langkawi eco-tourism sites around the world. In general, Langkawi UGGp has completed practically all of its planned initiatives effectively. Langkawi UGGp was named one of the top ten most popular tourist islands in Asia in TripAdvisor's 2014 travellers' choice awards. This significant vote came a year before Langkawi UGGp was revalidated by UNESCO as a global geopark for the second time in 2015. The Langkawi UGGp tourist development was well planned, as evidenced by the continuing recognition from regional and global rating organisations for many years since the declaration of the Langkawi Islands as global geoparks. Langkawi was honoured with a top tourist multimedia diamond award during the recent 2018 golden city gate award, which was presented by ITB Berlin. This is in addition to the 2017 PATA gold medal for tradition

and culture, which one of the Langkawi hotels also got, as well as an award for education and training. The number of visitors to Langkawi increased dramatically as a result of these worldwide events.

On the 7th of December 2018, the LADA geopark division introduced Obit as the Langkawi UGGp mascot to commemorate the 11th Langkawi UGGp day at Ayer Hangat secondary school. They hoped that obituaries will help raise public awareness of Langkawi as one of the top UNESCO global geoparks. The word trilobite was used to create the obit mascot, which is one of the first sophisticated living creatures on the planet. Trilobites were highly successful and diversified organisms that thrived for about 300 million years across huge oceans. Trilobite fossils have been discovered in abundance in Langkawi and Malaysia. The Machinchang sandstone contains the most notable trilobite, a 500 million-year-old saukiid trilobite. Saukia was chosen as the mascot of the Langkawi UGGp because it is one of Malaysia's earliest fossils.

Pantai Cenang, Pantai Tengah, Pantai Kok, and Pantai Teluk Baru are just a few of the gorgeous beaches on Langkawi Island. Pantai Cenang is a well-known beach resort on Langkawi Island (Langkawi district office, 2011). The Dataran Lang, Langkawi cable car, Makam Mahsuri, Pulau Dayang Bunting, Pekan Kuah (tax-free home crafts activities with shells and pearls), and Telaga Tujuh are the main tourist attractions on Langkawi island. Tourists are often enthralled by Langkawi's natural beauty and diversity, as well as other attractions such as the underwater world and the Langkawi crocodile farm. In 2000, Langkawi had 1,810,460 visitors, which grew to 2.3 million in 2008 and 2.4 million in 2010, and has continued to grow in consecutive years. This growth in visitor arrivals has resulted in a significant increase in demand in the tourism service business, as well as community development. The participation of local communities, on the other hand, is seen as precarious in order to secure additional growth and development (Anand & Sen,

2000). To alleviate poverty in local areas, locals must be given priority in terms of job prospects in tourism-related industries. Tourism growth, according to Kang et al. (2008), affects not only the physical landscape of a tourist destination but also the social landscape of the town. These shifts are most noticeable in local community behaviour and attitudes (Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012).

Langkawi Island is frequently associated with mythology, which adds to the island's tourism attractiveness. The story of Mahsuri and her curse, which lasted seven generations on the island, is the most well-known of the legends. Many believed that this island was under the spell of an innocent beautiful lady, Mahsuri who was accused of adultery and wrongfully sentenced to death. On her last breath, the legendary Mahsuri reportedly cursed Langkawi, wishing the island remain a sterile field for seven generations. As a result, areas linked with legends, such as Beras Terbakar, Padang Masirat, Pasir Hitam beach, Perigi Tujuh, Dayang Bunting Island, and Mahsuri mausoleum, have been developed for tourism purposes in addition to Kuah.

Table 3.5 : Tourist arrivals to Langkawi

Years	Tourists Arrivals
2007	2334362
2008	2303157
2009	2492692
2010	2448466
2011	2815178
2012	3059070
2013	3414391
2014	3600511
2015	3624149
2016	3634577
2017	3679158

Source: Langkawi Municipal Council (2016).

The above graph shows a gradual increase in tourist arrivals Since Langkawi's start as a UNESCO-supported Global Network of National Geoparks (GNNG) in 2007, also known as Langkawi global geopark, the table above shows a progressive growth in tourist arrivals. Since 2011, there has been a significant rise in visitor arrivals, which may have been influenced by LADA's major relocation over the Langkawi tourism blueprint to ratify the slow progress recorded in tourism towards the end of the previous decade. This positive trend has continued till today, as indicated in the first quarter of this year, in which the numbers of tourist arrival increased to 0.945 million from 0.936 million in the same quarter in the year 2017. These findings show that Langkawi's tourist development is on track to compete with other regional and worldwide tourism destinations.

3.3.1 Langkawi Tourism Blueprint

The Langkawi blueprint's execution is a tool for boosting the local economy, increasing community capacity building methods, and attracting more tourists to Langkawi. The federal government and LADA created the Langkawi tourist blueprint for the years 2011–2015 with the goal of making Langkawi Island one of the top ten island destinations on the global tourism map. In 2012, Malaysia's prime minister unveiled the Langkawi tourist blueprint, which outlined a short-term action plan. To achieve this goal, a portfolio of 14 initiatives was formed, divided into three categories: product, infrastructure, and enablers. Five fundamental concepts guide these endeavours. First, they are in favour of a unified vision of Langkawi as a natural and eco-destination. Second, they build on Langkawi's current assets to elevate the island to really world-class status, giving it a competitive advantage over other island destinations. In keeping with this, all of the efforts emphasise a shift away from infrastructure development and toward content development. These projects also aim to raise Langkawians' living standards, both in terms of income and quality of life. Another initiative was the establishment of the

Langkawi tourism academy, which aimed to create more graduates for the tourism industry and address Langkawi's talent deficit (Omar et al., 2014). Finally, the blueprint has paid special attention to implementation concerns, because we understand that a plan is only as good as its execution. Community capacity-building methods may be a good start for the tourism industry in Langkawi to move towards sustainable tourism development by putting greater emphasis on local engagement in tourism development. Capacity building approach was introduced to reduce the monopoly of power of powerful businesses and help the local community to participate in tourism development.

Another important initiative by the economic planning unit was branding and marketing (Bregoli, 2012). This initiative was introduced to enable the island to compete with other islands. The Malaysian government has played a critical role in the country's development. The government, the corporate sector, entrepreneurs, and the general public have all played critical roles in the island's development. Since the launch of the Langkawi tourism blueprint, the community development unit (UPK) has set up series of community development strategies for the local community.

According to the report, local participation in the island's tourism development is still limited, and local community participation is critical for tourism development. To develop an island, branding and marketing are very pivotal. As branding is the only thing that differentiates a product from others, it needs to be considered in the tourism development strategy of Langkawi. Langkawi island does not have a strong brand compare to other islands and needs to be addressed to ensure its competitiveness. On the other hand, marketing makes a product to be globally known. The marketing strategy in terms of marketing channels needs to be improved, and the island's brochures need to be updated and made more tourist-friendly. Although Langkawi Island has undergone a series of branding operations from the mid-1970s, it was first advertised as a destination

of legends. In 1987, it was designated as a duty-free island, attracting a large number of travellers looking to buy chocolate and booze. Langkawi Island was designated as Malaysia's first tourism city by the state government in 2001, and it was also granted Geopark designation by UNESCO in 2007, elevating the island's importance even more. In 2006, the Kedah state government formally introduced the geopark concept with the help of LADA and the team of geo-heritage researchers from national university of Malaysia (UKM) (Yusof, et al., 2019). The determination to designate the island as a geopark destination is aimed at ensuring the conservation of natural resources as well as the well-being of the local people (Yusof et al., 2019). Langkawi is promoted under a variety of names and slogans, most of them are based on mythology and folklore. The island was also marketed to attract a large number of tourists for shopping and business markets, as well as to attend special events and conferences such as the Langkawi International Dialogue and the Langkawi International Maritime and Aerospace Exhibition (LIMA). Langkawi was rebranded as naturally Langkawi in 2012 to position the island among the top ten greatest islands and eco-tourism destinations in the world.

On the contrary, some NGOs and private companies have raised their concerns about the implementation of the blueprint and the independent control of the free open beaches by LADA. Although LADA promised the community proper management, the opposite is now the case. The beaches are facing environmental degradation as a result of the removal of trees and erection of buildings. Many businesses are set up by big cooperations on agricultural land, causing many locals to lose their farmlands to the development. This is contrary to what the local communities anticipate from the government authorities who implement the tourism blueprint. This coupled with the exclusion of the local communities in all the planning and drafting of strategies to develop Langkawi.

Based on the blueprint, the government authorities plan to reduce poverty and the rate of illiteracy to 0% by the year 2015. The government had high expectation of the programs, which promise employment opportunities for the local communities who are now hopeless of blueprint. They felt the blueprint needs to consider their views rather than just the political motives, which is fuelled by the top-down system of governance run in the country since 1957. The government make the laws and enforce them on the local communities without consulting them. As a result, these local communities bear the brunt of poor project implementation in their community.

Table 3.6 : Portfolio of 14 initiatives across 3 themes in Langkawi tourism blueprint

Theme	Initiative
Product	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Enhance the value of heritage geopark icons by developing a thorough conservation plan that is enforced by the Langkawi Development Authority's park ranger team. 2. Making Chenang a premier recreational beach for both locals and visitors. 3. Turn the rice museum and the Mahsuri fort into living museums that display Malay culture and rural life. 4. Assist in the private development of five 5-star and above hotels. 5. Invest in the island's northwestern region to cater to high-end visitors. 6. Promote Langkawi as a meeting and incentive location. 7. Establish an endorsement scheme to raise the quality of all tourism items.
Infrastructure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The network and connection of air and ferry transportation are being improved. 2. Improving land transportation services and mobility. 3. Maintain a clean, safe, and tourist-friendly environment, especially near tourist attractions. 4. Improving the gateway to Langkawi in order to improve visitors' first impressions of the island.
Enablers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make Langkawi's branding and marketing campaigns more effective. 2. Create a tourist academy to create graduates who fulfil the industry's standards. 3. Increase local income from farming and fishing operations and diversify income sources by collaborating more with the tourism industry.

Source: Langkawi Development Authority (2011).

3.3.2 The tourism life cycle of Langkawi Island

According to the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) concept, tourism goes through six stages (Butler, 1976). Accelerated growth rates describe the model's exploration, involvement, and development stages, whereas a gradual fall in growth rate characterises the consolidation stage. Visitor arrivals are at an all-time high in the stage of stagnation. The cycle concludes with a post-stagnation phase, which includes five possibilities for a location to choose from. Langkawi Island has gone through four stages of development based on the tourism life cycle, and is currently in the fourth stage, which is the consolidation stage (Butler, 1976).

Exploration stage

Tourism on Langkawi Island began in the 17th century with the exploring stage. In 1642, the island became a resort for healing Dutch soldiers serving in the region, according to Saarinen (2019). The types of people and their visitation patterns to the island in later centuries are difficult to identify due to a lack of knowledge or written history.

Involvement stage

The first hotel in Langkawi Island, the Fairwinds Hotel, opened in 1948, marking the start of the island's tourism phase (Omar, et al., 2011). Community lodging and services have been provided on the island for a long time, allowing beaches like Cenang, Kok, Tengah, and Tanjung Rhu to become more welcoming to local tourists for recreation. Locals also start modest companies by selling tourists food and beverages. As time passed, more facilities were built to handle the growing number of domestic travellers. As a result, the government began to see tourism as a potential source of growth and development. Malaysia's first Prime Minister praised the government's public works department for clearing a rubber plantation to make way for a nine-hole golf course in

1968. (Saridan, Shamsul, & Munap 2012). The course was finished and opened in 1970, but it was later closed due to a lack of finances for maintenance and a lack of public interest. It was eventually renovated and upgraded into an 18-hole course in 1989. (Saridan, et al., 2012).

After the golf course is rebuilt, a Chinese entrepreneur creates the Langkawi Country Club (Bird, 1989), a small hotel that is eventually upgraded and enlarged into an international quality hotel in 1986. Langkawi was first highlighted as a prospective tourist destination in 1975. (Marzuki, 2009). The Tourist Development Corporation (TDC) was tasked by the federal government in 1976 with developing a tourism master plan for Langkawi Island (Government of Malaysia, 1976). Despite the fact that Peat, Marwick Mitchell & Company finalised the plan in 1977, none of the ideas were adopted due to a lack of investor interest (Marzuki, 2009).

Development stage

During this time, Langkawi Island was promoted as a vacation destination (Government of Malaysia, 1986) and grew rapidly as a result of government tourism development plans. Development was carried out on a large scale, with the federal and local governments serving as key drivers. The state government also works with the federal government to ensure that development projects are successful. The first mega project, a USD 1 billion resort development at Tanjung Rhu, was launched by the federal government in 1984. (Omar, et al., 2011). Promet Berhad proposed seven international hotels totaling 2,500 rooms on 405 hectares of land, as well as an 18-hole golf course, an artificial wave lagoon, a 4.4-hater swimming pool, and a chamber aquarium as part of this project (Marzuki, 2009).

However, these projects affected many local communities, as they are forced to forego their land, which is the source of their livelihoods, in exchange for a meager compensation. The project as at then was not a total success, but the federal government remained committed to its tourism development plan by providing supportive infrastructure, such as a cargo jetty in 1982, an international airport in 1985 and a ferry terminal in 1988, thereby making the island more accessible to visitors from across the country. From 1984 to 1992, a total of MYR1.2 billion was invested in various developmental initiatives. In addition, the government has set aside MYR200 million to construct road networks around the island, enhance water supply, and expand the airport. The remaining MYR1 billion was spent on 106 projects between 1988 and 1992, including the construction of various residential, recreational, and commercial hubs, as well as the development of tourism products (Langkawi District Council, 1992). The introduction of tax incentives prompted further municipal attempts to construct low-cost lodging for travellers. The establishment of a duty-free port elevates Langkawi Island's status. As a result, Kuah town became not only the island's main commercial district, but also its administrative hub and primary seaport to the island. The federal government formed the Langkawi Development Authority (LADA) in 1990 to implement and execute socioeconomic development on the island in order to ensure more development. To diversify its tourism products and services, the government built various artificial attractions in the late 1990s, including undersea world, CHOGM Park, Galeria Perdana, Eagle Square, rice museum, Atma Alam, and craft complex.

Some developed attractions, such as Malaysia Book Village, failed, while others were re-imagined to increase tourism (Omar et al., 2011). The Malaysian book village was said to have failed because it was poorly planned and received little visitor traffic (Omar et al., 2011). The administration conducted strenuous measures to promote the island and tap into a larger tourism market. Langkawi Island was heavily promoted during the 1990

and 1994 "Visit Malaysia Year" promotional efforts. The island received global prominence after hosting the 10th Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM), during which the Langkawi Declaration on the Environment was given (Bird, 1989). A number of international events were hosted on the island in the following years. The island got 209,763 visitors in 1986. After ten years, the number had risen to 1,795,406, an increase of almost 8.4 times. Nonetheless, the island has seen a number of first-time reductions.

Consolidation stage (2000-present)

Langkawi Island has been in a consolidation stage since 2000, which is characterised by a period of prosperity. Between 2000 and 2012, 28,567,239 tourists visited the island, averaging 2,197,480 visitors per year. In 2010, the number of tourists on the island was 26 times larger than the indigenous population, and tourism and tourism-related industries generated MYR 0.8 billion in gross national income (Langkawi Municipal Council, 2013). The island's economy was heavily reliant on tourism, thus the government invested heavily in marketing and promotion of the island, particularly through the Visit Malaysia Year 2007 advertising efforts.

Langkawi Island was designated as the country's first tourism city in 2001. Despite this declaration, the island's facility development slowed, with the focus shifting to the refurbishment of tourist attractions (e.g., oriental village, cable car theme park, Ayer Hangat village, and fort of Mahsuri), transportation expansion (e.g., Telaga harbour park), and lodging expansion. These efforts undoubtedly bring more visitors to the island. To boost the island's competitiveness, Malaysia's prime minister created the Langkawi tourism strategy in 2012, which seeks to place the island in the top ten best islands and eco-tourist destinations in the world by 2015.

Stagnation stage

As the term implies, stagnation occurs when most attractions have hit their maximum capacity and are unable to expand further. At this stage, a lot of damage is done to the host environment. To keep the business moving in the island, visitation of tourists needs to be sustained via intensive marketing strategies.

Decline stage

At this point, the area faces a number of options, one of which being a decline as a result of its inability to compete with fresh attractions. Weekend and day vacations are common during this stage of decline, as the attraction has lost its allure. Because of the availability of cheaper facilities, the local community's involvement in tourism is growing, even as tourist facilities begin to deteriorate, perhaps resulting in the loss of tourism activities.

Rejuvenation stage

At the rejuvenation stage, the attractions must undergo a complete transformation (Butler, 1980). According to Butler, this change can occur in two ways. New man-made attractions, for starters, can be introduced. Second, the attractions can utilise previously underutilised natural resources. To rebuild the tourism business at this point, a concentrated effort is required.

3.4 Government involvement in Malaysia tourism development

Malaysia's five-year growth plans used a centralised government system. The Economic Planning Unit (EPU) is in charge of development planning, which is done in collaboration with a wide range of partners, including ministries, agencies, state governments, universities, the business sector, and non-governmental organisations. Governments are the primary actors and stakeholders in tourism development (Bramwell,

2011; Ruhanen, 2013). The government has an important role in tourist development, including planning, coordination, legislation, stimulation, regulation, protection, and employment creation. They are also the primary financial backer of tourism growth. Tourism is a federal issue, and the Ministry of Tourism and Culture is in charge of overall policy planning and monitoring (MOTAC). Malaysia's government system is impacted by three levels of government: the federal government, state governments, and local governments. These three organisations are responsible for the tourist industry's growth and development in Malaysia (Bhuiyan, 2013; Set, 2013). The federal government is in charge of policy development, monitoring, and planning (Marzuki, et. al., 2012).

The state government, on the other hand, is in charge of developing policies and strategies for tourism development within each state (Khan, et al., 2020). This is done in order to pursue economic operations at the state level in Malaysia. Although tourism is primarily a private sector industry, both the federal and state governments are required to provide the infrastructure that allows private investments to flourish. They're also in charge of delivering produced products and organising events.

The local authority, which is the third layer of government in Malaysia, is in charge of drafting local plans. It functions as a district system with its own boundaries, legal organisation, and instructional structure. The local government is in responsibility of earning revenue for the federal government through tourism operations (Awang & Azizi, 2011). The federation's basic concepts of multi-ethnic society, economic openness, and integrating free enterprise with active government backing drive development planning. The five-year development plans emphasise social integration and a more equitable distribution of resources and opportunities in order to strengthen national unity.

Looking at Malaysia, the first Malaysia Plan (1966–1970) was a Malaysian government-led economic growth initiative. It was Malaysia's first economic plan, as well as Sabah and Sarawak's. The Plan's objectives were to improve rural living conditions, particularly for low-income groups, and to promote the well-being of all inhabitants. The plan was primarily focused with infrastructure development, which was still lacking at the time of independence. The emphasis was on economic development, with a concentration on increasing GNP through industrialisation, rural development, economic diversification, and infrastructure development. Economic expansion was commonly associated with progress during this time period. Social growth, on the other hand, was not as clearly stated, despite the fact that it may have been in the plans.

The construction of a rural healthcare service was part of a larger plan to increase rural access to medical care. The district hospital has been renovated to handle clinic referrals and service. Medical subcenters were also developed in urban areas, and by the end of the plan, the gap between rural and urban healthcare quality had been reduced, but not eliminated. The first Malaysia plan also intended to address the issue of unemployment, which initially surfaced in the 1960s; despite the country's strong economic growth, employment rates had not kept pace. The government also provided incentives to promote Malay entrepreneurship and upgrade Malay management skills for manufacturing companies in order to industrialise the Malaysian economy.

The first Malaysia plan was intended to take a bold and creative approach to the country's problems. The plan's main goals are to: first, promote Malaysian people and states' integration; second, provide consistent increases in income and consumption per head; third, improve the well-being of Malaysia's rural residents and other lower-income groups; fourth, create employment opportunities; fifth, stimulate new agricultural and industrial activities; and sixth, educate and train Malaysians for better participation;

seventh, to establish the groundwork for slower population increase; eighth, to allow for adequate development; ninth, to provide power, transportation, and communication services; and finally, to advance health and social welfare development. The majority of the effects were obvious during the second plan (1971– 1975), especially following the 1972 Pacific Asian Travel Associations (PATA) meeting. To encourage tourists, the Malaysian government established the Malaysia Airlines to provide direct links to the ASEAN region and other countries (MoT, 2013).

The Malaysian New Economic Policy was implemented through the Second Malaysia Plan (1971-1975), which was also an economic growth plan issued by the Malaysian government (NEP). Its goal was to restructure Malaysians and reduce the dominance of Malaysian Chinese and foreigners in the country's economy, with the goal of improving the Malays' economic status. The plan focuses on a new development strategy, with national unity as the country's overarching goal. It aims to eradicate poverty among all Malaysians and rebuild the social structure in order to promote the country's economic growth and well-being. However, the plan's goal of prioritising Malay participation in the economy was questioned. The second Malaysian five-year plan increased spending for agriculture and rural development. Land development initiatives, physical infrastructure, and social services have all seen significant increases in funding. The declared goal of the plan was to offer facilities and opportunity for rural residents to better their economic and social well-being.

Furthermore, in 1970, a new government policy (NEP) was implemented to promote economic justice and national unity among all races, as well as encourage Bumiputera (Malay community) participation in tourism industry activities (Din, 1991). During the third Malaysian plan, Bumiputera participation in tourism increased to 30%, resulting in the employment of 14,800 Malays in the hotel business by the fourth Malaysian plan

(Awang & Azizi, 2011). The National Tourism Master Plan (NTMP) took over tourism development in 1975, proposing the creation of eight integrated tourist zones across Malaysia, including Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah, and Sarawak. In 1990, the federal government issued the National Development Policy (NDP), which emphasised the need of nationally integrated development in the face of widespread opposition.

The Third Malaysia Plan (1976-1980) is a continuation of previous development plans' aims to achieve national unity while also eradicating poverty and promoting social and economic growth. The plan is a bold, inventive, and hopeful response to the socioeconomic and political issues that face the country. It is one of the most important moves the administration has made for all indigenous people. It was created to build on the foundations that had previously been established and the accomplishments that had already been made in order to strengthen the indigenes' unity and well-being. Although Malaysia has made significant progress in this area, there is still much more to be done.

The Fourth Malaysia Plan (1981-1985) is concerned with putting the NEP into action in order to achieve long-term goals of economic success, national unity, as well as an increase in people's income and standard of living. The goal of the fourth Malaysia plan was to intricate and refine policy procedures and programmes embodied in the second and third Malaysia plans in order to safeguard that the NEP's socio-economic objectives, which included eradicating poverty regardless of race and reorganising society to remove the link between race and economic functions, were met.

The Fifth Malaysia Plan (1986 -1990) constituted the fourth and last phase of the NEP, which was originally introduced during the second Malaysia plan. It also served as the foundation for the second Outline Perspective Plan (OPP). The plan devotes more attention to the private sector, as the public sector is no longer seen as the primary source

of growth during the time period. The public sector's mission was to lead and create the ideal climate for the private sector to thrive through increased competition, efficiency, initiative, and innovation in the production and selling of goods and services for domestic and international markets. The fifth Malaysia plan focused on three areas of development: national unity and the NEP, growth with stability, and growth tactics.

During the fifth Malaysia plan (1986-1990), extensive promotional and marketing operations resulted in a significant increase in tourist arrivals and receipts. Based on this success, the Malaysian government's sixth plan (1991-1995) aims to broaden and diversify the industry's market reach. Appropriate funding and the efficient development of services and infrastructure are critical to the success of this plan. To drive expansion, the tourist industry needs to attract as many tourism-related investments as possible. It should also provide enough incentives and implement long-term plans and strategies to guarantee that tourist development is well-coordinated and integrated. Because tourism has grown in importance in the development of the Malaysian economy, the government is currently considering policies and strategies to attract investment, promote local entrepreneurship, strengthen the country's identity and image, and promote environmental conservation and management. The fifth Malaysian plan (1986-1990) encouraged marketing and promotional operations while also supporting innovative tourism services.

The Six Malaysia Plan (1991–1995) was created to encourage domestic tourism in order to prevent foreign exchange outflows caused by Malaysians' foreign travel. The government projected a two-pronged tourism development strategy in the sixth Malaysia plan, with the goal of increasing foreign visitor inflows while also promoting local tourism. Tourism was acknowledged in sixth Malaysia plan, which recognised the country's image and the role of the tourism industry in growing it. The 'Malaysian way of life' was identified as the image suggested.

The Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996–2000) emphasised domestic tourism by encouraging locals to engage in entrepreneurship, such as product and service development. Community-based tourism, nature-based tourism, and rural tourism were highlighted as new tourism products in Malaysia's seventh plan. To project the country's tropical climate and terrain to the world, nature-based tourism, which includes eco-tourism and agro-tourism, was developed and promoted in areas such as waterfalls, lakes, rivers, hot springs, forest reserves, agricultural parks, and fishing villages, as well as oil palm and rubber estates.

At the national, state, and municipal levels, the Eight Malaysia Plan (2001–2005) aims to promote sustainable growth and realise potential income. In all tourism activities and planning, sustainable tourism practises were applied to ensure a balance between the environment, economy, social, and cultural challenges. The country's rising maturity and confidence as a top-draw tourism destination may be seen in the eighth Malaysia plan (Government of Malaysia, 2001). The government promotes Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) as a regional hub and develops international access to new strategic tourist markets, all to ensure Malaysia does not fall behind Singapore and Thailand on the 'tourism circuit' (GOM, 2001). To capitalise on Asia's predicted rise as a holiday and cruise destination, cruise tourism, yachting, and recreational boat activities were established (GOM, 2001). The eighth Malaysian plan saw the conclusion of the ASEAN cruise working group research, which defines the strategy for developing cruise tourism, as well as the establishment of an ASEAN joint marketing plan.

The necessity of sustainable tourism development was emphasised in the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006–2010), with a focus on eco-tourist development through agricultural and rural product development (MoT, 2013; Marzuki, 2010). The Malaysian government plays a critical role in bringing all of their objectives for tourism development to fruition.

As a result, the tourism industry has been working hard to boost its contribution to the economy. The ninth Malaysian plan is primarily focused on ensuring that Malaysia becomes a world-renowned tourism destination. The focus of the activities was on improving tourism infrastructure and developing new tourism products and services. More crucially, achieving long-term tourism development was prioritised. This strategy incorporated a collaborative approach from all relevant authorities and stakeholders in order to ensure the country's long-term tourist development. Despite paying special attention to human resource development, tourism research efforts, and the expansion of domestic tourist development, it lacks adequate standards for foreign investment in tourism development.

Malaysia's Tenth Plan (2011-2015): This strategy focused on tourism development, with the goal of making Malaysia one of the top ten tourist destinations in the world. As a result, more attention was placed on creating innovative and iconic tourism initiatives, as well as focusing on tourism promotion and administration. The plan places a greater emphasis on tourism promotion and global market expansion. However, tourist research and educational activities in tourism and human resource development received little special attention. The tenth Malaysian plan was the country's first plan under the new economic model. Malaysia was to become a high-income country by 2020, and the plan was to accelerate growth. It encapsulates the goals of both the government's reform programme and the new economic model's ambitions, with a focus on sustainability, high income, and inclusion. The tenth plan put down the basis for the significant fundamental adjustments required by a high-income economy. It contains new policy initiatives, techniques, and programmes targeted at assisting the country's transition to a high-income economy. The plan lays out measures for the government to play a more concentrated role as a reagent and a controller while adhering to the 1Malaysia ideals of "people first, performance now" to ensure effective service delivery.

In terms of money, the emphasis was on private-sector-led growth, as well as the need to foster innovation and a talent pool.

The Eleventh Malaysia Plan (2016-2020) is the final five-year plan on the road to Vision 2020 realisation. Malaysia is expected to be a fully developed country in numerous dimensions by 2020, including economic, political, social, spiritual, psychological, and cultural. The 11th Malaysia plan is based on the country's national development strategy, which emphasises high-impact projects for the expansion of a people- and capital-based economy. It reaffirms the government's commitment to a growth strategy that prioritises the prosperity and well-being of citizens. Malaysians are at the centre of the eleventh plan, which aims to ensure their pleasure and prosperity. It is the final stage in gaining a grasp of Vision 2020. Some of the six basic plans it has are to improve inclusiveness toward an equitable society, improve well-being for all, accelerate human capital development for an advanced nation, pursue green growth for sustainability and resilience, strengthen infrastructure to support economic expansion, and re-engineer economic growth for greater prosperity. The following chapters are discussed: chapter 1 discusses anchoring growth on people; chapter 2 discusses strengthening macroeconomic resilience for long-term growth; chapter 3 discusses enhancing inclusiveness for a more equitable society; chapter 4 discusses improving well-being for all; chapter 5 discusses accelerating human capital development for an advanced nation; chapter 6 discusses pursuing green growth for sustainability and resilience; chapter 7 discusses strengthening infrastructure to support economic expansion; and chapter 8 discusses accelerating human capital development for an advanced nation; chapter 9, transforming public service for productivity; chapter 10, Malaysia beyond 2020.

The eleventh plan not only brings a 30-year journey to Vision 2020 to a close, but it also lays the framework for the next stage of development. After 2020, the challenge

for the country's economic prospects will be to raise the bar even higher in three areas: economy, people, and the environment. According to the vision, all Malaysians should have a strong sense of national identity and a firm moral compass. Malaysia will be governed by trusted and independent administrative, legislative, and judicial institutions that will assure equal treatment for all Malaysians. The economy will be inventive, inclusive, and adaptive in the future, thanks to highly productive world-class cities and thriving rural areas. All Malaysians will be able to contribute to and benefit from the country's progress, as well as experience increased happiness. They will be dedicated environmental stewards who will no longer see environmental protection as a trade-off for a strong economy, transforming Malaysia into a truly beautiful place to live for everyone. The objectives listed above are neither exhaustive or conclusive; rather, they are intended to elicit more engagement and critical thought.

3.4.1 Investment and Tourism Development

The tourism industry is well positioned to encourage economic growth and development at all levels by generating jobs, encouraging entrepreneurship and small businesses, and empowering less privileged people, notably youth and women. Tourism is frequently viewed as a valuable tool for developing countries, particularly in terms of generating foreign currency, attracting foreign investment, increasing tax revenue, and creating job opportunities (UNWTO, 2017; UNDP, 2017).

The term "investment" refers to a commitment to current financial resources with the goal of achieving larger returns in the future. Every investment necessitates that investors set aside money from their earnings or borrow money from friends or banks (Salleh et al., 2016). Investment in tourism is a critical component of long-term tourist development. Tourism investment results in enhanced infrastructure, more tourist attractions, and better transportation. Tourism-related information and communication

technology (ICT) projects; development of new buildings, furniture, and equipment; renovation of existing hotels, motels, and vacation homes; facilitation of tourist transportation such as buses, aircraft, and cruise ships; restorations of renowned tourist places and sights; tourism-related ICT projects; According to the World Travel & Tourism Council, tourism investment includes both traditional and sustainable investments (WTTC, 2015).

According to the Kuznets (1955) inverted U-shaped curve, high-income people save a lot of money, but persons in the lowest quintile of the income distribution save very little. As a result, investing in the tourism business is contingent on a willingness to set aside money from one's household income. The capacity of a household to save the income generated is determined by the extent of the local community's expenditure. Because savings equals investment and household income reflects the amount of savings that families can save at a given income, the local community's desire to engage in the growth of tourism is determined by their saving capacity. Investment is a direct contributor to economic activity and the most explosive component of GDP, making it critical to development.

Furthermore, investing in tourism-related items ensures high-quality services that attract visitors and increase tourism earnings. A private investment (induced) or a public investment (autonomous) may be made. Public investment in tourism-related infrastructure projects, including airports, water and energy supply, resort building, visitor centres, and tourist information offices. It does not include investments in multi-use facilities such as highways or public transportation, even if they are partially used for tourism. Private investments, on the other hand, are small and medium enterprises that are frequently established for commercial objectives and are primarily motivated by profit considerations. As a result, private tourist investment is concentrated in commercial

lodging and transportation services, such as vacation homes, hotels, convention centres, aircraft, cruise ships, and buses. Food and beverage services, entertainment and other recreational activities, cultural services, tourist guide and tour operator services, and other tourism-related products are also included (WTTC, 2015).

Up until 1970, Malaysia's tourist potential was underutilised because tourism was not considered a significant economic sector. Following that, the newly renamed Tourism Development Corporation (TDC) demonstrated its dedication to tourism development. The emergence of national carriers influenced this even more. However, in the 1980s, the industry began to expand rapidly as a result of a number of changes in Malaysia, including increased personal income, increased leisure time, improved international transportation systems, and finally, increased public awareness of other parts of the world as a result of improved communications. The foregoing achievements convinced the administration that tourism can play a significant role in the country's economic and social growth. The government established the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in response to the positive impact of tourist, providing an institutional framework for tourism planning. The investment incentives act was changed once more to cover the tourist sector, and the federal government established an RM 120 million special fund for tourism to help small and medium-sized businesses grow. The government worked tirelessly to promote tourism, which resulted in a beneficial outcome. In recent years, the country's tourism profile has improved.

Tourism development has been hailed as a catalyst for economic growth, prosperity, and poverty reduction on a global scale. Tourism growth is reliant on both public and private infrastructure (UNWTO & UNDP 2017). The tourism industry may influence public policy for infrastructure upgrades and provide the necessary capital investment by attracting tourists and international investment. Tourism development is

usually thought to lead to economic growth and individual well-being. Many governments in developing nations have the tourism backing for the reason of its high multiplier effects on employment, foreign exchange profits, the balance of payments, and poverty alleviation (Băndoi, et al., 2020; Monda, et al., 2021). Tourism offers a lot of long-term potential for boosting growth in all economic sectors. Through integrated policies, tourism may provide quality employment prospects for long-term economic and social improvement, eliminating poverty and encouraging environmental protection. As a result, tourism can be viewed as a triple win situation for governments looking to create a fairer and resilient economy. Tourism development stimulates economic growth by attracting additional foreign direct investment (FDI) and building new facilities.

Tourism development is a capital-intensive endeavour that necessitates a concerted effort on the part of the local population to boost savings competence. While income is expected to match expenditure in order to maximise the required level of consumption, the local community's impression of savings would spur spending on the tourism business. However, according to Kuznets (1955), saving competence is determined by the level of income and the rate of return on investment. Savings restrict households of current consumption, increasing future investment. The addition of savings would improve the comprehension of the local community's desire to engage in the tourism business, according to the study, due to the importance of money required.

3.4.2 Investment and Infrastructure Development

Tourism has the potential to be a social, environmental, and economic issue on government agendas. Tourism is frequently viewed as a valuable tool for developing countries, particularly in terms of generating foreign currency, attracting foreign investment, increasing tax revenue, and creating job opportunities. As a result of the decline in crude oil prices, the tourist industry has gotten a lot of attention. In 1986, the

Investment Incentives (IIC) Act was updated to include the tourism sector. Tourism investment, as well as other advantages such as pioneer status or investment tax deductions, industrial building allowances, and tax exemption for large foreign group excursions, were all included in the additional incentive. These brought about huge opportunities for investment in the tourism industry in Malaysia. Potential investment opportunities were created in many areas by the tourism promotional board. Retail and services, as well as hospitality and travel, are among them. Several tax incentives were examined in order to attract both foreign and domestic investment. Malaysia government grants tax incentives to investors willing to invest. As a result, infrastructures related to tourism were built and the existing ones were continuously renovated. Similarly, developments such as upgrading of the airport; building and renovation of hotels; building of new railways and ports; construction of attractions (e.g., zoo) and building of shopping malls and duty-free shops were undertaken. The average occupancy rate of hotels (AOR) was 62.4 in 2012, which represent an increase of 1.8% compared to the previous year (Tourism Malaysia website). This is due to the rise (38%) in the number of hotels over the last ten years, reaching 160,237 in 2008. This increase is more pronounced in popular tourist attraction centers like Kuala Lumpur, Langkawi, and Genting high lands. In terms of connectivity, seven international airports connect Malaysia to the rest of the world, with KLIA being the major gateway to Malaysia. The airport has a large capacity, handling nearly 50 international carriers, including most of the world's most well-known airlines, including KLM, British Airways, Emirates, Japan Airlines, Northwest, Lufthansa, Qatar Airways, and others (MoT,2013).

The Malaysian government has invested much in strengthening its connection in order to meet the needs of tourists while also limiting the predicted increase in air passenger volume. The government also ensures that other airports were upgraded to meet the modern standard and further enhance connectivity for both scheduled and chartered

flights. Besides, the railway network was developed to standard, ensuring connectivity that covers most states in Peninsular Malaysia as well as Sabah and others. Also, there is an ongoing high-speed rail (HSR) construction that is to connect Kuala Lumpur and Singapore to ensure more tourist inflow into the country. Tourism is a significant source of revenue in Malaysia, and it is an important component of the country's development ambitions. As a result, the government has placed a special priority on the tourist sector, adopting and modifying different rules and regulations to safeguard the sector's long-term viability. The government supports entrepreneurial skills through marketing and promotions, thus improving the country's tourism product and service competitiveness to sustain tourists' interest. The economy requires reliable infrastructure to connect supply chains and efficiently move goods and services across borders. Infrastructure connects metropolitan families to more job, healthcare, and education opportunities. Malaysia sees the tourism investment as the country's backbone and also a challenged to effectively manage new investment (Set, 2013). The government created beneficial programmes and policies for tourism small and medium enterprises in order to promote the industry.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The research framework and hypotheses created in response to the problem statement and research questions are presented in this chapter on research methods. Following that, the research approach used in the evaluation of the research model is described. The quantitative methodologies that were utilised to examine the primary determinants affecting community engagement and investment in tourism development are then explained in sub-sections. This is accomplished by presenting the research variables' sampling methods and data collection procedures, as well as the data collection and data analysis approaches. At the end of the chapter, the results of the pilot survey are reported.

The methodology accounts for methods employed in the sourcing, analysis and interpretation of the raw data obtained from the survey (Creswell., 2012). Theoretically, coherent research has streams that can be accommodated in a pragmatic paradigm, implying that the weakness of one method can be countered by the strength of the other (Creswell., 2012). In the long term, methodological pluralism may avoid compartmentalisation containing restrictions, other than contributing to the understanding of investment and participation concepts (McDonald, et al., 2015).

4.2 Conceptual Framework

Based on the review of past literature in chapter 3, the conceptual framework of this study revolves around the well-known participatory and social identity theories upon which the theoretical framework was drawn, followed by a methodology that answers the research questions. The main focus of this study is to investigate the factors influencing the local community from participating in tourism development in Langkawi, and also assess the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in Langkawi. In the framework of this study, participation is measured by motivation, attitude, opportunity, knowledge, savings and expectation

of benefit, as well as the willingness to engage in investments. The history of participatory development approaches dates back to the late 1970s, when a new research approach known as "Rapid Rural Appraisal" (RRA) gained popularity among decision-makers. RRAs were created to collect first-hand data from locals regarding their perceptions and living circumstances of their areas, based on close collaboration with local communities. The RRA methodologies were modified to fit to local situations, leading to the creation of the "Participatory Rural Appraisal" (PRA), which placed a greater emphasis on empowerment, behaviour modification, facilitation, long-term action, and local knowledge. The Participatory Learning and Action (PLA), which encompassed contemplation, learning, and the understanding of power and relationships, was used interchangeably with the PRA. Participatory approaches and having access to information are ways to achieve sustainable development in many domains. Valuable experiences from around the world have contributed to this richness of information and improved the body of knowledge on development, which can now be applied at all planning levels. The extent and nature of participation by diverse actors, on the other hand, may vary. Citizens' participation in society's governance is a topic of history in and of itself, and it is critical to any civilisation. However, the term "participation" can be interpreted in a variety of ways, and the level of involvement by different groups of actors can also differ.

In this study, the participatory and social identity theories were adopted to develop a framework incorporating tourism development. The theory hypothesises that humans are intellectual beings, thus utilising all available information to make a specific decision. It is believed that any behavior exercised by an individual is self-determined. The participatory theory relies on participation and specifies an approach that enables people to involve in issues that encompass them. It inspires them and focuses on basics interrelated to them (Freire, 1972). As part of the development

process in the participatory theory, local communities are allowed to partake in development initiatives without being subjugated. This method is noteworthy today because it acknowledges and grants societies and citizens the opportunity to become subordinates of their own development rather than being entities involved in development.

To investigate the factors constraining the participation of the LC in tourism development and the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises in Langkawi, a participatory approach and social identity were incorporated in the study. The cogency of employing the participatory approach is that it examines participation, experience and knowledge sharing, and utilises analytical tools, imagination and drama. It also utilises an open-ended creative learning process, recognises different perspectives, works in a practical task and has the capacity for reflection and self-assessment, and the development of shared understanding and jointly owned plans. Further to a thorough review of theories and empirical literature, a theoretical framework was established in this thesis to provide direction. This is highlighted in Figure 4.1.

Based on a comprehensive review of past studies, this study proposed a general theoretical framework which comprises the three main objectives of this study. To achieve the first objective, this study investigates the factors constraining the participation of the local community in tourism development in Langkawi, based on a well-known participatory framework.

To achieve the second objective, the study assesses the predominant factors influencing the willingness of the local community in Langkawi to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises.

To achieve the third objective, the study examined the perceived effect of social identity, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity, savings on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate on community's intention to engage in tourism development.

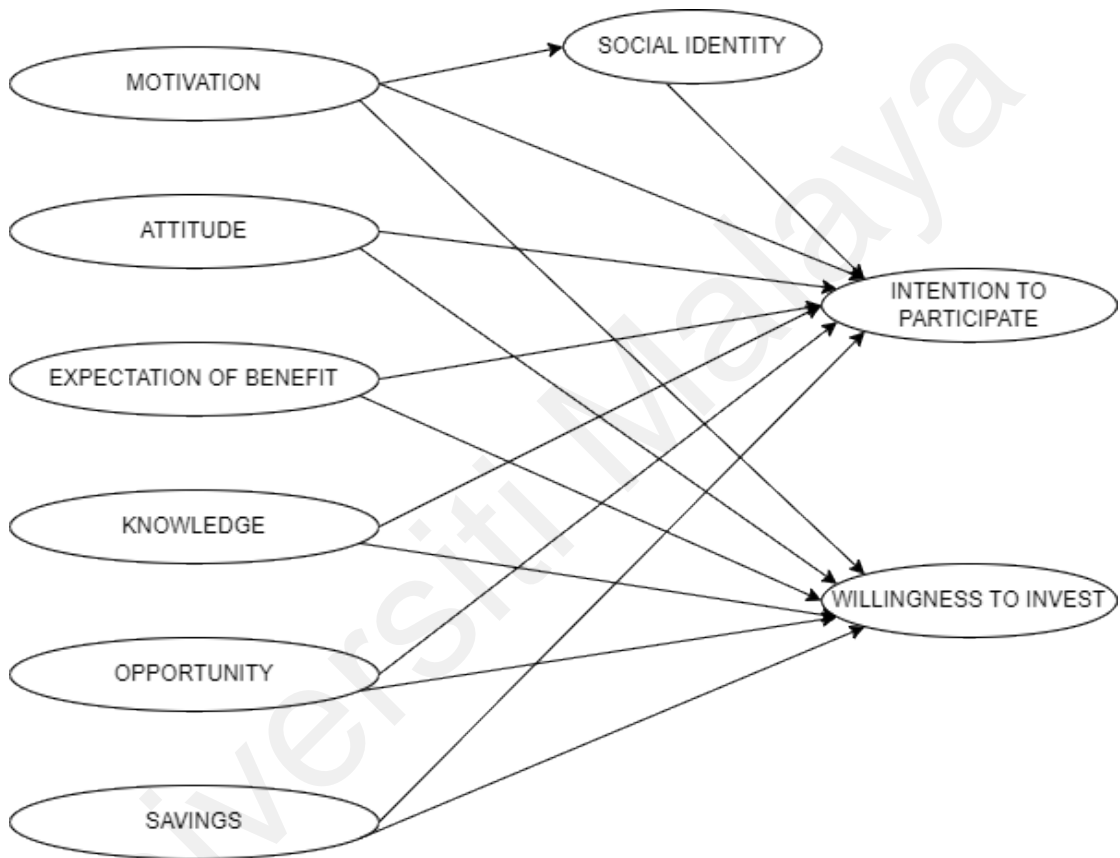


Figure 4.1: Conceptual framework

Table 4.1 : Latent Variables and Manifest Variables

Latent Variables	Manifest (or construct) Variables
Factors affecting the intention to participate	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Motivation• Knowledge• Attitude• Opportunity• Expectation of benefit (Rasoolimanesh et al., (2017); Zhang & Lei, (2016))
Factors affecting the willingness to invest	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Savings• Motivation• Knowledge• Attitude• Opportunity• Expectation of benefit (Kuznets, 1955; Sukoco & Wu, 2010)
Social Identity (Mediator)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• self-categorisation,• self-esteem• group affirmative (Sukoco & Wu, 2010)

Source: Author's Computation

4.3 Quantitative Method

Quantitative research techniques were preferred to enable the empirical assessment and generalisation of the research framework to the population at large. The close-ended survey questionnaire was used, as it allowed the questions to be administered to a large number of people. Quantitative research techniques are subsequently discussed in detail in the succeeding sections.

4.3.1 Quantitative research instrument development process

Although survey questionnaires were the main instrument for quantitative data collection, some limitations were experienced in its use. Questionnaires were naturally inclined to address the validity issues in every research method. This was necessary to ensure that the measures included an adequate and representative set of items exploring the concept (Cavana, et al., 2001). The validity of the content was accessed via two

methods: First was through a literature review, and the utilisation of theories relating to origin and size as confirmed in previous studies. Second was carried out by potential respondents. The figure below illustrates the series of processes to ensure the validity of the measures.

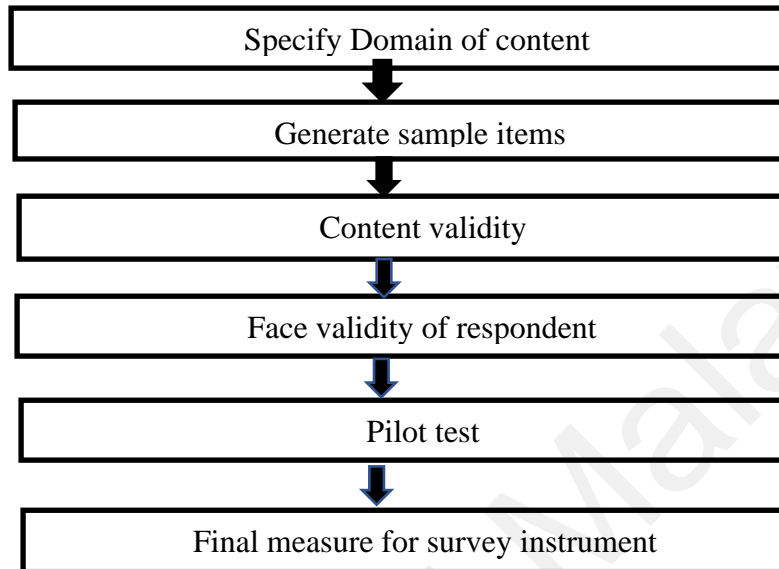


Figure 4.2 : Process for development of survey instrument (Adapted from Malhotra & Grover, 1998).

Content validity was conducted to ensure that the measures included an adequate and representative set of items that explored the concept (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). The validity of the content was accessible in two ways: First was through potential respondents, and second was through a panel of academics.

4.3.2 Measurement of demographic variables

The study considered demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, education, working experience, occupation, and the duration as an investor in Langkawi. These variables were adopted from the Hollingshead's (1975) four-factor index (FFI).

Table 4.2 : Table of variables

Variables	Adapted Source
Motivation	Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2017); Park & Yoon, (2009); Yoon & Uysal, (2005); Mayo & Tichaawa, (2017); Chetthamrongchai, (2017); Prabhakaran, et al., (2014); Michael, et al (2013); Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, (2016); Sukoco, & Wu, (2010); Bagozzi & Dholakia, (2006).
Attitude	Zhang & Lei, (2016); Fong & Lo, (2015); Sharma & Dyer, (2009); Andereck et al., (2005); Teye et al., (2002); Lai & Nepal, (2006); Vaske & Donnelly, (1999); Eshliki & Kaboudi, (2012).
Knowledge	Zhang & Lei, (2016); Fong & Lo, (2015); Robin, (2015); Moscardo, 2011; Zhang & Chancellor, (2013); Nunkoo, (2015); Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2016).
Opportunity	Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2017); Zhang & Lei, (2016); Muniz & O’Guinn, (2001); Aas et al., (2005); Gruen et al., (2007); Hung, et al., (2011).
Savings	Kuznets, 1955); Nyhus & Webley, (2001); Thung, et al., (2012); European Central Bank, (2017).
Expectation of benefit	Zhang & Lei, (2012); Koellner, et al., (2010); Honey, (2008); Page & Dowling, (2002); Page, et al., (2017).
Participation	Rasoolimanesh, et al., (2017), Mayo & Tichaawa, (2017), Prabhakaran, et al., (2014), Michael, et al., (2013), Pongponrat & Pongquan, (2007); Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016; Sukoco, & Wu, (2010).
Investment	Zhon, Chan, Song, et al., (2017); Nawaz & Hassan, (2016); Azlan, et al., (2016); Set, (2013) Mogapi, et al., (2019); Kimbu & Tichaawa, (2020); Cordelia, Onyinyechi, & Omodero, (2019); Lai, et al., (2017); Mosab & Tabash, (2017); Surugiu & Surugiu, (2015).
Social Identity	Tajfel & Turner, (1986); Ashforth & Mael, (1989); Sukoco & Wu, (2010); Hoggs & Abrams, (1988); Hogg, et al., (2004); Bagozzi & Dholakia, (2006); Stets & Burke, (2000).

Source: Author’s Computation.

4.4 Research Design

According to Creswell (2014), the research design is perceived as a worldview. The philosophy behind this worldview is the overall ideology regarding the phenomenon and nature of research embarked by a researcher in a research project. The overall view provides the direction of the research and creates a system of belief for the readers of the report. There are three standard approaches to establishing the worldview of a thesis: qualitative, quantitative and mixed-method, with each approach comprising different beliefs. The qualitative method is exploratory while the quantitative is related to the verification of theories. In other words, the former is concerned with theory generation while the latter is concerned with theory verification. The mixed method on the other hand involves the combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, as it helps to neutralise their weaknesses (Creswell, 2014). Hence, a quantitative method of research design is proposed in this study, while a cross-sectional research technique was employed. The dominant principle involves the use of the quantitative approach to provide a better understanding of the research.

This study examined the factors constraining the participation of the local community in tourism development in Langkawi, and assesses the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in the region. Also, the mediating effects of social identity was investigated by assessing the motivation to participate. Testing the study framework empirically necessitates careful planning and selection of relevant research methods. This study aims to define the relevant methodologies and tools used in its conduct by mentioning particular questions and answering them.

In a nutshell, the methodology adopted in the study is the quantitative research method, which was conducted through the administering of survey instruments (comprising the measurement instruments for all variables) to the target population. The

overall survey instrument had undergone content validity, pre-test and pilot test to purify and refine the survey instruments, and data were obtained from their distribution to respondents in Langkawi, Malaysia. The obtained data were coded and analysed using statistical analytical tools. The findings indicate the validity of the hypotheses, and the findings, support the problem statement and research questions. The entire research process is represented in Figure 4.3.

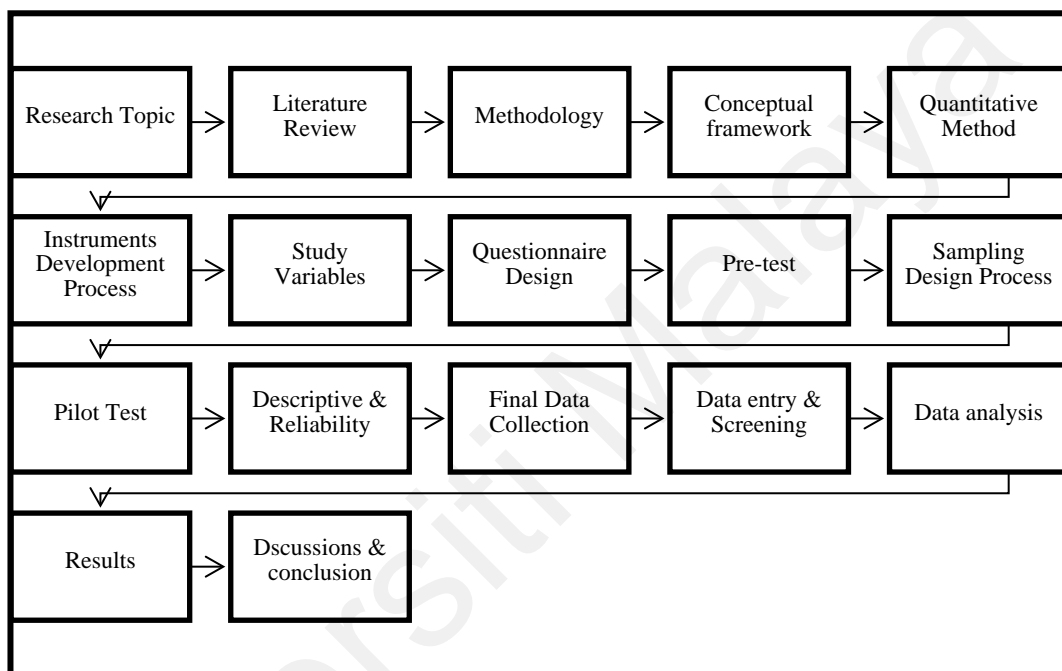


Figure 4.3 : Research Process

4.4.1 Choice of Research Design, Instrument and Justification

The preceding arguments on quantitative and qualitative research design and the synthesis of the approaches provide a better understanding of how and why a research design will be selected. The quantitative approach addresses the cause-effect analysis through the use of extensive data and deductive research criteria, and generalises the result back to the population to confirm the theory. The qualitative approach suggests the use of small data, focused group, exploration and an inductive criterion to detect the theory. The Mixed-Mode Method (MMM) school of thought suggests that no one (positivists or interpretivism) should claim superiority over the other, as the two

approaches were useful for the derivation of the cause effect results, and also ensuring that the research work was consistent and current (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Small, 2011). In this thesis, the research objectives are tailored to the quantitative approach, and follows the guidelines specified by Anon, (2017); Creswell, (2014) and Small, (2011) on selecting the positivists' approach of quantitative research design. Quantitative method is a scientific method and its grounds can be identified in positivist paradigm. This method focuses on fresh data collection in accordance to the problem from large population and analysis of the data but ignore an individual's emotions and feelings or environmental context. Similar to this have discussed that the quantitative strategy works on objective and measure it through the actions and opinions which helps researcher to describe the data rather than interpret the data. The supporters of this paradigm believe that true knowledge can be obtained through observation and experiment. So, positivists normally select scientific method to produce knowledge. Positivism is also called scientific method, empirical science, post positivism and quantitative research. In positivism reality remains stable and can be observed or described through an objective and there is a strong debate available on the issue of using positivist paradigm appropriate for social sciences or not.

However, this approach has some limitation. Positivist paradigm does not adequately address social and political issues. In views of this, authors like Fay, Kemmis and Wilkinson have arisen the importance of advocacy paradigm in their studies. These researchers believe that inquiry needs to be entangled with political and social issues. In accession of this research should contain the agenda of reform that ultimately address the issues of empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression, and alienation.

4.5 Research Flow Chart

The quantitative research design highlighting the research procedures undertaken in this thesis is presented as a flowchart in Figure 4.4.

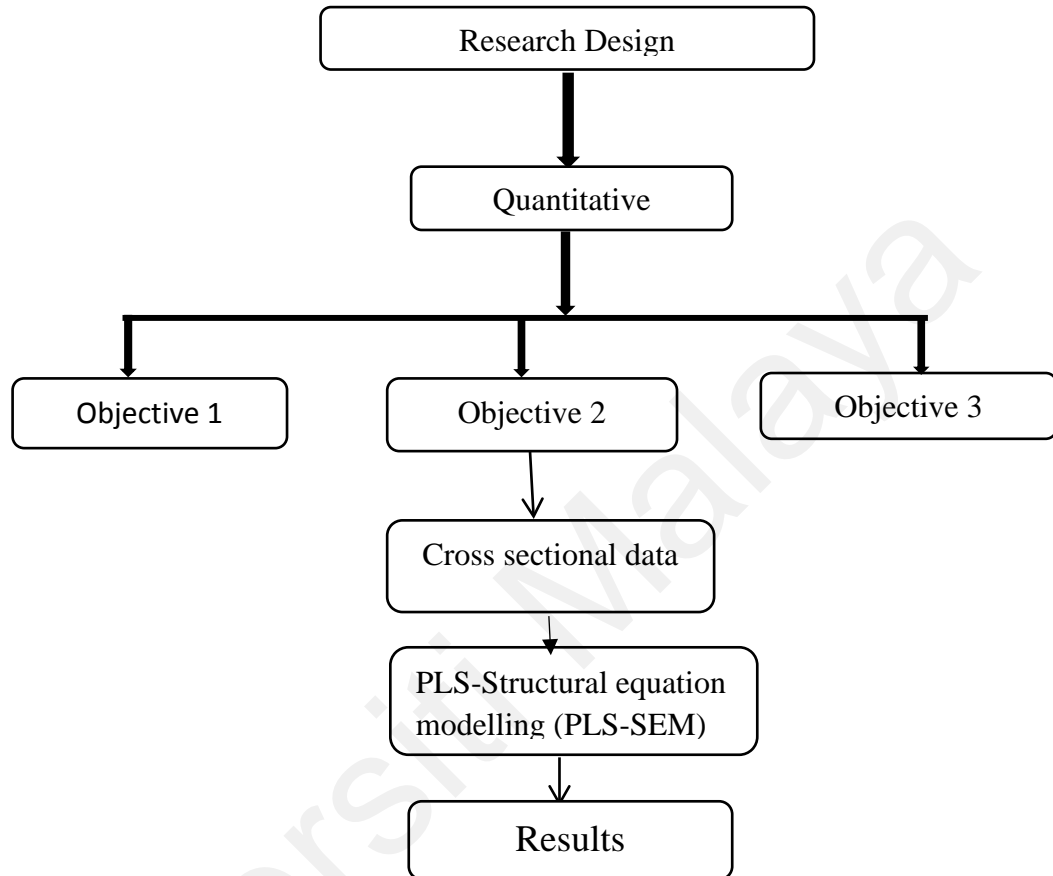


Figure 4.4 : Research Flowchart.

4.5.1 Research Data

Obtaining the research data is crucial. In this thesis, research data were first referred to, as it was a bundle of facts gathered from a known event with the objective of statistical analysis assumptions. Thereafter, the estimated parameters and desired results for policy formulation were produced. Second, in the distinction of the research data, the facts organised as data could be either primary or secondary. The primary data are usually obtained by the researcher while the secondary data are collected, organised and kept for

longer periods. Third, the secondary data obtained are either time-series or cross-sectional. This thesis utilises primary and cross-sectional data.

4.5.2 Cross-sectional Data

Cross-sectional data are widely employed in social science research and refers to data obtained through observation of phenomena such as data gathered from an individual, household, business enterprises, countries and regions without consideration for time variance and location (Biorn, 2013). Cross-sectional data deal with the micro-units of a society. However, some may be macro similar to those obtained across households over a specified period and can be collected with the use of self-administered questionnaires. Researchers may compose survey studies with the use of one or more questionnaires to measure the target variables.

Cross-sectional data may also be collected via interviews – one-to-one, panel and focus groups. In a one-to-one interview, a participant is questioned by just an interviewer, while in a panel interview, a participant is interviewed by a group of interviewers. In a focus group, on the other hand, a discussion leader or facilitator interviews a group of participants at the same time about their attitudes or ideas. Individuals, groups, organisations, countries, and other units of analysis can all provide data. Researchers generally employ cross-sectional data to make comparisons between subgroups owing to its efficiency in assessing the associations between two variables. These data are also useful in the examination of a research model that has been previously proposed on a theoretical basis (Biorn, 2013).

4.6 Study variables and measurement development

The independent variables in this study include attitude, knowledge, opportunity, savings, motivation and benefits expectancy, while the dependent variables include the intention

to participate and willingness to invest, with social identity being a mediating variable. Each of the variables is discussed below.

4.6.1 Attitudes

The term "attitude" refers to a person's behavioural views in relation to the positive or negative assessment of a certain behaviour (Moraru, et al., 2021; Zhang & Lei, 2016). The amount to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable opinion of a behaviour is referred to as the attitude toward the activity. Individual behaviour is predicted by attitude, which is a predictor of behavioural intention. In tourist literature, a strong link has been shown between attitude, participation intention, and subsequent behaviour (Moraru, et al., 2021; Lai & Nepal, 2006). As a result, determining the mechanism behind the aim of participation is helpful in improving residents' participation in tourism development. The views of the local community have been studied in depth in order to determine the level of support for tourism growth (Algassim, et al., 2021; Andereck, et al., 2005). When local communities see tourism as having a good influence, they appear to be enthusiastic supporters (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). Taking into account the local community's attitude toward tourist development is also a must for incorporating their participation (Page & Dowling, 2002). As a result, inhabitants' positive attitudes toward development, particularly those related to the characteristics and management principles of their surroundings, may inspire them to participate actively in tourism activities (Algassim, et al., 2021).

Academic research has been studying community attitudes toward tourism for over 40 years. Many academics use terms like "attitude" and "perception" to explain how local communities feel about tourism growth (Algassim, et al., 2021; Arghavan, et al., 2021; Moraru, et al., 2021; Lai & Nepal, 2006). The phrase 'attitude' was the most commonly used term in the theoretical and experimental literature, according to Ajzen &

Fishbein, (2000). Attitude research is significant because it aids in the comprehension of behaviour. This is due to the ease with which people can access their opinions on a specific thing and portray sentiments based on their previous reactions to that object (Maio, Haddock & Verplanken, 2018). Ap and Crompton (1998), in their study, revealed that for tourism to thrive in an area, support from the host community is required. For communities to be successful, they must exhibit a certain level of a positive attitude toward the tourism industry. Attitude has been defined in literature by different authors.

One of the earliest models concentrating on community attitudes on tourism was Doxey's Index of Irritation (1975). "Irridex," by Doxey, portrays the total effect of tourism development on people's attitudes toward tourism. The attitude of the host community changes as the tourism sector increases. Euphoria, indifference, annoyance, and antagonism are the four stages of residents' attitudes, according to Doxey (1975). Attitude is a concept in which a person's conscious process determines the real or possible activity of the individual counterpart of societal worth and activity in whatever form is perceived. The relationship between attitude, values, and behaviours is shown in this definition. Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) defined attitude as a person's discretion in responding to specific comments to a concept. Individual feelings can have a good or negative impact on responses. In other words, the object of attitudes can be physical or immaterial, living or non-living. It's a "summary appraisal of a cognitive, emotive, and behavioural component of an object" (Maio & Haddock, 2009). The Tourist Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) was established by Lankford et al. (1994) to produce a consistent survey of host community attitudes toward tourism development. The TIAS included a number of independent variables (such as length of residence, economic reliance on tourism, distance of tourism centre from respondent's home, resident involvement, birthplace, level of contact with tourists, demographic characteristics, perceived impacts on local outdoor reaction opportunities, rate of community growth, and so on) that had been shown

to influence residents' attitudes toward tourism development. It is imperative to comprehend the attitude of local communities towards tourism development, as it makes it easier to set up programs that would minimise the friction between tourists and local communities. Attitude provides an understanding of the perception of tour participants towards their adoption of responsive mechanisms, to help control the negative influences that could arise from tourism (Harun et al., 2018; Peters, et al., 2018; Meimand et al., 2017; Lo, et al., 2014; Fong et al., 2014; Hanafiah et al., 2013; Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012).

Over the past years, several studies have considered the attitude of communities toward tourism, and the impact of tourism on a community (Algassim, et al., 2021; Arghavan, et al., 2021; Moraru, et al., 2021; Andereck, & Vogt, 2000; Ap, 1992; Dyer, et al., 2007; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Wang & Pfister, 2008). However, the attitude of communities toward tourism has been a subject of research for over 40 years. Studies on attitude largely focus on the perception of tourism by communities and their influence on communities and the environment. As a general rule, the attitude of host communities toward tourism have been measured using several items containing a numerical scale of responses, often an agreement scale. The most common method of combining these questions into multi-item scales is confirmatory factor analysis, which is used to discover distinct domains (Algassim, et al., 2021; Arghavan, et al., 2021; Moraru, et al., 2021; Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Dyer et al., 2007). Despite the fact that the characteristics discovered in each study were significantly different, there are a few constants. All of the researchers found one or more positive impact(s) or benefits dimension(s), as well as one or more negative impact dimension(s). In the 1970s, Sharpley, (2014) and Sirakaya, et al. (2002) noted a considerable growth in theoretical and applied study on inhabitants' opinions. The study of community attitudes toward tourism began in developed countries, particularly the United States of America (Almeida, Balbuena, & Macias, 2015), as well as other countries with a strong tourism

industry, such as New Zealand, Canada, Australia, and the United Kingdom (Almeida, et al., 2015). Another study was discovered on community attitudes, and the results highlight a positive influence of attitude on participation in tourism development (Zhang & Lei, 2012). A study conducted by Moraru, et al., (2021) analysed the residents' perception regarding the tourism activity and on identifying the factors influencing their acceptance for the tourist activity, in Constanta (Romania). The results reveal that residents are highly in favour of tourism activity and support tourism expansion and further development. Most of the respondents considered that tourism contributed to the improvement of the city image and identified a fairly positive economic impact, while tourism was accountable for the increase in several negative phenomena.

However, the negative attitude of the local people toward tourism gained more attention in the 1970s, (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Lankford, 1994; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Vargas, et al., 2009), and numerous explanations were discovered. Negative community attitudes may be a hindrance to the development and sustainability of tourist destinations (Ap, 1992; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Butler, 1980; Diedrich & Garca, 2009; Harrill, 2004; Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002). The success of the tourism industry is dependent on the local attraction and hospitality of the host community (Ap, 1992; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Butler, 1980; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002). Local community hostility toward visitors could be a stumbling block to tourism growth, but a welcoming attitude could encourage tourism development, as tourists are hesitant to visit regions where they do not feel welcome (Arghavan, et al., 2021). Nothing matters more to tourists than how they are treated by host communities, they avoid regions where they are not fully accepted (Arghavan, et al., 2021). Understanding community sentiments may lead to measures that reduce the negative effects of tourism development while maximising its benefits (Prayag, et al., 2013; Stylidis, Biran & Szivas, 2014; Vargas, et al., 2011). Participation of local communities in the decision-making process during tourism planning and

development can also help to promote a more positive attitude toward tourism (Moraru, et al., 2021).

This thesis also established an understanding of the significance of attitude to behavior, and the failure of attitude to directly determine behavior, otherwise, attitude affects the behavior intention, which in turn constitutes our actions. In this study, the attitude object refers to the participation intention of the community and their willingness to invest in tourism development, which is evaluated through their perception. Effective identification of the perceived attitude of community members is an effective tool towards a better understanding of why and how the community recognises the need for participation and investments, and this attitude of the people will encourage tourist visits. In the middle of the rivalry among numerous places to attract tourists and visitors from all over the world, Malaysia is doing everything it can to gain a foothold in the market, as the country's federal government aspires to make Malaysia a tourist and stop-over destination for the area. It is envisaged that tourism will provide a new source of economic growth. In order to achieve this goal, the country must first develop its image and identity. Addressing the people's attitudes will go a long way towards the achievement of that aim. Because an awareness of communities' attitudes and how they are developed with relation to their participation and investments in tourist development is essential to decision-makers, attitudes are critical for effective and sustainable tourism development. The community is the most significant party, as they are the ones who are most affected by tourism growth, either positively or badly (Algassim, et al., 2021; Moraru, et al., 2021; Pembe, et al., 2015). An identification of the attitudes of local populations and the implementation of programs will help to minimise the resistance among tourists and residents (Moraru, et al., 2021; Pembe, et al., 2015). During a review of existing works of literature, studies analysing the attitudes of the local community on participation were discovered. A study conducted by Tosun, (2006) employed attitude in the valuation of

community participation in rural tourism and discovered that community participation was lacking in the conceptual framework in terms of rural tourism. Eshliki and Kaboudi (2012) study examined the relationship between the effects of tourism on local residents' life expectancy and the amount to which they were willing to participate in tourist quality improvement projects, and results revealed that tourism influenced their lifestyle and level of participation. Another study on the attitude of residents was discovered, and the findings suggested that attitude and landscape likability positively influenced their participation in tourism development. Attitudes regarding the likeability of landscapes not only has positive effects on residents' feelings for a place but also increases their willingness to participate in tourism management (Zhang & Lei, 2012). Algassim, et al., (2021) study discovered that residents' attitudes toward tourism development in general were positive with residents expecting to receive economic, social and environmental benefits. Residents were aware of potential positive and negative impacts of tourism development and appeared to balance these in developing their attitudes.

Moreover, several models and econometric instruments have been used to test different theories regarding the residents' attitudes. Maddox (1989) used the critical incident technique to study residents' satisfaction with local tourism. Davis et al. (1988) summarised and clustered the attitudes of residents regarding tourism development in Florida, while Perez and Nadal (2005) conducted a cluster analysis on the Balearic Islands. Perdue et al. (1990) developed a model, the resident attitudes toward tourism, to test the social exchange theory (SET). Boley et al. (2014) developed and used the resident empowerment through tourism scale (RETS) and in another study developed sub-scales of psychological, social and political empowerment (2014). Other authors composed relevant indexes to underpin the effects of tourism and to measure the level of acceptability and support of residents for tourism development in their community

(1993). Meimand et al. (2017) studied the socio-cultural impact of tourism, including religion. Vargas and Porras-Bueno (2011) included seasonality in their research construct.

4.6.2 Knowledge

Knowledge is a complex concept to define. Bergeron (2003) defined it as information that is organised, synthesised or summarised to enhance comprehension, awareness, or understanding. Similarly, Karlsen and Gottschalk (2004) defined knowledge as information combined with experience, context, interpretation, reflection, intuition and creativity. Likewise, Davenport and Prusak (1998) sees it as: “a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. Knowledge refers to a profound understanding of tourism management by the local community, their environs and manner of involvement (Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016; Zhang & Lei, 2016). The degree of knowledge a community possesses affects its capacity to contribute to the growth of tourism. The degree of community understanding of tourism, travel, and its effects is referred to as tourism knowledge (Saarinen, 2010). Tourism's performance is correlated with local knowledge and information. Locals that are informed about tourism development projects can lower the poverty level in their neighbourhood, claim Zapata, Hall, Lindo, and Vanderschaeghe (2011). This is true because people who are aware about tourism will understand its costs and advantages, which will inspire them to take part in tourist-related activities in their neighbourhood and so boost local economies (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005). Additionally, someone with extensive understanding of tourism may have an impact on how tourism develops in a town (Yang, 2012). Therefore, having a suitable level of tourism knowledge could assist local communities in becoming active players in tourist development and achieving sustainable rural tourism growth. Communities that are knowledgeable about tourism do

make sensible decisions to address a variety of obstacles to the growth of sustainable rural tourism (Moscardo, 2011). To actively participate in tourism and to have influence over its growth and practises, local communities must have a working understanding of or awareness of the industry. In turn, this might make it possible for the local communities to appreciate the advantages of tourism. Additionally, Reid, Mair, and George (2004) emphasised that a key component of tourist development is a community's awareness of tourism. Knowledgeable communities will establish management structures and a sense of ownership over tourism and resources, which will benefit a tourist destination (Zapata, Hall, Lindo, & Vanderschaeghe, 2011; Saarinen, 2010; Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007).

Several works of literature, mostly in rural areas, have cited a lack of awareness among local communities as a barrier to their participation (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016). Since community participation necessitates a convinced level of knowledge, community members must ensure to improve their skills to effectively participate (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016). According to Tosun and Timothy, knowledge is the only way to address the subject through public media to create awareness. Thus, educating and enlightening them on matters regarding tourism development will encourage them to participate and invest. According to Lankford et al. (1994), educational programmes, public forums, and workshops can be implemented at the local level to help communities better understand the tourism sector and its effects (p.135). Knowledge is an important resource for tourism development that must be accessed. Communities must become very familiar with the tourism industry to ensure its success and sustainability. Knowledge has a significant effect on the factors affecting the local community's participation and willingness to invest in the development of tourism. The level of knowledge in a community determines its ability to engage in tourism development. It was shown that community members with positive information were more enthusiastic about investing in and participating in the community tourism development. As participation among

community members requires a convinced level of knowledge, intentional efforts must be made to improve all skills to foster effective participation. Knowledge as an important factor motivates communities towards participation and achievement of their goals (Davis, Allen, & Cosenza, 1988; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Kathleen, et al., 2010). The level of knowledge possessed by the local community is relevant to their well-being (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Andereck, et al., 2007) and the development of tourism, to ensure sustainability (Deery, et al., 2012; Williams & Lawson, 2001).

There are several ways in which knowledge is categorised. For example, knowledge can be categorised into declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge is basically the 'knowing that' type of knowledge which relates to factual information, while procedural knowledge is the 'knowing how' type of knowledge which concerns the process underlying actions (Leach, Wall & Jackson, 2003). However, most literatures categorise knowledge into two major forms; tacit and explicit (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Nevertheless, there are others who identified a third form of knowledge known as implicit knowledge (Bergeron, 2003). Explicit knowledge, according to Bergeron (2003), is the kind that is readily comprehensible and codifiable and is presented in books, manuals, and other sorts of publications. On the other hand, tacit knowledge is ingrained at a subconscious level, making it challenging to articulate and codify. Between tacit and explicit knowledge is the kind of knowledge known as implicit knowledge. Similar to tacit knowledge, implicit knowledge also exists subconsciously but may be accessed using knowledge engineering (Bergeron, 2003). Despite this distinction, most discussions only address tacit and explicit knowledge since, in most cases, anything that can be codified is regarded as explicit knowledge.

4.6.3 Opportunity

Opportunity is defined by Behaire and Elliot-White (1999) within the context of tourism planning as circumstances which facilitate public involvement in the participation

process. opportunity occurs when planners adopt a participatory approach which provides a supportive framework for community participation. Participating in such development provides the local community with additional opportunities that empower people to mobilize their own capacities in managing their resources, making decisions, and controlling activities that affect their lives. Whether it is by owning a small business or by being employed as a worker in a tourism-related business, community involvement in sustainable tourism development helps local people receive additional economic benefits, and to monitor the process of tourism development, thus giving them the opportunity to control and reduce whatever negative consequences might be associated with such development (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2017; Tosun, 2000). Situations or circumstances, norms, political will, and channels that facilitate the participation of local communities in tourism operations are referred to as opportunities (Hung, et al., 2016; Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2017). These opportunities are a mirror image of how conducive present conditions are to community participation (Gruen, et al., 2007). Without open lines of contact between local residents and tourism development organisations, community participation will fail. As a result, the level of community participation is determined by local governmental structures and the extent to which they are permitted to expedite community participation (Hung, et al., 2016).

Political structures are centralised in most developing countries, resulting in the unenthusiasm of decision-makers and bureaucrats to segment power with the general public (Marzuki, et al., 2012). If the local community perceives the willingness of government officials to avail them with opportunities of being a part of decision-making processes, and also lend a listening ear to their voices, they will not hesitate to support and partake in tourism development (Tosun, 2000). And finally, participation cannot occur without an open channel of communication between the community and planners. This is further documented by Aas, Ladkin, and Fletcher (2005) who discuss the

importance of establishing early and straightforward channels of communication as a first step to community participation.

4.6.4 Savings

Owing to its macro effect, savings was introduced as a variable to explain the saving power of the local community. Conventionally, in a two-sector economy model, income (Y) equals consumption (C). However, not all income is expended on consumption; a fraction is saved (s) (where $Y = C + S$). Moreover, the ability of the local community to save a considerable proportion of its income would create a willingness to invest (I) in the tourism industry, as $S = I$ from a macro perspective (Kuznets, 1955). Every investment necessitates that investors set aside money from their earnings or borrow money from friends or banks (Salleh, et al., 2016).

Saving is defined as a fraction of income that is not spent on household consumption, according to macroeconomic theory (Attanasio, et al., 2000). It is believed that the saved proportion would granger cause economic growth. Another argument is that higher savings would result in higher growth. Since savings equals investment, an investment is an indicator that would result in a higher level of output. However, a measure of the saving indicator has been perceived from the macroeconomic and psychological approaches (Attanasio, et al, 2000). In macroeconomics, Levine and Renelt, (1992) discovered a robust correlation between the GDP and the share of investment of the GDP. However, the focus will be on the psychological approaches to the measurement of savings, as the current study focuses on perception which is centered on the “subjective notions” of the local community.

From a psychological approach, saving behavior is perceived as a cultural diversity behavior and business enterprise (Fuchs-Schundeln, et al., 2017). Most papers on culture focus on the “female labor supply and male employment” (Fuchs-Schundeln,

et al., 2017). Using socio-economic and demographic variables to determine the cultural behavior toward savings, the variable was assessed. Rather than supporting the Keynes theory on savings that a higher income increases savings, Katona (1965) argued that savings are not only stimulated by income but also influenced by personal habits which can be easily categorised into economic stimuli and “precipitating circumstances” (Fuchs-Schundeln, et al., 2017 p. 1), with economic stimuli being measured by household wealth and income. However, the other saving stimuli, “precipitating circumstances”, is measured by expectations, personality, motives and attitudes which are psychological variables.

Furthermore, Nyhus and Webley, (2001) supported the habits proposed by Katona, (1965) and re-categorised them into four distinct variables: Household liquid savings (HLS), investment savings, insurance savings, and negative savings, which is debt. The HLS is the money held in banks’ current and savings account, while investment savings arise from the purchase of bonds and shares (from companies and cooperative societies). Mutual funds arise from the payments made to stock funds, money market funds, and income funds (Morgan, 2018). The insurance saving variable supports the argument by Katona, (1965) that pension is a means of saving. However, Katona argued that the propensity to indulge in insurance savings will drop due to the perception of a household whose future income is known. Nevertheless, events have overtaken the assumption of cuts in pension amounts. Currently, in most developing countries particularly Malaysia, a pension system encouraging workers to indulge in compulsory insurance savings has been introduced. Lastly, Guin, (2017) developed three proxy indicators to measure savings. The first proxy was the ability of households to engage in savings, the second proxy employed a household income higher than expenditure, and the last was whether or not the household had retirement savings. All three proxies are measurable indicators that could support this study.

Therefore, since the study is directly focused on the local community, interest is focused on household personality as opposed to the Keynesian approach to savings. The households are stimulated by the opportunities available to increase their saving capacity, and these include liquid savings, investment savings, insurance savings, and transfer payments. The transfer payment comprises grants from the government and unemployed youths (Romer, 2016). Savings are concentrated in the high-ranking group, according to Kuznets' (1955) inverted U-shaped curve. As a result, investment in the tourism industry is proportionate to a household's willingness to save money. The ability of a home to save from its generated income is explained by the local community's incurred spending. According to Kuznets (1955), people in the lowest quintile of the income distribution save very little. Because savings = investment, and income represents the amount of savings a household can make at a certain income level, the local community's willingness to invest in tourism is determined by its ability to save. This aspect introduced measures to indulging in savings and connotes a new contribution to the existing knowledge on tourism.

4.6.5 Expectation of Benefits

Previous studies on tourism development have explained the participation of the local community, resulting in participation being often justified by the expected benefits. Zhang and Lei, (2012) argued that financial benefits, minimisation of the unconstructive influences of tourism, and empowerment of the local community enhance the various aspects of local community participation and their willingness to invest in the tourism industry. Page, et al. (2017) also observed that well-being and public health constitute the benefits derived from the participation in tourism development.

Furthermore, Maumbe, and Arbogast, (2015) argued that satisfaction was required by the tourist, as the re-visitation to a destination was as a result of the benefits derived

during the initial visit. The ability to recognise a tourist's requirements and desires is critical to the tourism industry's success. The quality of tourist destinations' products and services has been highlighted as a factor that contributes to high levels of satisfaction. The pleasure of a tourist influences his or her future destination choice (Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003) and behaviour (Bigné, et al., 2001; Lee, et al., 2007). To assure their happiness, an evaluation of visitors' expectations in achieving standard levels of service quality is required. The local community must face the problems of gaining a competitive advantage in the face of quick information dissemination and the economic impact of tourists. These economic impacts trigger their commitment to participate and invest in the tourism industry. Working towards the satisfaction of tourists is considered to be correlated with community perceived tourism benefits. Satisfaction is one of the most important factors in the tourism industry's ability to materialise the relationship between tourists and touristic destinations, and achieving this satisfaction will depend on their recommendation and/or return to the location (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007), which will result in more income and other benefits for the host community. The evaluation of tourist satisfaction must take into account a variety of factors. Tourists may have diverse reasons for visiting a certain location, resulting in varying degrees of satisfaction and standards (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The stronger the satisfaction obtained from the outcomes and expectations, the greater the similarity between them (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). A positive experience correlates with the growing demands for tourism, while a negative experience results in a decline.

Tourism is seasonal, and as a result, guests anticipate greater value for money, additional services, and more cultural and entertainment content. In another development, the expectation of benefits is categorised into seven dimensions: (1) environmental (2) economic (3) social and cultural (4) taxes (5) community attitudes (6) crowding and congestion, and (7) services (Kreag, 2001). According to Kreag, (2001), the benefits have

both positive and negative effects. Although communities differ in characteristics, it was argued that to minimise negative effects, community leaders are saddled with the responsibility of working out strategies in the tourism plan through effective participation. As an instance, Wong, (2004) presented three negative environmental impacts: pressure on natural resources, pollution and biodiversity loss (Wong, 2004). In summary, the expected benefits of tourism development comprise multiple positive and negative dimensions. As such, these expected benefits affect the participation of the local community and their willingness to invest in tourism development.

Again, empowering local communities to organise and carry out activities in their communities is an excellent method of remitting public benefits (Countryside Commission, 1992:7). Local communities want economic gains and consult with local authorities when their anticipation of benefit rises. Local empowerment measures that reflect the concerns and wants of locals should be implemented in this regard, boosting community connection and integrating residents in tourist decision-making processes to create favourable support for the business (Boley & Strzelecka, 2016; Nicholas, et al., 2009; Nunkoo & So, 2015).

4.6.6 Motivation

Motivation is the power that guides entities on ways to achieve their set targets (Edwards, 2016). According to the study by Rasoolimanesh and Jaafar, (2016) and Jepson, et al. (2014), motivation is the interest of the local community to participate in community events with others. Motivation can be taken as the driving force behind a person's decision-making process as it can affect the intensity and direction of behaviour (Bettman, 1979). It is concerned with the willingness and interest of the local community to involve in tourism development activities (Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016). It is an engine that drives individuals towards the achievement of their

goals. Motivation energises communities and drives their interest in community activities (Dyer et al., 2007; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Sukoco & Wu, 2010).

However, in some previous studies, motivation is observed from the tourist's perspective with no consideration for the local community. Park and Yoon, (2009) classified the motivating factors responsible for rural tourism in Korea. The result revealed education and excitement, passive tourism and family bonding, and a desire to 'want it all' as motivating factors for tourists. Push factors have also been conceptualised as motivational factors or needs that arise as a result of disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system (Kim, et al., 2003). Yoon and Uysal, (2005) argued that travel motivation arises from these "push" and "pull" forces (P.46). While push factors refer to the craving of tourists (emotions), pull factors are the attributes of the tourist destinations, that is, the situation of the destinations (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Chetthamrongchai, 2017). Goossens, (2000) identified the push factor as the outcome of people's emotional demands, and strongly feels that it is more tied to internal or emotional components. This term is agreed upon by Ibrahim et al. (2013). Poverty, a lack of jobs, a loss of community control, unemployment, and environmental degradation are five main factors influencing community participation in the tourism business, according to Jamieson (2011). Overall, push and pull considerations have been described as pertaining to two distinct judgments made at two distinct times, one focusing on whether or not to go, and the other on where to go (Klenosky, 2002).

In the context of tourism management, motivation affects the perceptions and development of a community. Focusing on the community's perceptions of tourism's good encourages them to participate in tourism activities and support tourism development, whereas focusing on the community's perceptions of tourism's negative consequences diminishes their support for tourism development (Jaafar, et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh, et

al., 2017). The interests and perceptions of local communities on the impacts of tourist development determine community engagement in tourism development procedures (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016).

4.7 Questionnaire Design

A questionnaire is a structured technique for obtaining data and it comprises a series of questions (Malhotra, et al., 2004). The design of a good questionnaire is key to obtaining good results of an investigation. Cavana, et al. (2001) in their work, highlighted three important areas to focus on in the design of a questionnaire: (a) the wordings of the questions, (b) a plan of how the variables will be classified on the scale and coded after responses are received (c) the overall appearance of the questionnaire.

A questionnaire is used as the primary data collection tool in this study, with a total of 70 structured questions. The survey was broken down into three sections: 1, 2, and 3. Part 1 looked into the barriers to local community participation in tourist development in Langkawi, as well as the main factors influencing their willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in the tourism development of Langkawi. Part 2 discusses the tourism business in general, while Part 3 delves into the demographics of the respondents. Each section focuses on one of the research goals. A 5-point Likert scale was used to assess the constructs. 5-point Likert was adopted because of its declarative statements and organised continuum of response categories ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". It is also often used by researchers since it contains a balanced amount of positive and negative response alternatives and are mostly used by researchers. All of the factors that were measured were adapted from previous research. To verify that the questions in the questionnaire were clear, the entire questionnaire instrument was pre-tested. This was done and completed in order to ensure the overall questionnaire instrument's content

validity. Based on input from the pre-test, the overall instrument was finalised, and the data gathering process began.

4.8 Pre-test of the measurement items

4.8.1 Validity of the Research Instrument

In scientific research where the parameters of the population estimators must be unbiased, the researcher is required to carry out a pre-test of the instrument. The conducted pre-test in this study contains the face, and content validity assessments which was drawn to assess the validity of the research instruments for the questionnaire. Each item was assessed under the following criteria: First, the facial outlook of the instruments will be considered. Second, the content will be fitted to the study objectives. Third, the grammatical perspective of each of the items of the instrument. Hence, the assessor of the instruments was selected from experts in the tourism development and English language field. The outcome of the validity test was pasted in the thesis, and thereafter, the study will proceed to validate the instruments using factor analysis with the aid of a Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS).

4.8.2 Assessment of content validity by academician

For the assessment of the content validity, a board comprising five senior academics from related backgrounds was formed. These academics were selected based on their expertise in the research area, and the construct definitions, names and measurements were presented to them for evaluation and judgment. The academicians were requested to provide judgement on a scale of (1) 'very weak estimate' to (4) 'very strong estimate' and provide comments where need be. From their additional comments, some items were rewritten to ensure perfection. Results of the experts are presented in Table 4.3.

4.8.3 Assessment of face validity by potential respondents

Further to the evaluation of the content validity of all the constructs, the face validity of the pre-test of all the measurement items among the respondents was conducted. The first pre-test was conducted, with potential respondents from the study area consisting of 10 people from Langkawi Island. To detect problems in the design of the questionnaire, review the ambiguity of the questions and determine the level of respondents' understanding of the content (face validity), they were assessed on a scale of (1) 'very difficult' to (4) 'very easy' to demonstrate their understanding of all questions and reveal the degree of ease or difficulty experienced in answering each question in the questionnaire. After the completion of the interview, their responses were analysed to determine if the provided comments and feedback could be used to improve the clarity of the questionnaire, and the required changes to be made to the same items. All pre-test results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 : Results of the Pre-test by Experts and Potential Respondents

Contracts	*Experts (Content Validity)	**Potential Respondents (Ease of readability)
Intention to participate	4	3
Willingness to invest	3	4
Attitude	3	3
Motivation	3	3
Opportunity	3	3
Savings	3	4
Knowledge	3	4
Expectation of benefit	3	4

Source: Author's Computation

*(1) very weak estimate to (4) very strong estimate

** (1) very difficult (4) Very Easy

4.9 Sampling design process

The design of the sampling process employed in this study follows the five steps forwarded by Malhotra, (2008), as shown in Figure 4.5.

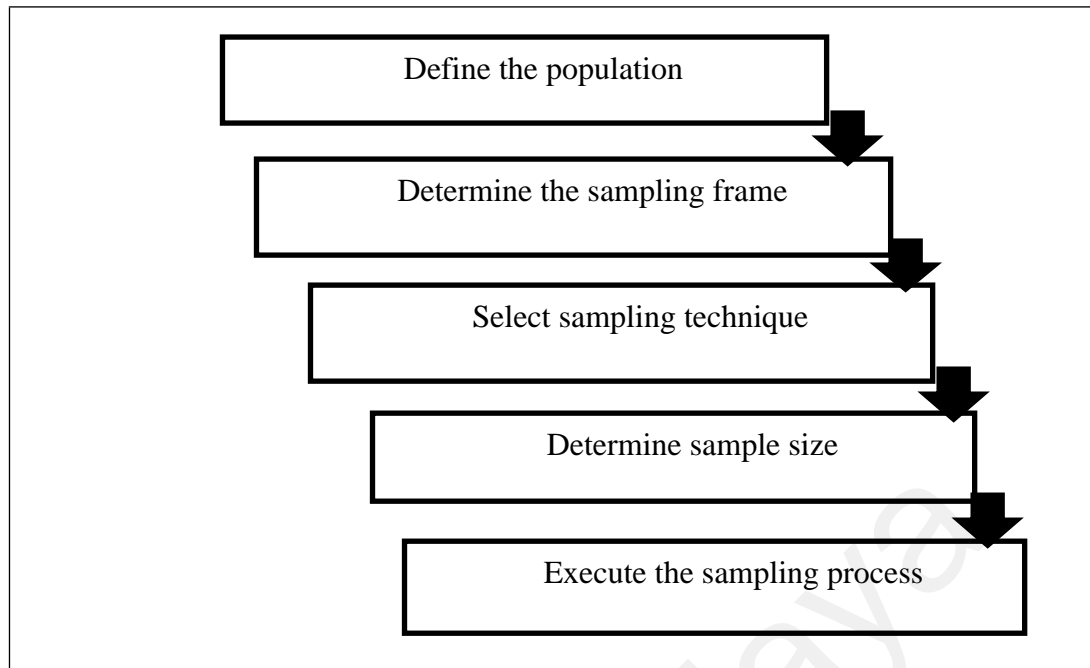


Figure 4.5 : Sampling Design Process.

4.9.1 Study area

Langkawi Island is the study focus area. Because of the vast natural resources and potentials that may be exploited, Langkawi Island, located in the northwestern portion of Peninsular Malaysia, has been identified as one of the country's main sites for tourism development. The island is recognised for its warm weather, clean beaches, coral reefs, abundant marine life, freshwater lakes, karst terrain, and lush rainforests, making it a popular vacation spot for both locals and visitors. Langkawi Island is the largest of the 104 islands that make up the Andaman Sea archipelago. It's about 51 kilometres from the mainland coast of northwestern Peninsular Malaysia, between latitudes 6°10'N-6°30'N and longitudes 99°35'E-100°E. The island is part of the state of Kedah and covers a total land area of 47,848 square kilometres. The island is divided into six districts: Kuah, Padang Matsirat, Ayer Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka, and Kedawang, with the Raya Mountain, at 881 metres above sea level, serving as the highest point. Kuah, the island's major town, is home to the island's governmental and commercial centres. The Kuah Jetty and the Langkawi international airport serve as the island's primary entry points. The circular

road network, in addition to connecting the principal settlements, meets the physical mobility needs of both private and public transit.

Prior to the advent of tourism on the island, Langkawi was one of Kedah's least developed districts, with the bulk of the population engaged in fishing and agricultural industries like rubber tapping, rice growing, and gardening. Due to lack of work, the incidence of poverty and high out-migration rates among residents became common (Kayat, 2002). The local economy evolved into tourism in the mid-1980s, and many people participated. Locals saw tourism as a way to get away from suffering at the time (Kayat, 2002), which resulted in a significant drop in agriculture and fisheries (Langkawi district council, 1992).

The tourism industry has since then, accelerated Langkawi's economic growth by creating jobs and influencing foreign exchange operations, resulting in a population increase from 24,266 in 1970 to 155,262 in 2010. (Langkawi development authority, 1999). Land use has changed dramatically as a result of tourism. Tourism and urban growth, according to Samat (2010), played a significant effect in changing the land use pattern on the island. Langkawi Island's built-up urban area grew from 133,38 halter in 1974 to 3,137.2 halter in 2005, representing a 23-fold increase. Furthermore, certain agricultural lands have been destroyed and reclaimed to make space for urban expansion, particularly in Kuah. In 2012, 25.03 million foreign tourists (0.97 percent) visited Malaysia (Tourism Malaysia, 2013), with the majority of them visiting Langkawi Island (Langkawi development authority, 2013c). Langkawi Island has seen a remarkable shift from an ideal tropical resort inhabited by farmers and fishermen to a tourist island. On the island, changes in government policies, social, economic, and physical factors have all been documented.

According to the tourism area life cycle (TALC) concept, tourism progresses through six stages. Accelerated growth rates represent the model's exploration, involvement, and development stages, while a gradual fall in growth rates characterises the consolidation stage. Visitor arrivals, on the other hand, are at an all-time high during the stagnation stage. The cycle concludes with a post-stagnation phase, which includes a set of five choices that a destination can choose from. Langkawi Island's tourism life cycle has gone through four stages of development and is now in the consolidation stage. The expansion of the island's tourism demonstrates the multiple qualities identified by Butler's model for each stage. However, from one stage to the next, the government remains a major actor and accelerator for tourism expansion on the island. Din (1992) investigated the nature of local entrepreneurs' involvement in the tourism business in the Langkawi region from pre-colonial times (before 1786) to the early 1990s. Sirat, et al. (1993) looked at the evolution of tourism on the island between 1986 and 1993 and concluded that Langkawi was in a state of stasis at the time. Butler's (1980) tourism area life cycle model was used by Hazmi, et al. (2012) to study the lodging development in Langkawi. The study found that the island's lodging evolution follows the model and measures up to the consolidation stage. Hazmi et al. (2012), on the other hand, found a collision in the stages of tourist growth on Langkawi Island, as well as a variation in the unit of analysis used. The purpose of this thesis is to evaluate if the local community is willing to invest in and fully participate in tourism development at this level, as Langkawi is in the fourth stage of growth.

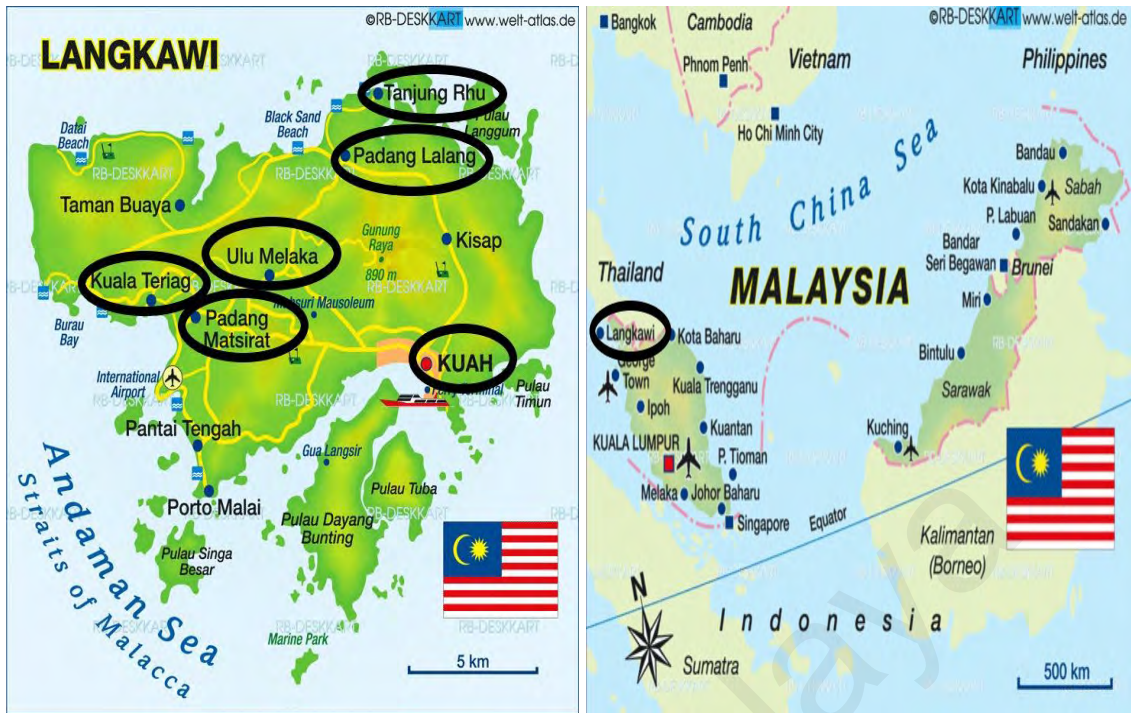


Figure 4.6 : Map of the study area.

Sources: Welt-Atlas.de, 2020.

International tourist arrivals and receipts, 1990 to 2014

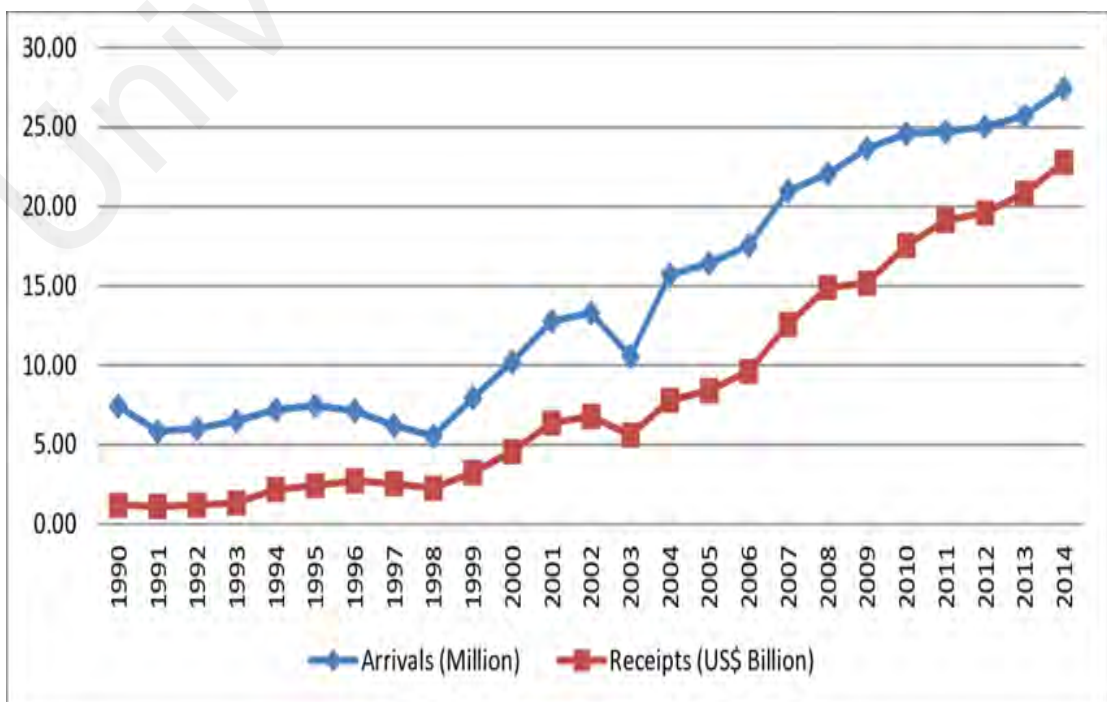


Figure 4.7 : International Tourist arrivals and Receipts, 1990 -2014

Source: Fateh & Khaled, 2015.

4.9.2 Population of the Study

Conceptually, population refers to the entire group of people, events, or things of interest that a researcher is willing to investigate (Goddard & Melville, 2004). In this study, population refers to the full group of people, events, or things of interest that a researcher is willing to investigate (Sekaran, 2003). The target population in this research is the local communities of Langkawi. Firstly, the total population of Langkawi is 94,777. Secondly, under Malaysian law, the study's investigative population comprises the age group of eighteen (18) and above, as education at all levels and sexes (male and female)—without a disability—are considered as members of the population. Thirdly, all forms of occupations – public and private – were considered (see Hollingshead, 1975 four-factor index (FFI) methodology). Public jobs were included, as the secular working population could save for future investment in tourism. Fourthly, the Langkawi tourism destination in Malaysia comprises six (6) districts. Hence, all members of the rural and urban regions of the six districts were included in the study population to provide an understanding of their participation level and willingness to invest in tourism development. The justification of having the population in the current study emerges from the research focus, such that people with different occupations, educational backgrounds, gender and marital status will be involved in the assessment of the participation and investment in Langkawi's tourism development. This assertion satisfies Hollingshead's (1975) FFI in social research. The target population comprises residents in Langkawi, aged 18 or above. Figure 4.9 represents the study area.



Figure 4.8 : Map of Langkawi Island.

Sources: Welt-Atlas.de, 2020.

4.9.3 Determination of Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is a representation of the target population's elements. (Malhotra, 2004). A self-administered survey was conducted and the structured questionnaire was self-administered to indigenes of the Langkawi local community. However, in doing so, criteria were set for the selection of the respondents by the researchers, which were required to be conformed to. Thus, the sampling frame in this study contains six districts: Kuah, Padang Matsirat, Ayer Hangat, Bohor, Ulu Melaka, and Kedawang; which were all considered in the sampling frame. The respondents were selected from a sampling frame comprising Langkawi indigenes residing in Langkawi. The respondents who partook in the study were indigenes aged 18 years and above.

4.9.4 Sampling Techniques

Since the required sample comprising 382 respondents came from all the six (6) districts of Langkawi, a scientific method was employed in the selection of the required sample. This method consists of either probabilistic or non-probabilistic random sampling (Alvi, 2016), and to achieve an unbiased estimation, the derivation of a population parameter that encompasses all members belonging to the population requires a scientific sampling process. Scientifically, sampling is defined as the process of selecting units (e.g., people, organisations) from a population of interest to provide a fairly generalised result that is characteristic of the target population (Trochim, 2002, p. 19). Since heterogeneous features were identified in the Langkawi population, the required sampling method was stratified sampling. In stratified sampling “every element of the population does not match all the characteristics of the predefined criteria”. In other words, the elements of the population are heterogeneous, and as a result, the study selected the stratified random sampling technique to account for the heterogeneity of the population. The stratified method was achieved as follows: The Langkawi population was divided into groups and subgroups, such that the subgroup became a homogenous group termed the “strata”. Secondly, the subgroup population in each stratum was treated as a new and separate population. In this study, the subgroup comprised food, entertainment or attractions, accommodation, transportation, tourist guide or activity provider, and communication.

Finally, a non-probabilistic sampling (NPS) technique was applied during the administration of the instrument. Other several methods under the NPS exist – quota sampling, convenience sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling (Alvi, 2016). Although all the methods were scientific and eligible for selection, the convenience sampling technique was selected owing to the reluctance of respondents in filling the questionnaire forms. Convenience sampling is defined as “the researching

subjects of the population that are easily accessible to the researcher” (Etikan, et al., 2016). In other words, easy accessibility, availability at a given time and geographical proximity are the characteristics of convenience sampling, also regarded as accidental sampling. As an instance, the inconvenience of participant A prompts the researcher to seek the attention of participant B and request their feedback on the most convenient item in the questionnaire. It relies on data collection from respondents who are conveniently available to participate in the study at the point of data collection. Finally, the sample frame for each of the subgroups is unknown, requiring the usage of accidental sampling to obtain accurate responses.

4.9.5 Determination of Sample Size

In the implementation of PLS-SEM, sample size adequacy remains a serious challenge. According to Hoe's (2008) study, a sample size of 200 provides adequate statistical strength for data analysis. According to Hair, et al. (2010), sample size is critical in obtaining steady and significant approximations, as well as explanations of outcomes or significant results. While no particular sample size requirements were specified, Hair et al. (2010) recommended that the lowest proposed ratio be five observations per parameter. However, if the sample size is too high (over 400), the SEM statistical analysis may become too sensitive, resulting in a poor fit in the evaluation of the goodness-of-fit (Hair, et. al., 2010).

Depending on the scientific sample stated in the sample determination table, the entire population might be used in some researches (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). As specified by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a population size of ten (10) would stipulate a total sample of ten (10). However, in a larger population, a considerable sample that is scientifically determined would be sufficient. Hence, a sample is a subset of the population. (Sekaran, 2003). Appropriate sample size is crucial to generalise the result to

the population (Hair et al., 2007). Considering that all six districts are members of the 94,777 population of Langkawi, a total of 382 was selected as a sample from the sample determination Table (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

4.9.6 Data collection

According to Kothari, (2004), data collection is defined as the method employed by a researcher in performing research operations, or the methods utilised by a researcher to collect data. In conducting this research thesis, the researcher employed a quantitative method of analysis. A self-administered survey technique was utilised, the questionnaire was delivered face to face, with the purpose of data collection being explained to the respondents. Data collection was done to achieve a high response rate and detect the problems encountered by the respondents in understanding the survey questions. It also helps to reduce the number of incomplete questionnaires. The data collection technique and period are presented in figure 4.10.

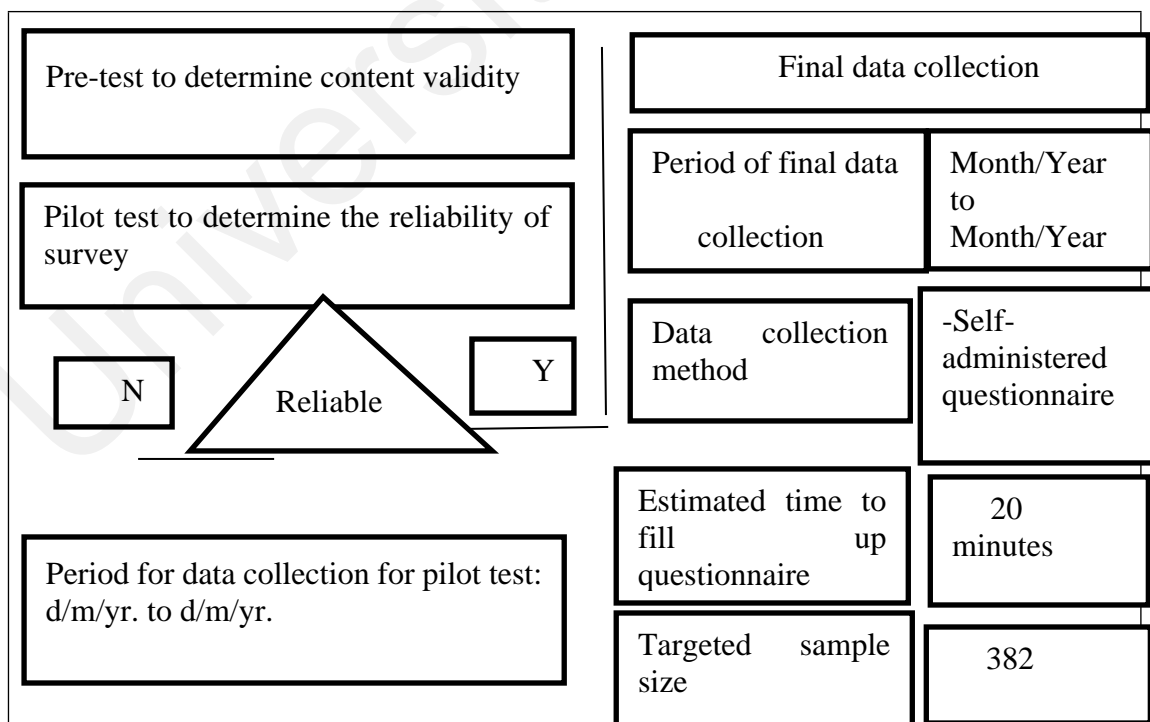


Figure 4.9 : Data collection Technique and Period.

4.10 Pilot Test and Results

Because the questionnaire was created expressly for this study, a pilot test of the questionnaire development process was undertaken to improve the clarity, readability, and comprehension of the measurement items (i.e., content validity of the scale) in the questionnaire. Hair, et al. (2010) claimed that “some type of pre-test is required to be performed when measures are either developed for a study or taken from various sources and that the pre-test should use respondents similar to those from the population to be studied, to effectively screen items for appropriateness”. The pilot test has two basic goals: (1) to analyse the content validity of the questionnaire, such as the flow of questions, ambiguity of terminology, and ease of use; and (2) to assess the clarity of scales, survey length, and time required to complete the questionnaire (Malhotra, et al., 2002). According to Malhotra et al. (2002), the sample size for a pilot test should be between 15 and 30 people. In this study, 20 participants evaluated the questionnaire for language and comprehension, as well as content validity, in light of Schall's assertion (2003). Respondents were requested to provide feedback on any assessed items that they felt were unclear or difficult to respond. The survey instrument was verified by three academic doctors for content validity. There were also comments and ideas for enhancing the structure and language of the questions. To ensure that an instrument measures what it claims to measure, content validity is essential. Expert opinions, according to Kline and Rosenberg (2010), are critical because they provide a foundation for determining content validity. The survey responses were collated, and reliability analysis testing was carried out.

What is the purpose of a pilot test? A pilot test was carried out to ensure that everyone in the sample had the same understanding of the questions. It aids in determining which questions make respondents uncomfortable and determining the survey's real-time duration. Furthermore, the pilot survey identifies potential implementation issues and

provides an opportunity to measure the response of a target group to a programme. As a result, it's ideal to pick a pilot group that's demographically similar to the program's intended audience. The demographic profile and the reliability of the measured instruments in the pilot research are discussed below.

4.10.1 Demographic profile of the respondents

The result of the demographic profile of the study respondents for the pilot test is presented in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: Demographic Variable of the Respondents (N=30)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	12	40
Female	18	60
<i>Age</i>		
18-30 years	7	23
31-45 years	8	27
46-60 years	10	33
Above 60 years	5	17
<i>Education</i>		
No formal education	4	13
Primary	11	37
Secondary school	13	44
College/Diploma	1	3
University	1	3
<i>Income (Monthly average income)</i>		
RM 1000 and less than	7	24
RM 1001-RM 2000	10	33
RM 2001- RM3000	4	13
RM 3001-RM 4000	6	20
RM 4001-RM5000	2	7
RM 5000 and above	1	3

Source: Author's computation.

4.10.2 The Reliability of the Measurements

The results of the reliability analysis show the overall survey instrument's reliability as well as consistency in the instrument's measurement. The Cronbach's Alpha

value (α) for all variables in the study was greater than 0.70, and the results of the reliability analysis are summarised in Table 4.5.

Table 4.4 : Reliability Analysis

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Number of Items
Intention to Participate	0.864	5
Willingness to Invest	0.823	6
Knowledge	0.857	6
Attitude	0.858	6
Motivation	0.823	5
Opportunity	0.821	5
Expectation of benefit	0.883	5
Savings	0.823	5

Source: Author's computation

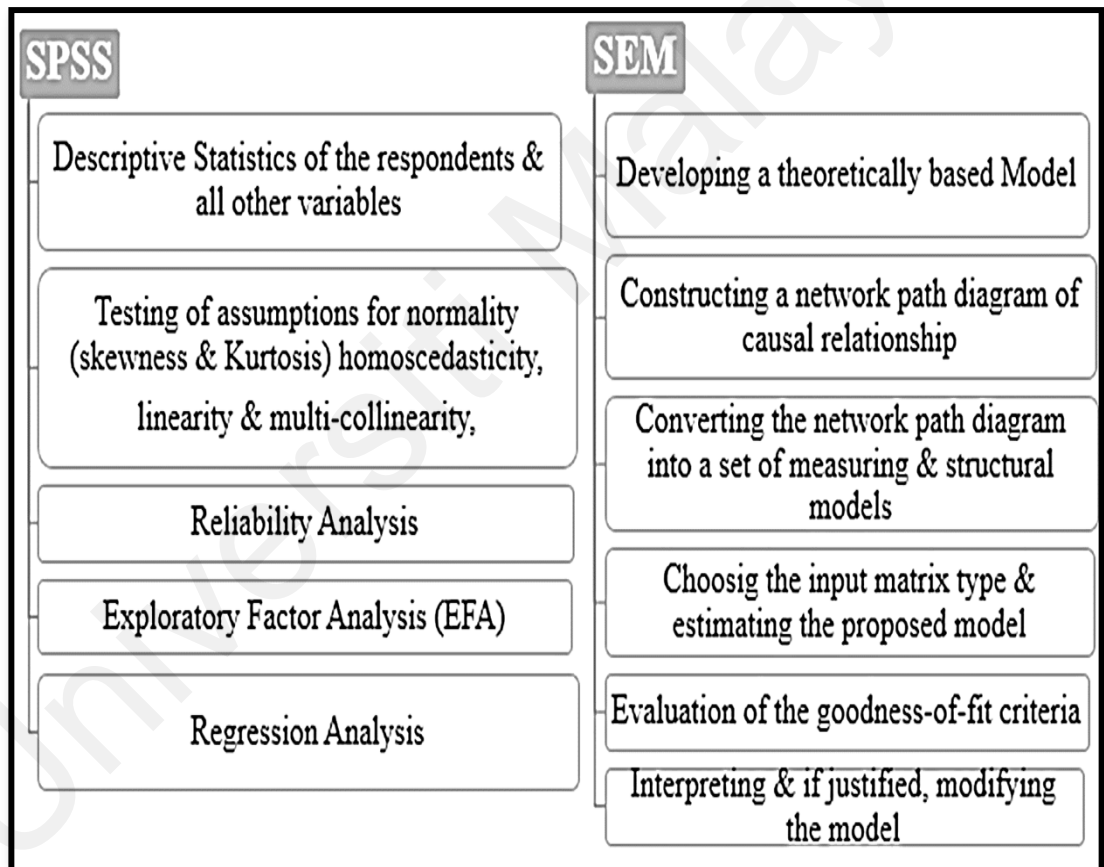
As observed in Table 4.10, the Cronbach's alpha values for all the variables exceed the threshold value of 0.70, thereby conforming to the adequate internal consistency of the measurement instruments of the study variables.

4.11 Data Analysis

Various data analysis approaches will be used to empirically analyse the quantitative research parts of this study. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) are the approaches proposed for quantitative data analysis. The justification for the use of these methods lies in the hierarchy of the study variables. The data obtained from the administration of the survey was captured using SPSS. The SPSS was used for encoding and analysing the statistics of the collected data, while the CFA was used to test the measurement model based on PLS-SEM. The statistical analyses were carried out using either the PLS-SEM as shown in Table 4.6

The SEM comprises the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), parametric data analysis and partial least square (PLS), and a non-parametric data analysis. The SPSS is used for coding the descriptive statistics of collected data, testing assumptions for normality and reliability analysis, while the CFA is used to test the measurement model based on PLS-SEM. In normally distributed data, the combination of CFA and SPSS is used to analyse data, while in non-normally distributed data, a PLS-SEM technique is used with the SmartPLS software.

Table 4.6: Proposed Techniques for Analysis, (Hair et al., 2010)



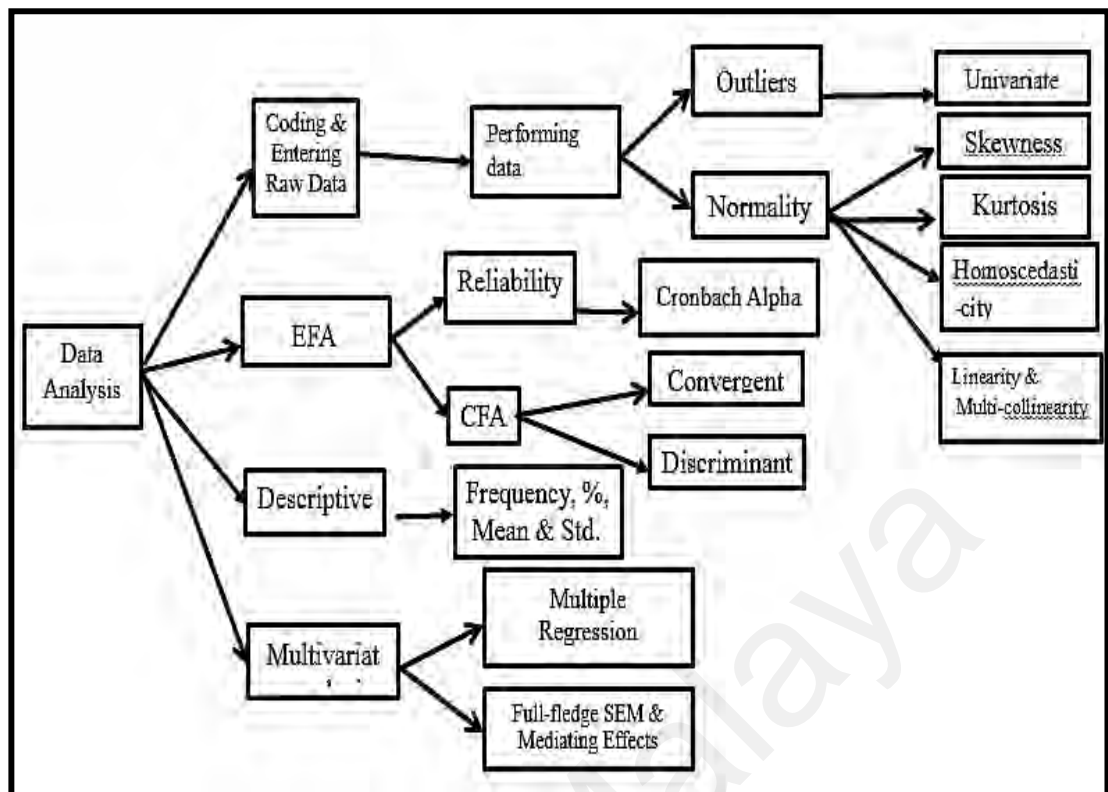


Figure 4.10 : Data Analysis Techniques and Procedures.

4.11.1 Structural Equation Modelling Method

Exploratory factor analysis and structural path analysis are two statistical methods that are combined to create SEM, which allows for simultaneous evaluation of the measurement model and the structural model (Lee et al., 2011). Researchers can choose between variance-based partial least squares (PLS-SEM; Lohmöller, 1989; Wold, 1982) and covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM; Jöreskog, 1978, 1993). Which of the two approaches should be employed in research depends in large part on an understanding of the differences between the two methodologies. The main purpose of CB-SEM is to validate existing theories (i.e., explanation). However, PLS-SEM is equally suitable for confirmatory research and is typically employed for exploratory research (Sarstedt et al., 2014a). In particular, PLS-SEM researchers want their model to have high prediction accuracy while also being rooted in well-developed causal explanations, so bridging the apparent divide between confirmatory and predictive research (Sarstedt et al., 2017). This interaction is known as explanation and prediction theory, according to Gregor (2006),

who notes that this method "implies both comprehension of underlying causes and prediction, as well as description of theoretical structures and the links among them."

To analyse the research data, the study used the partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) technique. PLS-SEM usage has significantly increased in recent years (Hair et al., 2017). There have been numerous articles on the use of PLS-SEM in the fields of strategic management (Hair et al., 2012), marketing (Hair et al., 2012), accounting (Lee et al., 2011), information systems (Ringle et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2017b), family business (Sarstedt et al., 2014), and tourism (do Valle and Assaker, 2016). A PLS path model develops through communication between the researcher and the computer, in which tentative model improvements like the addition of a new latent variable, an indicator, and an inner model relation, or the omission of such an element, are easily and quickly tested for predictive relevance. The PLS-SEM approach has a broad scope and flexibility in terms of theory and practise. Furthermore, the application of PLS-SEM is driven by prediction-oriented analyses, complicated models, and secondary, archival, or huge data (Gefen, Rigdon, & Straub, 2011; Rigdon, 2012, 2014). Other explanations include the use of composites that represent formatively measured latent variables, the use of small sample sizes because of a small population, and the application of PLS-SEM latent variable scores in subsequent analyses, according to Sarstedt, Ringle, and Hair (2021) and Rigdon (2016). The method was used owing to its multivariate technique which simultaneously acts as a combinational aspect of multi-regressions and appraises a progression between related reliance connections (Hair, et al., 2010; Byrne, 2013). This technique can be used to harmonise both the observed and unobserved variables in measurement and structural models. In structural modeling, PLS-SEM provides the capacity to measure the connections between the arrangements of unobserved variables, while elucidating the measure of sudden fluctuation (Byrne, 2013).

Also, the PLS-SEM is an effective procedure combining the estimation and structural model into a synchronous test (Aaker & Bagozzi, 1979; Hair, et al., 2010). By utilising PLS-SEM, both observed and unobserved variables are harmonised into an integrative proposed research model to estimate the exact measurement error; while the evaluations are presented in the data using the full covariance grid (Byrne, 2013). One essential quality of PLS-SEM is that it is an effectively connected system for evaluating direct and indirect impacts, which is likewise the motive of this investigation (Min & Mentzer, 2004; Hair, et al., 2010). The PLS-SEM is also suitable for the assessment of the theories and proposed connections among variables (conduct expectation), especially when the dependent variable becomes a free variable in another relationship (Hair, et al., 2010). Ultimately, this study utilises the PLS-SEM to ensure that the appraisal of all connections between the constructs is exhaustive through the move from EFA to CFA. There are few stages in the appraisal of the PLS-SEM that began by characterising individual constructs, planning a study to deliver exact results, adding to the general model, indicating the basic model, evaluating the legitimacy of the estimation model, and finally, surveying the legitimacy of the auxiliary model (Hair, et al., 2010). Hence, two fundamental appraisals of PLS-SEM exist, and they comprise the evaluation of the measurement model and appraisal of the structural model. Hair, et al. (2010) highlighted the appraisal of the measurement model as being a critical venture in the SEM. The measurement model provides a premise to surveying the legitimacy of the basic hypothesis, assessing the model fit, assessing the model parameters, and building the legitimacy of the proposed estimation model. Auxiliary examinations are frequently inconsistent if the measurement model is of low unwavering quality and legitimacy (Hair, et al., 2010).

Comparing CB-SEM and PLS-SEM

The two SEM approaches have quite different statistical goals. The statistical goal of CB-SEM is to estimate model parameters that minimise disparities between the observed sample covariance matrix produced prior to analysis and the covariance matrix obtained following the validation of the revised theoretical model (Hair et al., 2012). The statistical goal of PLS-SEM, on the other hand, is to maximise the variation explained in the dependent variables (Hair et al., 2012). CB-SEM is based on the common factor model, whereas PLS-SEM is based on the composite model, which is a key distinction between the two approaches (Hair et al., 2017). In order to design a solution, one must first calculate the covariance between the study's variables. Only that common variance is then employed in the analysis because, according to the common factor model, the analysis should only be based on the common variance in the data. As a result, before considering the theoretical model, the specific variance and the error variance are eliminated from the study. This method's removal of specific variation that may legitimately be used to forecast the dependent variables in the theoretical model is one of its drawbacks. Contrarily, the composite model uses all variation from the independent variables that can be used to predict the variance in the dependent variables because it contains common, particular, and error variance. In order to maximise the variation explained in the dependent variables, the composite model technique is consequently more efficient. Since CB-SEM is a parametric statistical approach, its standard output is statistical significance.

However, the non-parametric nature of PLS-SEM makes it difficult to determine inference statistics right away. For the purpose of significance testing, researchers use bootstrapping to generate standard error estimates of model parameters. The size and significance of the beta coefficients are used to assess structural correlations for both SEM approaches. The coefficient of determination (R^2 value), which gauges the model's in-

sample predictive capacity, is generally used in structural model evaluation in PLS-SEM to take into account the model's predictive capabilities (Hair et al., 2017). On the other hand, for CB-SEM, the measurement and structural models should be evaluated using the goodness of fit (GOF) metric. The Chi-square statistic, which shows the discrepancy between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated covariance matrix, is used to calculate GOF. The various heuristics, including CFI, GFI, and RMSEA, can also be used to evaluate GOF when utilising CB-SEM. For PLS-SEM, there is no recognised GOF measure.

Differences between the two methods

It is crucial to choose the strategy that is most appropriate for your research because CB-SEM and PLS-SEM are different methodologies and have different assumptions. Hair et al (2017). Sample size has been one of the most frequent justifications for utilising PLS-SEM (Ringle et al., 2012). Other factors, however, include the need to find unobserved heterogeneity (Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt et al., 2011), prediction (Hair et al., 2011), non-normal data (Hair et al., 2014), sophisticated models, and advanced analysis (Hair et al., 2016; Matthews et al., 2016; Sarstedt et al., 2011). Researchers should be aware that PLS-SEM achieves more statistical power than CB-SEM at all sample sizes, but notably at smaller sample sizes, when determining whether to utilise PLS-SEM or CB-SEM.

PLS-SEM is therefore especially well suited for exploratory research where theory is less defined due to its better statistical power. CB-SEM frequently performs admirably if the hypothesis under investigation is well-established and the measurement is carried out correctly. CB-SEM, however, takes data distributions to be normal. When coded appropriately, PLS-SEM, which is non-parametric and performs well with non-normal distributions, has relatively few limitations on the usage of ordinal and binary scales. Overall, the PLS-SEM method is significantly more suitable at the theory creation stage

than CB-SEM since it allows merging explanation and prediction views to model estimate.

4.11.2 Assessment of measurement model

The confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to evaluate all of the constructs' measurement models and to explain how the measured variables cogently and analytically represent the constructs in the model (Hair, et al., 2010). In other words, the CFA was implemented to reduce the number of pointers utilised in the measurement model's purification and validation. Researchers commonly utilise one of two ways to analyse and validate measurement models: (1) individual testing of each construct, or (2) collective testing of the constructs in one measurement model (Cheng, 2001). Because of its ability to take into account the links between the indicators of different constructs, collective testing is chosen (Cheng, 2001). This study undertakes the second approach involving the collective testing of all constructs in the measurement model. Further to the development of the overall measurement model, there is a need to review the degree of association of the items with the theoretically defined constructs. The reliability and validity of constructs were subsequently tested using the CFA. Another important factor in the measurement model is the factor loading. All factor loadings are expected to have a minimum value of 0.50, and ideally 0.70 or higher (Hair, et al., 2010).

The capacity to test the validity of the concept in the measurement model is one of the key advantages of CFA in PLS-SEM (Hair, et al., 2010). The CFA indicates how well a group of measured items reflects the theoretical latent construct that those items were supposed to assess, as well as the measurement's accuracy (Hair, et al., 2010). According to Garver and Mentzer, (1999), construct validity comprises several sub-dimensions including convergent validity, unidimensionality, reliability, content validity, nomological validity, and discriminant validity (Hair, et al., 2010; Garver & Mentzer,

1999). The capacity to correlate with other standard measures of the same construct is referred to as nomological validity (Zikmund, 2003). When convergent validity was reached, the popularity of nomological validity faded, but it grew when nomological and convergent validity became synonymous. As a result, determining convergent validity also entails determining nomological validity (Zikmund, 2003). This study included a convergent validity assessment.

4.11.3 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical approach for confirming a collection of observed variables' factor structure. CFA enables a researcher to test the hypothesis that the observable variables and their underlying latent constructs have a connection. The researcher draws on theoretical, empirical, or both sources of information, hypothesises the relationship pattern a priori, then statistically tests the hypothesis. Through partial least square structural equation modelling, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the 382 sampled data gathered from respondents in Langkawi, Malaysia (PLS-SEM). The measurement model of the six latent constructs revealed an overall fit of the model, and is consistent with the data according to the recommendation of researchers (Byrne, 2013; Hair et al., 2010) that a minimum of one absolute fit index and incremental fit index should be used. All the parameter estimates are also statistically significant. The standardised loadings (λ) for all remaining constructs exceeded 0.5 and had significantly corresponding t-values. They all showed logical signs with no offending estimates.

4.11.4 Convergent validity

The degree to which two different indicators of a latent variable confirm one another is known as convergent validity (Janssens, et al., 2008). This study analysed the unidimensionality of the assessed items and estimated the composite reliabilities and

average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct to determine convergent validity, based on several research works. A set of measured indicators with an underlying construct is referred to as unidimensional. A unidimensional set is tested for convergent validity by looking at the parameter estimations (Chinna, 2009; Janssens, et al., 2008; Nokelainen, 2009). The latent variables must have high loadings from the measured items. Factor loadings that are statistically significant but less than 0.50 indicate that the measured items have a high chance of being removed from the study model (Hair, et al., 2010; Janssens, et al., 2008). Unidimensionality is assessed using t-values in the same way that factor loading is. Critical ratios were employed to evaluate the t-values. Rather than t-values, the AMOS outputs a crucial ratio. A significance level of .05 percent is utilised to determine the unidimensionality of the measured items. For the two-tail test, the critical ratios (C.R.) exceeded 1.96, suggesting statistical significance (Wothke, 2000; Janssens, et al., 2008) and confirming convergent validity (Wothke, 2000; Janssens, et al., 2008).

4.11.5 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity, according to Hair et al. (2010), is a measure of how discrete comparable concepts are. High discriminant validity illustrates the uniqueness of a construct and captures events that other measures missed (Byrne, 2013). Discriminant validity is shown by low correlations between constructs. Discriminant validity is determined using a variety of ways. When the correlation coefficient between constructs is not accessibly high ($r < 0.85$), discriminant validity is demonstrated, according to a study done by Kline (2015). Multi-collinearity is indicated by correlation coefficient values between constructs surpassing 0.85 (Kline, 2015), necessitating the deletion of the measured items of one of the two constructs. The better test for discriminant validity, according to Hair et al. (2010, p.778), is "to compare the square root of each construct and AVE, to its association with other variables." The squared AVE correlation estimate

should be smaller than the average variance extracted (AVE) estimate. The purpose of these tests was to determine the discriminant validity of the measures used in this investigation.

4.11.6 Construct Reliability

In contrast to the reliability of a single variable, construct reliability analyses the internal consistency of a group of measures. Cronbach's alpha has long been used to determine scale dependability. Composite reliability, on the other hand, is a preferable option because it uses uniform loading and measurement error for each item. Composite reliability is used to assess the internal consistency of measured items that represent a latent concept, and it must be established before construct validity can be assessed (Hair, et al., 2010).

In addition, Byrne (2013) and Chinna (2009) pointed out that the composite reliability estimate is more precise than Cronbach's alpha for post-analysis. By convention, composite reliability should have a minimum value of 0.70 to show good dependability and the presence of internal consistency, according to Chinna, (2009). Hair, et al. (2010), on the other hand, believe that a composite reliability value of 0.60 to 0.70 may be acceptable if other construct validity indicators are good. The composite reliability estimate, like Cronbach's alpha, must be calculated separately for each item measuring a construct in the model. Although the AMOS output did not directly compute composite reliability, it did supply the essential data to manually calculate it using the formular in Equation 4.1.

Equation 4.1: Composite Reliability

$$\text{Composite Reliability} = \frac{(\sum \text{Standardised loadings})^2}{(\sum \text{Standardised loadings})^2 + \sum \text{Measurement errors}}$$

Source: Janssen et al. (2008, p. 307).

Following the satisfaction of unidimensionality and composite reliability, an examination of AVE is conducted. The AVE is a summary indicator that is used to determine whether convergence validity exists. An AVE of 0.50 or greater shows adequate convergence, but an AVE of less than 0.50 suggests that more mistakes remain in the items on average than the variation explained by the latent factor structure imposed on the measure (Hair, et al., 2010). The AVE value, like composite reliability, must be determined manually for each measured construct in the model (Equation 4.2).

Equation 4.2: Average Variance Extraction

$$AVE = \frac{\sum(\text{Standardised loadings})^2}{\sum(\text{Standardised loadings})^2 + \sum \text{Measurement errors}}$$

Source: Janssen, et al, (2008, p. 309)

4.11.7 Descriptive statistics of the study variables

The preliminary analysis of the data collected is presented in this section. Calculating the mean and standard deviation scores for all items in the questionnaire is part of the analysis. The standard deviation scores ranged from 0.68033 to 0.81349. The mean scores ranged from 2.4267 to 3.2933. This indicates that there is a good variation with regards to the responses from the survey. Knowledge had the lowest mean score observed of 2.4267 (std. dev. = 0.81349), While intention to participate have (ITPT) the highest mean score observed was 3.2933 (std. dev. = 0.69292). Table 6.6 presents the mean and standard deviation scores for all the variables.

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics for the Seven Variables

Constructs	Mean	Std. Deviation
Attitude	3.1783	0.78064
Expectation of benefit	3.2600	0.73459
Intention to participate	3.2933	0.69292
Knowledge	2.4267	0.81349
Motivation	3.2225	0.70849
Opportunity	3.2025	0.70802
Social identity	3.2127	0.68033

4.12 Justification for Partial Least-Structural Equation Modelling

The rationale for selecting the partial least square in the structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) methodology is justified as follows:

- i. Measurement – The variables of the study are hierarchical variables that depend on other variables. It is also known as ‘latent’.
- ii. Variate – The study possesses a variate feature. A variate is a linear relationship between several variables (Hair, et al., 2014).
- iii. Measurement scale – The obtained data are non-normarnelly coded and are continuous.
- iv. Nature of the study – The study focuses on predatory rather than confirmatory approach.

4.12.1 Estimation Techniques

Several methods are used to establish relationships. The method to be adopted depends on the nature of the variable and data of the study. In PLS-SEM methodology, two approaches are commonly used: the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and partial least square (PLS). The CFA method is used to confirm theories where model fit is ensured with covariates of the constructs (Hair, et al., 2014). The primary assumption of the CFA is the existence of a non-normal data distribution that utilises a non-parametric method in PLS-SEM analysis.

Conversely, the PLS-SEM method deals with prediction, and in predicting an economic phenomenon, the study must be non-parametric (Hair, et al., 2014; Wong, 2013). Besides, the PLS-SEM is advantageous over the confirmatory method in the management of large, hierarchical and complex systems, which is achievable with the repeated usage of manifest variables (Akter, et al., 2011a). The softwares used to estimate the parameters of complex relationships include the SmartPLS, WARP-PLS, Advance Analysis of Composites (ADANCO), etc. These softwares are mostly employed owing to their ease of usage and accessibility. As an instance, the WarpPLS version is easy to use due to its attention to missing values and standardisation of data before estimation, presentation of results on discriminant validity without manual computation, production of multicollinearity results and probability values as opposed to statistical significance at the 1.96 level (Kock, 2014). However, the SmartPLS is useful in the handling of large data, as it boasts of non-spurious results which are obtained from the conceptualised complex system. The SmartPLS handles complex systems with multiple relationships while the WarpPLS addresses nonlinear relationships (Kock, 2010). The SmartPLS (version 3.0) was used to determine the relationships in this study.

4.12.2 Estimation Procedure

In using the SmartPLS, the following underlying assumptions as stated by Hair, et al. (2014) are required to be adhered to before the commencement of the data estimation process:

- i. The study should be targeted at prediction.
- ii. The structural model should be complex.
- iii. The data should not be normally distributed, suggesting the use of a non-parametric analysis.
- iv. Should the relationship of the construct be formative; the formative constructs must be a member of the structural equation.

- v. No outliers should be present.
- vi. There should be no missing data. In cases where there are, the acceptable tolerance should be less than or equal to 5%.

4.12.3 Data Coding and Outliers

Coded data are required to be nominal and continuous. However, it was observed from the data that some coding and coding definitions were inconsistent with the assumptions of the SmartPLS. As earlier discussed, the PLS-SEM of SmartPLS assumes the absence of outliers. The outliers in a data set represent the extreme values in the distribution. The avoidance of outliers in statistical data analysis could make it difficult to achieve the stated objectives of a study owing to the extreme values below the 25th percentile and above the 75th percentile (Gupta, et al., 2014). The existence of outliers in the study was determined using the SPSS software. The WarpPLS software is programmed to resolve the problem of outliers.

4.12.4 Treatment of missing data

Following the completion of the data gathering phase, the survey results were analysed using SPSS to ensure that the information was correct and complete. This was done to guarantee that no errors occurred during the dataset's submission (Hair, et al., 2010). Only 382 of the 400 questionnaires were completed and returned.

4.12.5 Examination of outliers

Outliers are defined as “an observation that is substantially different from the other observations on one or more variables” (Hair, et al., 2006). The univariate method was employed in the detection of outliers, and it involved the conversion of the data values into standardised (z) scores. For sample size exceeding 80 observations, the outliers were defined as cases having standard scores in the range between ± 4 (Hair, et

al., 2010). By employing this method of detecting outliers, none was discovered, as the standardised scores for each variable were less than ± 4 (Pallant, 2007). Therefore, this study concludes the non-existence of cases that deviated substantially from one another.

4.12.6 Missing Data Problem and Justification for Cleaning

As mentioned in the assumptions of the PLS-SEM, the SmartPLS software does not accept variables with missing data. Missing data are lost responses that are strong enough to distort the outcome of an estimation (Cox, McIntosh, Reason, & Terenzini, 2014). Missing data within a sizeable observed sample is unavoidable. As an instance, in survey data involving the use of questionnaires, respondents might omit one or more items and leave them unanswered. In cases where the phone interview method is adopted, the respondent might hang up. Also, the researcher or research assistant might omit some records unintentionally (e.g., cell cases of responses) during data entry. An element of bias will always exist during missing data issues in a dataset (Cox, et al., 2014), and the extent and direction of the bias make the detection of the missing data difficult to overlook. As such, the magnitude could exist in a data set that is completely missing at random (CMAR), missing at random (MAR), or missing not at random (MNAR) (Gelman & Hill, 2006).

4.12.7 Normal Distribution

From the assumptions of the SmartPLS-SEM (as applicable to WarpPLS), item (iii) specifies that data should not be normally distributed. In cases where data is not normally distributed, the acceptable methodology becomes the application of the partial least square, in which focus is shifted from a randomised condition to a non-randomised analysis. The appropriate statistical analysis in a randomised research design is parametric while that of a non-randomised research design is non-parametric. To determine the type

of statistical analysis, the test of normality was estimated. In the Kolmogorov normality test, the tested null versus the alternative hypothesis is as stated below:

H0: The observed distribution fits the normal distribution

H1: The observed distribution does not fit the normal distribution

Decision: Reject H0 if p-value < .05, otherwise accept H0.

4.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter is the strength of this thesis due to its explanation on the required methodological framework for the achievement of the thesis' objectives. It also justifies every chosen method of analysis and explores what it takes to make a rational selection among the three available research designs, hence justifying the selection of the quantitative research design. In that respect, primary survey data was obtained from the Langkawi local community in line with the research objectives. Also, the study sample data were randomly stratified and selected from respondents of the Langkawi district. The thesis utilised cross-sectional data for all its research questions, and afterwards, the entire research design, process, data collection method, and analysis plan for this study were discussed in detail. Prior to the commencement of the actual data collection procedures, a pre-test was conducted for content and face validity. The reliability analysis indicated the reliability of the overall survey instrument and displayed consistency in the measurement of the instrument.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrated on the presentation of the results of the three thesis objectives, with the results of each objective being presented in sections and subsections. In each objective, the findings were discussed to ensure the attainment of the various objectives. Each section comprised the structural model of estimation.

There are two approaches to presenting estimated results in PLS-SEM: the presentation of measurement models, and the structural models in that sequence. Equally, in PLS estimations, the assessment of normality and multicollinearity are necessary conditions prior to the estimation of parameters. The reason for this assessment was to confirm the normality criterion. If the distribution is normal, the confirmatory method of SEM would be employed, otherwise, the partial least square (PLS) methodology would be used (Hair, et al., 2014; Wong, 2013). This pattern was employed in our presentation via the presentation of the normality test results. The chapter is divided into three sections and subsections. The study presented the results of the normality test, the model of the structural model, and the multicollinearity test of the latent independent variables through their cross-loadings. The presentations in these orders followed the specifications in Hair, et al., 2014 and Wong's, 2013 studies. In summary, the chapter comprised three independent sections and subsections addressing each objective, and each section recapitulated the objective to understand its achievement.

Firstly, the findings of this study along with a recap of the results of hypotheses testing were discussed. The implications of the findings were discussed with regards to its theoretical and practical benefits. Again, based on these findings, the research questions and problem statement were both taken into account. Furthermore, at the community level, the thesis utilised cross-sectional data to understand the critical factors constraining local community participation, and the predominant factors affecting their

willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises (TSME) in the six districts of Langkawi. Thus, the objective of this chapter is to present the major findings.

5.1.1 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Normality Test

Further to the organisation of the data, the statistical data were subjected to a normality test using the Kolmogorov-Simonov test. The study tested the null against the following alternative hypotheses:

H0: The observed distribution fits the normal distribution

H1: The observed distribution does not fit the normal distribution

Decision Rule: Reject H0 if $p < 0.05$, otherwise accept H0

The normality results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were presented with the value of $P < 5\%$, indicating that all the data variables were not normally distributed, i.e., the result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test equals 0.001. Since the results suggest that the data for each variable is not normally distributed, the non-parametric analysis of the SEM criterion was predicted using the partial least square (PLS) technique.

5.1.2 The SmartPLS Assumptions

In PLS-SEM, the conceptualised system depends on theories and assumptions, and as such, the study is supported by theories and previous studies. The theories are explained in chapter three of this thesis. The study is committed to ensuring that the estimated results do not account for bias. As a result, Wong's (2013) and Hair's, et al. (2014) structural model estimation procedure was administered. The following assumptions were adhered to during the data analysis:

- i. The minimum value of outer loadings after estimation should be equal to 0.7
- ii. Negative values of the outer loading constructs should be deleted.

- iii. Model stability should be ensured at a maximum of 300 algorithm iterations.

5.1.3 Synopsis of the Analysis

In the model estimation process, the outer loadings were riddled with problems in the first instance. The results indicate the presence of some manifest variables (MV) having values less than 0.7. To satisfy assumptions (ii) and (iii) in section 5.2.1, the manifest variables were deleted (Wong, 2013). The conceptualised structural model was consequently modified to satisfy the SmartPLS assumptions. Thereafter, the bootstrap technique was applied to establish the statistical significance of the modified structural model (Wong, 2013). Hence, the T-Statistics and SEs of the estimated parameters were generated. Finally, the bootstrapped structural model that produced the final structural model for establishing the cause predictive relationship of ITPT and WTIV were re-estimated. Categorically, the model of the study is a reflective measurement model.

5.1.4 Multicollinearity Test

In our structural model, the researcher estimated the hierarchical variables using cross-sectional survey data and in the survey data, the likelihood of manifest variables (the predictors) being highly correlated exists (Akter, et al., 2011b; Wong, 2013). To ensure the absence of high collinearity among the predictor variables, version 22 of the SPSS software was used to estimate the regression equation using the latent variable scores (LVS) values from the calculated results of the SmartPLS (Wong, 2013). The result of the regression equation is presented in table 5.1. The regression collinearity statistics provided two results: the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). If the calculated VIF value is less than 5, multicollinearity does not exist among the manifest variables (predictors). On the other hand, if the estimated Tolerance Value is equal to or exceeds 0.2, the predictors are not linearly correlated (Hair, et al., 2014; Wong, 2013).

In testing multicollinearity with the intention to participate as a dependant variable, it was observed that the VIF for all variables was less than 5. The observed VIF of attitude was 1.622, Expectation; 1.410, Knowledge; 2.068, Motivation; 1.184, Opportunity; 1.603, Savings; 1.697, and Social identity theory; 1.430. The null and alternative hypotheses are as stated below:

H0: No multicollinearity is observed among the MVs ($H_0 = 0$)

H1: Multicollinearity is observed among the MVs ($H_0 = 0$)

Decision Rule: Reject H0 if the calculated Tolerance Value is less than 0.2

Reject H0 if the VIF value exceeds or equates to five (Wong, 2013).

Table 5.1: Collinearity Statistic (VIF) – Inner

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
ATT			1.622						1.627
EOB			1.410						1.41
ITPT									
KNOW			2.068						2.068
MOT			1.209					1	1.184
OPP			1.603						1.542
SAV			1.697						1.697
SID			1.430						
WTIV									

Note: Attitude (ATT), Expectation of benefit (EOB), Intention to participate (ITPT), Knowledge (KNOW), Motivation (MOT), Opportunity (OPP), Savings (SAV), Social identity (SID), Willingness to invest (WTIV).

5.2 Demographic profile of the respondents'

The demographic profile of the respondents was examined in this area to determine the data pattern: gender, age, marital status, education, occupation, and years spent in Langkawi. The respondents in this study were residents of Langkawi, Malaysia, and were chosen based on the study's focus (as outlined in Chapters 2 and 3), as well as the research method (Chapter 4) and respondents' preferences.

In total, 400 questionnaires were successfully distributed among indigenes of the Langkawi local community, with a total delivery of 382 usable questionnaires. Table 5.2 highlights that males were 52% while females were 48%. The age distribution of the responders is also shown in the table. The respondents' ages ranged from 18 to over 60 years old, with the majority (40 percent) falling between the ages of 46 and 60. The majority of those who responded were full-grown. The second-largest group of respondents (35%) was between the ages of 31 and 45. 8 percent of those polled were between the ages of 18 and 30, while 17% were above the age of 60. The respondents' marital statuses, major professions, number of years in Langkawi and education attainment of the respondents were also determined as shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Demographic Variables of the Respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	200	52
Female	182	48
<i>Age</i>		
18-30 years	31	8
31-45 years	105	28
46-60 years	181	47
Above 60 years	65	17
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Married	214	56
Single	72	19
Divorced	50	13
Widowed	46	12
<i>Occupation</i>		
Agricultural, forestry and fishery	28	7
Tourism related Job	42	11
Business	105	27
Government employee	52	14
General workers	95	25
Others	60	16
<i>No. of years lived in Langkawi</i>		
18-30	70	18
31-45	130	34
46-60	100	26
61 and above	82	22
<i>Educational Attainment</i>		
No Education	20	5
Primary School	35	9
Secondary School	60	16
College (Diploma)	72	19
University Degree	115	30
Mater Degree	64	17
PhD Degree	16	4
Total	382	100

Source: Author's computation

5.2.1 Research Objective 1 and 2.

This section addresses objectives 1 and 2, and investigates the critical factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.

Secondly, it assesses the predominant factors affecting the willingness of local communities to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises (TSME) in Langkawi. The study quantitatively examined the dynamic factors influencing the community participation in tourism development, and their willingness to invest in tourism small and medium enterprises in Langkawi. To address the research questions, the thesis employed attitude, knowledge, motivation, savings, the expectation of benefits, and opportunity as measuring variables to understand the factors affecting participation and investment. Thus, empirical findings on participation and investment revealed that attitude, knowledge, motivation, savings, the expectation of benefit, and opportunity positively influence the participation intention of the local community, as well as their willingness to invest in tourism development.

5.2.2 Attitude

It has long been argued that in tourism planning, the local community's well-being should be prioritised while the cost of tourism growth is kept to a minimum. Because the local community is typically a critical component of the tourism product, their attitude can have a substantial impact on tourism development success (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012). As a result, it's not unexpected that the social impact of tourism in general, and the attitude of the local community toward tourism in particular, has been the focus of research in the literature when it comes to tourism planning (Sharpley, 2014). Local community attitudes, according to Andriotis and Vaughan (2003), are a crucial aspect in the creation of successful tourism, as knowing resident views leads to effective tourism development and community empowerment (Prayag, et al., 2013; Styliadis, et al., 2014).

Two hypotheses exist in tourism development. First, the adverse influence of tourism expansion sands the wheel of community attitude, as the antisocial behaviour of tourists will deter tourism development in any local development (Kwon & Vogt, 2010).

As such, lacking an understanding of communities' attitudes would be difficult to achieve tourism development (Nunkoo, et al., 2013). Second, the positive impact of tourism development in a local community usually greases the wheel of the local community attitude towards tourism development (Kang, et al., 2008). Tourism development improves a tourist destination's physical landscape while also causing social changes within the community. These variations predominantly transpire in local community behavior and attitude (Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012).

In tourism development, attitude has been established as a core indicator for community development. From a psychological standpoint, attitude is defined as a psychological propensity that is conveyed by appraising a particular entity with varying degrees of favour or disfavour (Holden, 2005, p.75). In the current findings, the Langkawi local community have shown a positive attitude towards tourism development (Ap & Crompton, 1998; Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012; Sharma, Dyer, Carter, & Gursoy, 2008), and this attitude has resulted, not only in participation but also increased the zeal of the Langkawi community to invest in tourism development (Maio & Haddock, 2009; Nisbett & Wilson, 1977).

This positive attitude expressed by the local community of Langkawi towards the development of tourism confirms Doxey's Index of Irritation model (1975). The Doxey's "Irridex" model depicts the overall effect of tourism development on residents' attitudes toward tourism, as a growth in the tourism industry results in changes in the attitude of the host community toward tourism (Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012). Although Doxey, (1975) presented four stages of resident attitudes: euphoria, apathy, annoyance and antagonism, the findings confirm that natural and cultural characteristics contribute to the attitude of the Langkawi community to participate and invest in tourism development.

Another area to discuss is the protected areas in the Langkawi community. The attitude of the local community toward participation and investment in tourism was impressive, as they believed that visits to protected areas should be by appointment and subject to tourist quotas. In other words, it is more rewarding when local assets (artificial and natural) are adequately preserved. The local community also demonstrated a positive attitude with regards to their interest in reutilising vacant local buildings as recreational facilities to avoid excessive construction of new facilities for tourism development. This attitude increased the local community participation of Langkawi in tourism development, as postulated from previous findings (Dibb, Simkin, Pride, & Ferrell, 1994). In other words, the utilisation of local assets with minimum costs would encourage participation, as opposed to white elephant project. It also helps in the aversion of debts and reduces the risks of participation and investment.

The availability of low impact transportation will not only make movement easier for tourists but also provide employment for low-income earners. In turn, the worth of life of the local community has been on an increase, with their participation and readiness to invest, enhanced. The quality of life is equally correlated with the attitude that the Langkawi local community is satisfied from interacting with tourists from around the world. This satisfactory attitude is earned from the invaluable experience gathered from meeting people. As such, meeting more people have increased the participation of the local community in the development of Langkawi tourism (Harun, et al., 2018; Peters, Chan & Legerer, 2018; Meimand, et al., 2017; Abas & Hanafiah, 2013; Lo, et al., 2014; Fong, et al., 2014; Hanafiah, et al., 2013; Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012).

The cultural and natural environments are important in the development of Langkawi's tourism. The local community of Langkawi were observed to present a positive attitude due to the conservation principle. In the survey, Langkawi tourism

encouraged public participation in the conservation of the environment. The more the environment and its natural and artificial assets are conserved, the more the willingness of people to participate in Langkawi's tourism development. The attitude results depict that the conservational principles of Langkawi outweigh their economic functions, indicating that the attitude of the local community has shunned an interference with the habitats of local animals and plants in Langkawi.

This construct was conceptualised as a first-order construct, with attitude having high loadings. The reflective measurement model first-order dimensions of this variable had substantial loadings on attitude with regards to local community tourism development: 0.714, 0.759, 0.731 and 0.778 respectively (Figure 5.1), with the factor loadings exceeding the recommended value of 0.70 (Hair, et al., 2017). The responses of the respondents indicated a considerably high level of attitude to tourism. The discriminant and convergent validity were accessed on attitude, with values of 0.702 and 0.793 respectively. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was accessed, with the recorded values of the threshold and attitude being 0.7 and 0.742 respectively. α values of 0.70 and above indicate reliable item scales (Hair, et al., 2010). The effect of attitude towards tourism development on participation and investment is significantly positive, with an $f^2 = 0.048$ being observed. Attitude is estimated to determine the increase in participation and investment towards tourism development. In other words, keeping other determinants constant, attitude accounted for 88% of the variation in participation, while attitude towards tourism had the highest effect on participation.

Attitude has a significantly positive effect on participation and investment, with values of $\beta = 0.328$ and 0.223 . This coefficient indicates that for each unit increase in attitude and other constructs, attitude will result in a 0.328 and 0.223 increase in participation and investment towards tourism development. In other words, a

significantly positive effect of attitude on tourism development will indicate the importance of attitude towards participation and investment. Attitude is an important construct in this thesis, as it explains about 88% of the variation in participation. Empirical findings revealed that in tourism development, attitude had a significantly positive effect and relatively maximum impact on participation, and theoretically, the findings were observed to be consistent with previous studies on attitude. Despite all the years of conducted research on attitudes, Forgas, et al. (2011) believe that studying how attitudes are generated and changed, as well as how they influence individual behaviour, is still as intriguing as ever. According to McKercher, et al. (2015), despite the high volume of research works on tourism and local community attitudes, interesting and unanswered questions are still existent in the body of knowledge. This signifies the importance of attitude in the tourism development of any host country. Scholars and users would be better able to understand the status of tourism in this research area if they were aware of community perceptions toward tourism's influence. Such data will aid in the establishment of development strategies and policies that are in line with the demands of the local community and have their support.

Without an understanding of community attitudes, the attainment of tourism development will be impossible (Nunkoo, et al., 2013). As a result, the views of the local people play a critical part in the development of every destination's tourism industry. Local community sentiments should be researched as a critical component for tourism developers to consider during the planning stage (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). Tourism expands when the host community has a positive attitude towards tourism development, and results have shown that Langkawi indigenes expressed a positive attitude towards the development of tourism in their community. Local community attitudes have been continuously surveyed to fathom the support level of tourism development, and they emerge to accord additional espousal to tourism when they have

an optimistic insight into its impact (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). Their affirmative attitudes to the development and management of their environment inspire their participation and investment in tourism activities.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient – +0.328 – representing 32.8 and significant at a 5% level of significance indicates that the local community contributes to participation and investment. Thus, the results of the thesis with respect to attitude confirms the grease in the wheel for the tourism growth and development of Langkawi. It equally attests to the positive reaction of the local community to participate and invest in the tourism development of Langkawi. Attitude exhibits a positive and significant effect on the factors affecting the participation intention of the local community, and their willingness to invest in tourism development.

	<i>Attitude (Zhang & Lei, 2016)</i> It will be much pleasant if:
1	Langkawi tourism should be based on enjoying & appreciating nature or cultural features (natural or cultural features).
2	The visiting of protected areas should be by appointment and subject to tourist quotas (tourist quotas)
3	Langkawi tourism should implement zoning by designating important habitats as protected areas (zoning)
4	Unused local buildings should be reutilized as recreational facilities as a priority to avoid excess construction (reutilizing unused buildings)
5	Low impact transport such as biking and walking is appropriate for Langkawi tourism (low impact transport)
6	Tourism improves the quality of life of the Langkawi community
7	Langkawi tourism should encourage public participation in conservation actions (encouraging conservation participation)
8	Meeting tourists from all over the world is a valuable experience.
9	Residents have a lower quality of life as a result of living in a tourist area.
10	The conservational function of Langkawi outweighs their economic function (conservation outweighs economy)
11	The Langkawi tourism should avoid interfering with the habitat of local animals and plants (avoiding interference)
12	I am satisfied with tourism development in Langkawi.

Source: Author's computation

5.2.3 Knowledge

Knowledge is information paired with experience, context, interpretation, reflection, intuition, and creativity (Karlsen and Gottschalk, 2004). It is information that has been organised, synthesised, or summarised to increase awareness and comprehension. Knowledge refers to the community's understanding of tourism development issues, and the role of local governments in the industry. Local community knowledge of tourism is central to the sustainability of the sector

(Moscardo 2005). A considerable number of studies have discussed the importance of local community knowledge with regards to tourism development (Adomssent, et al., 2013; Andereck, et al., 2005, 2007; Barber, et al., 2009; Davis, et al., 1988; Deery, et al., 2012; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Huddart-Kennedy, et al., 2009; Kathleen, et al., 2010; Kayat, 2002, Látková & Vogt, 2012; McCamley & Gilmore, 2017; Meimand, et al., 2017; Moscardo, (2011); Nunkoo, 2015; Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016; Robin, 2015; Stylidis, et al., 2014; Timothy & Tosun, 2003; Williams & Lawson, 20010; Zhang & Lei, 2016). Gursoy, et al. (2002); Lankford, (1994); Zhang, et al. (2006); and the majority of these studies used Davis, et al. (1988) units of measurement to measure the level of knowledge on tourism. Davis, et al. (1988) measured the knowledge of the local community with regards to tourism from the residents' responses to questions on "tourism generated revenue", "tourism and employment", "tourism-related associations at the national and international level". However, using these criteria in this study will necessitate broader adoption, as well as information on Malaysian tourism. Furthermore, unlike the vast majority of past studies, this one will be conducted in a rural setting, and employing the precise things may result in the collection of incorrect data. Therefore, questions were adopted and standardised to the Malaysian community setting, using previous studies by Moscardo, (2011) and others. Moscardo, (2011) measured knowledge of the local community on tourism by examining "why host population thinks people engage in international travels", "what they think tourists would find attractive about their region" and "what major changes tourism may have on their region and lifestyle". The literature also includes several studies by Feighery, (2002), Gursoy & Rutherford, (2004), Fredline & Faulkner, (2000), and Gupta, et al. (2000), all of which used Davis, et al. (1988) constructs.

Tourism development encompasses two hypotheses, the negative impacts and the positive impacts. The behaviour of tourists could discourage tourism development in any community (Kwon & Vogt, 2010), and as such, the knowledge of the local communities towards tourism development is very important, as people tend to participate in tourism development based on their level of knowledge. Without knowledge, it would be impossible to achieve tourism development (Nunkoo, et al., 2013). Tourism development transforms the physical landscape and well-being of a community, and these changes mainly occur based on their level of knowledge with respect to the subject in question.

By examining the tourism development in Langkawi, it can be observed that more knowledgeable people tend to show a significant relationship with positive perceptions of the impact of tourism, and recognise the benefits and costs of tourism development (Andereck, et al. 2005). Knowledge has been established as an essential indicator for community development. In the present findings, the local community in Langkawi displayed a positive knowledge towards tourism development ((Barber, Taylor, & Strick, 2009; Mobley, Vagias, & DeWard, 2010) which not only resulted in participation, but also in a zeal to invest more in tourism development (Maio & Haddock, 2009; Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). Knowledge plays a pivotal role in the lives of the local community, as participating or investing in tourism-related activities depends on their level of knowledge. Investment involves risks, which can be curtailed with sufficient knowledge. Several studies reveal that knowledgeable people that have a deeper understanding of their environment always know how to solve problems. Therefore, being knowledgeable is a guide towards making positive decisions (Mobley, et al., 2010).

Knowledge relating to the development of tourism among the local community of Langkawi confirms the study of Davis, et al. (1988). Davis, et al. (1988) utilised the knowledge of tourism as a predictor for the perception of tourism impacts, and to create segment groups of the residents toward tourism, he surveyed 415 Florida residents. He tested the inhabitants' general understanding of the tourism business using five questions. Revenues, taxes, employment, total state advertising expenditures, and the existence of tourism-related associations concerned with critical topics were among the questions asked. (Davis and colleagues, 1988, p. 3). Results revealed that “the more communities know about the tourism industry, the less negative they seem towards it” (p. 7). These findings imply the need for the public to be educated on the positive impacts of tourism, their community, and the importance of tourism development (Davis, et al., 1988). He proceeded to say that “haters” of tourism include residents who generally had poor knowledge. The Langkawi local community's perspectives of the benefits and costs of tourism development are shaped by knowledge of tourism development (Andereck, et al., 2005; Látková & Vogt, 2012). Residents who are more knowledgeable have a better understanding of the benefits and drawbacks of tourism growth in their community than those who are less knowledgeable. The findings of Davis, et al. (1988), and Lankford, et al., confirm the participation and investment in tourism of the Langkawi local community.

Another area worth discussing is the community development resulting from the participation of the local community in tourism development. The knowledge of the local community was inspiring in participation and tourism investment, owing to the belief that participating in tourism development increases their community development and positively influences their well-being. One of the greatest contentions to getting the best is from the pursuit of knowledge, as people having information tend to contribute more to a stable and growing world (Adomssent, et al., 2013). Knowledge triggers the participation in tourism development (Meimand, et al., 2017; Stylidis, et al., 2014), as

well as investment. The ability of a community to participate in tourism development and also engage in investment lies in their level of knowledge, and being motivated arises from the knowledge of what is involved in participation and investment. Knowledge correlates with the growth of the industry, as it helps to transform a nation's economy speedily (Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2016). As such, the findings of Robin, (2015) stated that the lack of knowledge among local communities tends to trigger unfavorable bias towards tourism development. He revealed that knowledge was the key element causal to the level of power wielded by local communities. Hence, educational attainment, skill acquisition and awareness explain the impact of knowledge on participation (Nunkoo, 2015; Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2016). The lack of knowledge of local communities usually limits their participation and investment in tourism development. As it deprives members of being in charge of projects in their community, the government has capitalised on this excuse to exclude them from important plans and imposed tourism development on them without their consent.

In other words, it is more rewarding for the local community to engage in tourism development. This is because participation and investment in tourism provides employment for local communities in Langkawi, as well as development of their community. Knowledge helps to increase their level of participation and investment in tourism development as postulated from previous findings (Jaafar, et al., 2016; Lankford, et al. 1994; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Nunkoo, 2015; Tosun & Timothy, 2003). In other words, community members having knowledge about tourism development and its costs and benefits, were more eager to involve in tourism development. Although most local communities tend to perceive similar levels of benefits from tourism regardless of their knowledge about the industry, the more knowledgeable ones perceive higher levels of positive impacts than other. These findings align with the study conducted by Nunkoo and So, (2016), but contradict the study by Andereck, et al. (2005) and Davis, et al.

(1988). This is not surprising, considering that these studies employ different scales in the measurement of knowledge. Based on these results, a clear relationship exists between knowledge and tourism development.

Besides the contribution of tourism investment development towards individual income (of which communities are aware), it also provides employment for many local communities and contributes to the growth and development in Malaysia. Owing to the increase in income and development, the efforts of the local community of Langkawi towards participation and investment in tourism development showed positive results. Their quality of life and well-being are equally correlated with the knowledge that the local community is aware of the benefit accrued to participation and investment. Engagement in tourism related activities increases the income of a community and contributes to its development. This has, therefore, led to the development of tourism in the local community of Langkawi (Davis, et al., 1988; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Moscardo, 2011; Zhang, et al., 2006; Nunkoo & So, 2016; Andereck, et al. 2005).

To capture the various aspects of knowledge of the community, this construct was conceptualised as a second-order construct. The reflective measurement model first-order dimensions of this variable had substantial loadings on tourism knowledge: 0.764, 0.815, 0.767, 0.897 and 0.861 (Figure 5.1), with the factor loadings exceeding the recommended value of 0.70 (Hair, et al., 2017). The subjective responses of the respondents revealed a considerably high, but not maximum level of knowledge on tourism among respondents. Again, the convergent and discriminant validities were accessed on knowledge, with values of 0.891 and 0.790 respectively. Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was accessed, and a threshold of 0.7 and knowledge value of 0.845 were recorded. When the value for α is 0.70 or more, the item scales are regarded as reliable (Hair, et al., 2010). With regards to the effect of knowledge on tourism development on participation and investment, a

significantly positive effect with an $f^2 = 0.023$ was observed. The knowledge on tourism was estimated to determine the increase in participation and investment in tourism development. In other words, keeping other determinants constant, knowledge could account for 82% of the observed variation in participation and investment. Knowledge about tourism had the second-largest effect on participation and investment. This is important, as the benefit itself has a large effect on the local community support for tourism development. In a similar vein, knowledge has a large and positive effect on participation and investment, with values of $\beta = 0.164$ and 0.182 . This coefficient indicates that for each unit increase in knowledge with other constructs, knowledge will result in a 0.162 and 0.182 increase in participation and investment in tourism development respectively.

In other words, a positive effect of knowledge on tourism development will indicate the importance of knowledge in participation and investment, as an increase in knowledge on tourism development results in a corresponding increase in local community support. One of the most influential factors in this study was knowledge, which accounted for 82 percent of the variation in both participation and investment. The findings show that having a good understanding of tourism has a favourable and significant impact on involvement and investment. The findings were theoretically compatible with prior studies that claimed that knowledgeable members of a community showed more positive support for tourism. According to the findings of this survey, socially, knowledgeable respondents see tourism development as favourable in their area of residence. The results are consistent with the attestation provided by Davis, et al. (1988); Gursoy & Rutherford, (2004); Moscardo, (2011); Zhang, et al., (2006). They came to the conclusion that greater knowledge was associated with more favourable assessments of tourism's benefits in community life, image, and economics. In line with Davis, et al. (1988), the respondents in this survey seemed to be equally aware of the industry's positive and bad effects on

their town, with the more knowledgeable ones aware of the ways tourism benefits their community.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient, indicated by +0.182, representing 38.2% and significant at 5% level of significance shows that the local community chiefly contributes to participation and investment. Thus, the results of the thesis on knowledge confirmed the growth and development of tourism in Langkawi. Knowledge has a significant effect on the factors affecting the intention and willingness of the local community to participate and invest in tourism development.

	<i>Knowledge (Zhang & Lei, 2016)</i> <i>Knowledge of participation and intention occur if:</i>
1	Participating in tourism development increases the community development.
2	Community has the awareness of their contribution to tourism development of Langkawi.
3	The Langkawi community is aware that investment in tourism provides employment for the people.
4	Langkawi tourism promotes public environmental awareness (promoting awareness)
5	Langkawi tourism development should focus on environmental education (environmental education) ...1st
6	The community is aware that investment in tourism contributes to the individual income
7	Langkawi tourism destination contributes to the Malaysia growth and development

Source: Author's computation

5.2.4 Motivation

Motivation is a need that drives people to act in a particular way in order to fulfil a desire. Since the early 1900s, motivation has been explored (Silva & Franca, 2012). Guay et al. (2010, p.712) defined motivation as "the underlying action of a reason."

Gredler et al. (2004) defined motivation as "the quality that prompts people to do or refrain from doing something" (p. 106). People that are motivated are more likely to reach high levels of performance and overcome obstacles to change. It is the driving force behind human behaviour direction, control, and persistence.

Motivation has an impact on the local community's attitudes and tourism growth. While emphasising on the perceived positive effects of tourism encourages community members to participate in tourism activities and programmes that promote tourism growth, focusing on the perceived negative effects diminishes community support for tourism (Jaafar, et al., 2015; Nicholas, et al., 2009; Gursoy, et al. 2002). As a result, community participation in tourism development is based on community concerns, interests, and perceptions of tourism development's effects (Hung, et al., 2011; Jepson, et al., 2014). In the absence of motivation to participate, the behaviour of the host community could deter the development of tourism in local development.

Based on the current findings, the Langkawi local community has shown a positive motivation towards tourism development (Silva & Franca, 2012; Guay, et al., 2010), and this motivation has resulted in a positive result via the participation and investment in tourism development (Gruen, et al., 2005, 2007; Maio & Haddock, 2009).

Another area worth discussing is the constructions of more theaters and exhibition centers. As tourism is associated with development, the construction of theaters and exhibitions centers will result in more development in a community. This development will attract visitors to the destination and improve the well-being of the local community. The Langkawi local community realises that the tourism industry is one of the most profitable and fastest-growing economic sectors contributing to socio-economic development. Constructions of more theaters and exhibition centers will provide

employment for most local communities, which will in turn, increases the local community's quality of life, and enhance their participation and investment. Their condition of living is equally correlated with their motivation, as the local community is satisfied by its wellbeing and development, and this satisfaction motivates them to participate in the tourism development of Langkawi. The motive of the local community to invest and participate in Langkawi's tourism is impressive, as it is believed by the local community that the construction of more theaters and exhibitions centers will bring about development to their community and increase their income. As such, an increase in their income level will trigger their increased participation in the development of Langkawi's tourism industry (Tosun, 2002; Andereck, et al., 2005; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Deery, et al., 2012).

The local community is easily motivated, owing to the absence of a considerable change in festivals and traditions. The traditions, festivals and natural environments are important factors contributing to the development of Langkawi's tourism. The local community of Langkawi showed positive results from the conservation of their traditions and festivals. As an instance, in the survey, Langkawi tourism encouraged the participation of the public in the conservation of their traditions and festivals; the more conserved their traditions and festivals are, the more the readiness of people to participate and invest in tourism development. The results on motivation indicate that the local communities are motivated to engage in participation and investment in tourism development if their traditions and festivals are conserved.

Again, more construction of infrastructural facilities in tourism destinations were observed. The construction of more infrastructures in Langkawi brought positive results, as the local communities were more enthusiastic to participate and invest in tourism development. These positive results are a product of the benefits resulting from tourism

development. Community members were motivated to engage in tourism development owing to their willingness involve in activities associated with tourism development. A most significant reason for their engagement in tourism development was due to the tendency of the industries to positively influence their lives via greater income, job prospects, improved living conditions, enhanced public infrastructure, increased recreational and entertainment options, and the promotion and preservation of local culture (Andereck, et al., 2005; McGehee, et al., 2002). Tourism, on the other hand, has the potential to harm local communities by increasing the cost of living, property prices, overcrowding and traffic congestion, and the prevalence of crime and narcotics (Tosun, 2002; Andereck, et al., 2005; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Latkova & Vogt, 2012; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Deery, et al., 2012).

With regards to motivation, this study considers push and pull factors as essential measures to determine the motives of the local community via the participation in tourism development. 69% of respondents are concerned with factors that will push them towards participation while 31% are more concerned with factors that will pull them into tourism development.

This construct was conceptualised as a fourth-order. In measuring motivation, the measurement model of motivation was based on the factor loadings of 0.768, 0.846 and 0.702 respectively (Figure 5.1), which exceed the recommended value of 0.70 (Hair, et al., 2017). The responses of the respondent revealed a considerably moderate level of motivation towards tourism development. The convergent and discriminant validities were accessed on motivation, and values of 0.817 and 0.774 were recorded. Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was also accessed with a threshold of 0.7, with the value of motivation being 0.753. The effect of motivation on tourism development on participation and investment is significantly positive, indicating that motivation is estimated to

determine an increase in participation and investment in tourism development. Motivation accounts for 68% of the variation in participation and investment, and founded on the motives of the LC towards tourism development, motivation has a positive and moderate effect on participation and investment, with β values of 0.239 and 0.140. This coefficient indicates that for each unit increase in motivation with other constructs, a 0.239 and 0.140 increase in participation and investment will be recorded in tourism development respectively. In other words, a significantly positive effect of motivation on tourism development will indicate the extreme importance of motivation on participation and investment. Motivation serves as an important construct in this thesis, accounting for 68% of the variation in participation. Findings indicate that motivation in tourism development had a significantly positive effect and relatively maximum impact on participation. The findings are in line with past motivation studies. The local community must strengthen its support by being highly motivated to participate in tourism development. Motivation is predicted to have a positive influence on a community's good impressions of tourism development, and a negative influence on their negative perceptions, according to Weber's theory and supporting research (Frederiks, et al., 2015). This implies that motivated communities tend to have more positive than negative perceptions of the impacts of tourism development.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient is presented as +0.239, representing 23.9% and significant at 5% level of significance, and depicting that the local community contributes to participation and investment. Thus, the results of the thesis on knowledge confirms the growth and development of tourism in Langkawi. It equally attests to the positive reaction of the local community towards their participation and investment in the tourism development of Langkawi. The studies of Rasoolimanesh, et al. (2017); Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, (2016); Jaafar, et al. (2015); Jepson, et al. (2014); Nicholas, et al. (2009); Dyer, et al. (2007); Sukoco & Wu, (2010); Jaafar, et al. (2017); Deery, et al.

(2012); Gursoy, et al. (2010); Latkova & Vogt, (2012); Andereck, et al. (2005); Tosun, (2002); Hung, et al. (2016), MacInnis, et al. 1991; Gruen, et al. 2005; Hung, et al. 2011; Park & Yoon, (2009) all support motivation as an element to participation.

	<i>Motivation (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2016; Sukoco, B.M & Wu, W.Y., 2010) (IV)</i>
	<i>The community is motivated if</i>
1	Tourism developments does not cause destruction to agricultural activities
2	Building of more theaters and exhibitions are encouraged.
3	Tourism improves public goods and services such as education.
4	There is more construction of infrastructural facilities in the tourism destination.
5	There is no considerable change of festivals & traditions of the community.

Source: Author's computation

5.2.5 Savings

Tourism development is a capital-intensive activity that necessitates the local community's purposeful effort to increase their saving capacity. While income is intended to equal expenditure in order to help maximise the desired level of consumption, the local community's view of savings would motivate them to join in and invest in tourism development. Kuznets (1955), on the other hand, claimed that saving capacity is determined by the level of income and the rate of return on savings. The willingness to save deprives the household of current consumption, but promotes the participation and enjoyment of future consumption. Local communities who saved or indulge in saving are always enthusiastic to invest and participate in tourism activities. Savings should be encouraged among individuals and directed to investments that will complement their personal fulfillment, as well as the growth of the economy. This growth basically depends on investments that address economic conflicts and community developmental interests,

and emphasises the link between development and the communities. The local community savings donates extricating features in the tourism development.

The income and savings of respondents are required for the measurement of savings. In this study, the bulk of respondents reported an average monthly salary of between RM 800 and RM 1500 (40 percent), with nearly 20% earning between RM 441 and RM 750. 10% of the respondents had a monthly income of between RM0 and RM 440, while 16% had a monthly income of between RM 2,001 and RM 3,000. 8 percent received income between RM 1,501 and RM 2,000, while 4% received income between RM 3,001 and RM 4,000. Only 2% of the respondents reported a monthly income of more than RM 5,000. The findings also revealed that 62% of respondents were saving a set amount from their monthly income, whereas 38% were not.

To capture different aspects of the community savings, this construct was conceptualised as a first-order with respect to the factors affecting the willingness to invest, and was categorised as a sixth-order with respect to the factors affecting participation intention. The reflective first-order constructs of this variable had substantial loading on the first-order construct involving community attachment, with values equal to 0.765, 0.760, 0.816, 0.831 and 0.808 respectively (Table 5.1). The subjective response of the respondents revealed a considerably high and maximum level of attachment to community savings at individual level. With regards to the effect of savings on participation and investment, a significantly positive effect with a β value of 0.022 was recorded. This implies that while other constructs remained constant, savings are estimated to increase by 0.022. On the other hand, the effect of savings on participation and investment was found to be positive, and this implies that for each unit increase in savings with other constructs remaining constant, savings will be significant. In other words, other determinants being held constant, savings determines 90% of the variation

in community investment and was initially hypothesised to have a simultaneous impact on both participation and investment. The convergent and discriminant validities were accessed on savings, and values of 0.874 and 0.763 were recorded. Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was accessed and a threshold of 0.7 and value of savings of 0.817 were recorded. When the value for α is 0.70 and above, the item scales are regarded as reliable (Hair, et al., 2010). The effect of tourism development-based savings on participation and investment is significantly positive with an f^2 value of 0.022, indicating that savings are estimated to determine an increase in participation and investment in tourism development. Tourism contributes significantly to the country's economic growth through tourism development and being an income that is not expended, or deferred consumption that is closely related to physical investment, it remains vital to the increment of available fixed capital, which contributes to economic growth. Development on its own, refer to the changes that occur as a result of human activities. Robert-Chambers, (2014) remarked that development could be taken to mean good change, and argues that the change could come from the elite or the "poor, marginalised, vulnerable and excluded". This statement is very vital, as it implies that no one is an absolute monopoly of knowledge in participation and development. When financed, empowered, and implemented, the impoverished can also come up with good ideas for positive change (Thomas, 2013. p. 2).

The monthly budget on expenditures is well planned to encourage savings. Savings was introduced as a variable to account for the saving power of the local community, owing to its macro outcome. Saving is defined as a part of income that is not spent on household consumption in macroeconomic theory, and it is commonly assumed that a higher proportion of income saved will granger cause economic growth (Attanasio, et al., 2000). Owing to its relation to investment, savings remains crucial to the economic progress of a country. The savings of the local community will not only contribute to their

well-being but also foster economic development in terms of country GDP and development. Findings indicate that members of the Langkawi local community who saved were more eager to participate and invest in tourism development.

It was also observed that members of the Langkawi local community saved money in investment organizations (co-operative societies, mutual funds, shares and bonds). According to the study, 47.6% of respondents in the study area engaged in cooperative savings, 22.4% were engaged in mutual funds, and approximately 30% were involved in shares and bonds. This result reveals that members of the Langkawi local community were involved in savings to ensure investment and participation in tourism development. Besides engaging in savings via cooperative societies, mutual funds, shares and bonds, several communities in Langkawi also engaged in insurance savings (e.g., pension and life insurance) to ensure tourism development.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient which is valued +0.121, representing 21.1% and significant at 5% level of significance, indicate that members of the local community contribute to tourism participation and investment. Thus, the result of the thesis on savings confirms the growth and development of tourism in Langkawi.

The results indicate that savings (i.e., SAV) have an optimistically positive and important effect on the factors influencing the willingness to invest and intention to participate. These findings are in line with the study conducted by Attanasio, et al. (2000) and Kuznets's, (1955) which highlights that savings was paramount to investment. Owing to the importance of the required capital, the study asserts that the inclusion of savings would enhance our understanding of the local community's willingness to invest and participate in tourism development.

	<i>Savings Capability</i> (Kuznets, 1955; Nyhus & Webley 2001, pp. 91; Thung et al 2012, European Central Bank 2017, pp.7)
1	I regularly save money in my current and savings account.
2	Monthly budget on expenditures is well planned to encourage savings.
3	In other to invest in tourism, I participate in insurance savings (example pension and life insurance).
4	As a member, I saved money in investment organizations (Co-operative society, mutual funds, shares and bonds).
5	Due to interesting value of tourism in Langkawi metropolis, I plan to save certain amounts in engaging in TSMEs at least RM100/month

Source: Author's computation

5.2.6 Expectation of benefit

Benefits are value domains that assist communities in making decisions about the subjective worth of tourism. In tourism, the expectation of benefits are value domains (i.e., economic, social and cultural benefits) that are personally derived by local communities from the tourism industry (Wang & Pfister, 2008). These benefits condition their perception of the impacts of tourism development.

In terms of expected benefits, this study evaluates the economic, social-cultural, and environmental implications of tourism development as critical indicators of the local community's willingness to participate and invest. 68% of respondents are concerned about the economic effects of tourism, 21% about the social-cultural effects, and 11% about the environmental effects of tourism development in their community. Local communities receive diverse amounts of advantages depending on their level of involvement, which has a substantial impact on their lives, and their involvement in various stages of growth results in favourable support for tourism development.

This construct was conceptualised as a third order having high loadings of 0.721, 0.792 and 0.818 (Figure 5.1). Majority of the locals were concerned with the benefits accrued from participating in tourism development and investing in the tourism industry. The subjective response of the respondents indicates a high level of expectation of benefits among the local community and their involvement in tourism development. The construct of expectation of benefit had a significant impact on participation and investment intention, as a positively significant effect of expectation of benefit was observed on the factors affecting the participation intention of the community and their willingness to invest, with β values 0.079 and 0.015. This implies that for each unit increase in expectation of benefit while other constructs are held constant, a 0.079 and 0.015 increase in participation and investment was recorded. The expectation of benefit was initially hypothesised to have a simultaneous impact on both participation and investment. The convergent and discriminant validities were accessed on the expectation of benefit using values of 0.821 and 0.778. Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient was accessed and a threshold of 0.7 and value of expectation of benefit of 0.763 were recorded. The effect of expectation of benefit in terms of tourism development on participation and investment was observed to be significantly positive, with an f^2 value of 0.000. Hence, the expectation of benefit was estimated to determine the increase in participation and investment in tourism development. In other words, other determinants being held constant, the expectation of benefit determines 81% of the variation in community participation and investment.

The benefits of tourism development in Langkawi can be divided into two categories: socioeconomic and environmental advantages. Employment, income creation, and entrepreneurial and investment opportunities are all examples of socio-economic benefits. The protection of natural resources, local awareness, increased quality of life, and the rebirth of traditions and culture are all examples of environmental advantages

(Adongo, et al., 2017; Garrod, 2003; Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015; Tokarchuk, et al., 2016). Although tourism has been proven to bring significant economic benefits, the extent to which it benefits the environment is still being debated (Gursoy, et al., 2009). The economic outcome is one of the most visible benefits used in the promotion of tourism in this regard (Gursoy, et al., 2002). Tourism advantages are readily perceived by host communities in terms of their expectations for guest arrivals (Nunkoo & So, 2015). When compared to communities that earn little or no revenue from tourism, those that benefit most from the socioeconomic and environmental benefits strongly support its growth (Almeida-García, et al., 2015; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004). In this regard, it has been established that communities' perceived advantages have a substantial impact on their support for tourism, suggesting that good perceptions of tourism activities lead to increased support for greater tourism activities (Blasco-López, et al., 2018; Garau-Vadell, et al., 2018; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011; Nunkoo & So, 2015).

The development of tourism yields positive and negative impacts. The positive impacts are what encourage people to participate, while the negative impacts discourage them from participating. Tourism is of immense benefit to the group of people in a tourism destination or location, and as a matter of fact, the local community expects certain benefits from tourism development. According to Kreag, (2001), the expectation of benefits is categorised into seven dimensions: environmental, economic, social and cultural, taxes, community attitude, crowding and congestion, and services. Zhang and Lei, (2012) utilised the financial benefits that were split into direct benefits, indirect and non-financial benefits by Koellner, et al. (2010). Empowerment and tourism consequences (both constructive and unfavorable) are among the others (Honey, 2008; Page & Dowling, 2002). To explain the projected advantages of tourism, Page et al. (2017) established the notion of wellbeing and public health.

Among traded goods and service marketplaces, the process by which a visitor arrives at a tourism destination, identifies tourism products, and incurs routine day-to-day living expenses in that destination is unique. The money spent by tourists on Langkawi goes straight to a variety of local businesses. Furthermore, the industry's structure favours TSMEs operating in the community, as members of the local community manage these TSMEs to improve their lives by earning more money and gratifying tourists in order to entice them to return to their community or satisfying the tourists to attract them to re-visiting their community. Communities that experience the perceived benefits from tourism activity tend to support tourism development compared to those that do not (Moghavvemi, et al., 2017). They were also observed to support tourism development in their communities when the perceived benefits outweigh its costs (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Jurowski, et al., 1997; Rasoolimanesh, et al., 2015). Therefore, the expectation of benefit is crucial to every local community, as it gingers them towards participation and investment. It can be inferred from the survey that the Langkawi local community gave their best based on the benefits accrued to tourism development.

Another area worthy of discussion is the improvement of public facilities. Tax payers should not be responsible for the maintenance of public facilities. The communities' responses were impressive towards participation and investment, and in the realisation of the government's effort in the maintenance of public facilities. In other words, it is more rewarding when public facilities are operational. It was also observed that the local community were interested in the operation of public facilities owing to the derived benefits. Thus, these benefits resulted in an increase in the Langkawi local community's participation in tourism development, as proposed by the study of (Zhang & Lei, 2012; Page, et al. 2017; Wong, 2004). In other words, the derivable benefits from tourism development encourage members of the Langkawi local community to participate and invest in tourism development.

Again, tourism results in an unmanageable crowd for the local population at beaches, parks and picnics. Tourism's benefits to host communities and its major contribution to their overall well-being, on the other hand, cannot be dismissed with a wave of the hand. Despite these short-term gains, observations in many advanced and developing countries show that tourism has caused significant damage and damaged the very resources that drew travellers to the region in the first place. Because of the industry's dual-pronged structure, it's critical to recognise the different issues it faces and establish effective management methods to assure its long-term viability. Most importantly, valuable resources, whether natural or cultural, must be preserved in perpetuity. Most local communities in Langkawi complained about the influx of tourists into their community. These complaints were mainly from indigenes that were not involved in tourism SMEs and were more concerned about their community than the economic benefits of tourism. The influx of tourists results in the overcrowding of beaches and parks, and as a result, the local community feels that to ensure the sustainability of their environment, responsibility should not necessarily rest exclusively with the government and other institutions, but also among the local communities.

With tourism, more local services like police and fire protection are required. The services of the police and firefighters were very instrumental to the development of Langkawi's tourism, and the community offered positive support as a result. As an instance, Langkawi local communities in the survey demonstrated massive participation and investment, owing to the services of the police, and were pleased to see their community protected. The greater the level of protection offered, the more the readiness of the people to participate and invest in Langkawi's tourism development. The respondents showed positive results.

The expectation of benefit has a substantial impact on investment and participation, and a community's view of tourism's benefits determines its willingness to support tourism (Choi & Murray, 2010). Studies have found that residents who perceive greater levels of benefit from tourism have more positive attitudes toward tourism and are more supportive of tourism development than those who do not (Jurowski, et al., 1997; Lankford & Howard, 1994; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Wang & Pfister, 2008), and studies have concluded that residents who perceive greater levels of benefit from tourism have more positive attitudes toward tourism and are more supportive of tourism development than those who do not. Among the many advantages provided by the tourism industry are the preservation of local jobs and businesses, as well as an improvement in the standard of living (Adongo, et al., 2017; Garrod, 2003; Nunkoo & So, 2015; Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015; Tokarchuk, et al. 2016). These advantages influence their daily lives and, as a result, influences the local community's participation in tourism growth (Jaafar, et al., 2015a; Nicholas, et al., 2009). When the expectations of benefit are high, their desire to involve in investment and participation increases. Ko and Stewart, (2002) discovered that the expectation of benefits was a strong determinant of communities' perceived positive impact of tourism, which contradicts the results recorded by Perdue, et al. (1990), in which benefits significantly predict negative impacts. The study conducted by Látková and Vogt's (2012) revealed benefits to significantly predict the positive and negative impacts of tourism. The studies of Page, et al. (2017); Zhang & Lei, (2012); Page, et al. (2017); Wong (2004); Kreag, (2001); Koellner et al. (2010); Honey, (2008); Page & Dowling, (2002) all support expectation of benefits as key to community participation.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient is indicated as +0.279, representing 27.9% and significant at a 5% level of significance, depicting that the local community

contributes to the people's participation and investment. Thus, the results of this thesis on the expectation of benefit confirms the tourism growth and development of Langkawi.

<i>Expectation of benefits</i>	
<i>The community expected that</i>	
1	Tourism benefits a small group of people in the tourism destination or location.
2	Tourism causes changes in the traditional culture of the tourism location
3	Improving public facilities should not be the responsibility of the tax payers, i.e. the community.
4	Tourism demands more local services like police and fire protection
5	Tourism should increase local government tax revenue through tourists' revenue participation.
6	Tourism causes unmanageable crowds for the local population at beaches, parks, picnic places.

Source: Author's computation

5.2.7 Opportunity

The term "opportunity" relates to how favourable a situation is to obtaining desired outcomes (Gruen, et al., 2007). It is an occasion or situation that makes it possible to do something that you want to do or have to do, or the possibility of doing something. Communities could provide activities for members to affiliate with (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; Schouten & McAlexander, 1995) or gain social status from (Leigh, et al., 2006; Füller, et al., 2007), and communities could provide preconditions such as political will, rules, and channels that make it possible for communities to participate in tourism activities and programmes (Hung, et al., 2011). Several situational aspects, such as time available or attention paid, have been identified by MacInnis and Jaworski (1989), all of which can help or hinder the desired outcome.

To assess opportunity, respondents' relationship with the government and policies (political will, rules and channels that make possible participation and investment) are required components. Sequel to the declaration of Langkawi as a tourist destination, the local community has had numerous employment opportunities. As an outstanding tourist destination, local communities in Langkawi are fortunate to have various employment opportunities owing to tourism development. They are also involved in many tourism-related jobs such as transportation, accommodation, restaurant, tourist guides, and many more. The study revealed that 71% of respondents were businessmen, 19%; general workers, and 10%; government employees. In this study, it was observed that the majority of respondents had (71%) opportunities to engage in tourism development.

To capture the aspects of opportunity in the community, this construct was conceptualised as a third-order construct, having dimensions "attention paid or time available", "political will", "rules" and "channels". The reflective first-order constructs of this variable had substantial loading on the third-order construct of community attachment, with loadings of 0.786, 0.879, and 0.873, respectively (Table 5.1). The majority of the respondents considered themselves to be connected to their community, and their subjective responses showed a high, but not maximal, level of community attachment at the individual level. With regards to the outcome of opportunity on participation and investment, a substantially optimistic result with a β value of 0.092 was recorded. This implies that while other constructs remained constant, opportunity was projected to increase by 0.092. On the other hand, the result of opportunity in participation and investment was observed to be positive. This means that for each additional unit in opportunity while other constructs are held constant, opportunity will be significant. In other words, other determinants being held constant, opportunity determines 78% of the variation in community participation and investment. The opportunity extended to community members gives them a sense of belonging and connection to their area of

living, and bonding to their community. Opportunity is described as the competence of the local community to offer events for its members (Salleh, et al., 2016). As a result, these chances are a measure of how conducive existing conditions are to community participation (Gruen, et al. 2005). Community engagement in programmes and tourism development is difficult without open channels of communication between community people and correspondence organisations (Aas, et al., 2005). As a result, the amount to which local political structures allow for and support community participation limits residents' participation (Aas, et al., 2005; Tosun, 2000; Hung, et al., 2011). Communities in undeveloped and rural areas, particularly in developing countries, believe that the centralised political structure and local decision-makers' aversion to power-sharing will work against them (Tosun, 2006; Aas, et al., 2005; Marzuki & Hay, 2012). As a result, for many rural citizens in developing countries, participating in the decision-making process is a foreign concept.

According to Christenson and Robinson, (1989), community development is defined as the process of improving people's socioeconomic and environmental conditions, as well as the eradication of poverty, in order to make their community a better place to live and work. This implies that the local community must be given the opportunity or allowed to participate in tourism activities in their community. To ensure the success and sustainability of tourism, the government must grant community members the freedom to express their views, as they are the most affected in tourism development. The opinions of community members matter a lot in tourism development and programs can be set to curtail friction between the local communities, tourists and external bodies. When communities are certain that local authorities and state government officials hearken to their opinions and offer opportunities to involve them in the decision-making process, they become more enthusiastic to participate. Local community engage in tourism development processes on the basis that local authorities will provide channels

and grant them the opportunities to partake in tourism development. Political institutions in most developing nations are centralised and top-down, with political parties and decision-makers reluctant to share power with citizens. Community participation may be difficult in such an environment, if not impossible (Tosun, 2006; Aas, et al., 2005; Marzuki & Hay, 2012). Ultimately, the community's level of participation and investment in tourism development borders on the extent to which local authorities allow them (Aas, et al., 2005; Tosun, 2000; Hung, et al., 2011). The opportunity granted to the local communities to air their views led to a positive result in Langkawi's tourism development.

The government provided an opportunity for investment through the tourism policy documents regarding the Langkawi tourism destination, which has led to the construction of several chalets and motels along the beaches of Pantai Tengah, Pantai Cenang, and Pantai Kok. These budget accommodations were built mostly by local landowners who did not want to miss out on the benefits. Therefore, allowing them to participate positively affects their well-being. The government creates policies that enable the local communities in Langkawi to be involve in tourism investment and based on the conducted survey, the local communities in Langkawi show great support in participation and investment, knowing fully well that their government will grant them the opportunity. The Langkawi structure plan outlines policies for several categories of protection in order to give development guidelines and conservation measures to ensure development management. This gives room for the involvement of locals in the planning and management of tourism. Langkawi local communities have become highly motivated in participation and investment, owing to the investment opportunities provided by policymakers.

Another area that is worthy of discussion is the consideration of the interests of community members in Langkawi's tourism development by the local authorities and state government officials, as Malaysian government policies give room for participation among local communities. The Malaysian sixth, seventh, and eighth plans give room for local community participation and investment in tourism development, and this opportunity results in a higher number of investments in tourism SMEs. This was achieved due to the government's extension of opportunities to its indigenes towards tourism participation. The government also established a special fund of RM 200million for tourism, which was meant for small and medium-sized projects. In addition, they also introduced a new clause in the investment incentive act of 1968, which resulted in the exemption of tour operators from income tax (Economic Planning Unit, 1991). The government recognised the role of tourism SMEs especially their entrepreneurial skills and have affected initiatives geared at improving efficacy in the tourism industry (Set, 2013). In addition to tourism products and services, the government has recognised the importance of tourism SMEs in the tourism industry by establishing financial and non-financial programmes to assist tourism SMEs' performance. The government also organised special training and guidance from appropriate agencies to ensure large community support in the development of tourism in Langkawi. These types of opportunity and partnership involvements result in a more harmonious relationship between the people, administrators, and the tourist industry.

Furthermore, availed opportunities by the local authorities and state government officials to be represented in the decision-making bodies bordered on Langkawi's tourism development. To involve the local community in the tourism development decision-making process, government, community managers and planners established educational information and programs (e.g., workshops, awareness programs) in these communities. The idea behind this is Malaysia's vision to transform its economy into one of the most

frequented tourist attractions in the world. The Malaysian government has made a concise effort towards tourism development, and has established plans towards the achievement of the tourism vision of the country. Many programs were established to ensure successful tourism development. These programs provide opportunities for community members to be represented in decision-making bodies relating to tourism development in their community and allows them to express their views and opinions on tourism matters. Due to these programs, Langkawi local communities show positive support in the participation and investment in the tourism development of their community.

In summary, the value of the path coefficient was presented as +0.328, representing 32.8% and significant at the 5% level of significance, implying that the local community contributes to participation and investment. Thus, the results of this thesis on opportunity confirms the tourism growth and development of Langkawi and equally attest to the positive reaction of the local community to the participation and investment in Langkawi's tourism development.

The impact of opportunity on the various factors affecting participation and investment was observed to be positive and significant. Opportunity was discovered to have a positive and significant effect on community participation intention and the willingness to invest in tourism development. These findings are in line with McCamley & Gilmore, (2017); Hung et al. (2016); Tosun, (2000); Tosun, (2006); Aas, et al. (2005); Marzuki & Hay (2012); Hung, et al. (2011); Salleh, et al. (2016); Gruen, et al. (2005); MacInnis & Jaworski, (1989); Muniz & O'Guinn, (2001); Schouten & McAlexander, (1995); Leigh et al. (2006); Füller et al. (2007), and their results conclude that members that are availed the opportunity are more sensitive to the positive and negative impacts of tourism compared to those who are not.

	<i>Opportunity (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017)</i>
1	The government provides an opportunity for investment through the tourism policy documents regarding the Langkawi's tourism destinations.
2	The local authorities and state government officials availed me of the opportunities to be represented in decision-making bodies regarding Langkawi's tourism development.
3	The local authorities and state government officials consider my interests in terms of Langkawi's tourism development.
4	The local authorities and state government officials provide an opportunity for my opinions regarding Langkawi's tourism development to be heard.
5	Financial opportunities are available to tourism investors in Langkawi.
6	There is an opportunity to join the tourism association of Langkawi's tourism location.

Source: Author's computation

In conclusion, the relationship between attitude, motivation, knowledge, opportunity, expectation of benefit, and savings on factors affecting participation intention and investment were observed to be significant. Partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to estimate the parameters for the construct on participation and investment, and it was discovered that all the constructs had positive and significant effects on the factors affecting the intention of the local community to participate and willingness to invest in tourism development.

5.3 Empirical Results

This section presented the empirical results for the three objectives of the study and each objective was presented sequentially in 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 with sub-subsections. First, the thesis presents the findings of the measurement and structural models.

5.3.1 The critical factors constraining the participation of the local community, and the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.

5.3.1.1 The Measurement Model

In this section, the results of the estimated measurement models are presented, which explains how the fully embodied estimated parameters are posited. The full-bodied was done to ensure the genuine representation of the estimated results, and the result of the measurement model is categorised into convergent validity (indicator reliability/ outer loading and average variance extracted), internal consistency and reliability (Cronbach's Alpha, Composite reliability, and Henseler's rho); discriminant validity, (Fornell & Larcker, Cross Loadings, Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations HTMT) (Ramayah, et al., 2018; Hair, et al., 2014; Wong, 2013).

5.3.1.2 Model Stability

Firstly, the stability of the estimated model was assessed. In SmartPLS-SEM estimation, a structural model would be stable in either of these two criteria: Firstly, the criteria that the calculation of the SmartPLS would stop when it attains the maximum iteration of 300. Secondly, the criteria that the SmartPLS calculation of the "stop criterion" (Wong, 2013) ends before the maximum iteration (Hair, et al., 2014). If either of these two occurs, the model is deemed to be stable. The earlier the algorithm iteration ends, the best the stability of the model. Hence, in the estimated structural model, the SmartPLS algorithm converged when the maximum iteration was 6. Thus, the PLS-SEM estimation of the structural model confirmed the best model stability, owing to the quick attainment of the algorithm compared to the maximum iteration of 300.

5.3.1.3 Reflective Measurement Model

To assess internal consistency, the factor loadings were examined and were observed to exceed the recommended value of 0.70 (Hair, et al., 2017). The constructs with low loadings are subsequently dropped as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Outer Loadings of the measurement model

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
ATT1	0.714								
ATT6	0.759								
ATT7	0.731								
ATT8	0.778								
EBF3		0.721							
EBF4		0.792							
EBF5		0.818							
ITPT1			0.919						
ITPT2			0.916						
ITPT3			0.917						
ITPT4			0.935						
KNG1				0.764					
KNG3				0.815					
KNG4				0.767					
KNG6				0.897					
KNG7				0.861					
MOTV2					0.768				
MOTV3					0.846				
MOTV4					0.702				
OPT2						0.786			
OPT5						0.879			
OPT6						0.873			
SAV1							0.765		
SAV2							0.760		
SAV3							0.816		
SAV4							0.831		
SAV5							0.808		
SID1								0.752	
SID2								0.911	
SID3								0.732	
SID4								0.854	
WTIV1									0.756
WTIV2									0.744
WTIV3									0.797
WTIV4									0.809
WTIV5									0.704
WTIV6									0.742

Source: Author's computation

Note: Attitude (ATT), Expectation of benefit (EOB), Intention to participate (ITPT), Knowledge (KNOW), Motivation (MOT), Opportunity (OPP), Savings (SAV), Social identity (SID), Willingness to invest (WTIV).

The convergent and discriminant validity of a reflecting measurement model were evaluated. The degree to which markers of a certain construct share a significant proportion of variance in common is known as convergent validity (Hair, et al., 2010). Factor loadings and AVE are employed to test convergent validity, as recommended by Hair et al. (2017). The composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) of the reflective constructs are presented in table 5.4, and all constructs attain the minimum cut-off values of the threshold for CR and AVE, where all CRs exceed 0.7 and all AVEs exceed 0.5 after some of the items were dropped (Hair, et al., 2017). At this point, it can be concluded that the constructs satisfy the requirements of reliability and convergent validity. In social sciences research, the internal consistency of an estimate is always measured. Hence, it is assessed by the estimated parameters using the Cronbach Alpha (CA) and composite reliability. The outcome of the Cronbach Alpha estimation is presented in Table 5.4, indicating a threshold of 0.7. The values of the latent variables in Table 5.2 also reveal 0.652, 0.673, 0.941, 0.845, 0.663, 0.750, 0.817, 0.771 and 0.839 for ATT, EOB, INTP, KNOW, MOT, OPPT, SAV, SID and WTIV respectively. All the latent variables attained the threshold minimum of 0.7, which conforms to the Cronbach alpha criterion. Furthermore, based on the study conducted by Anderson Gerbing on the convergent validity analysis criteria, and Bagozzi & Yi; confirmatory factor analysis evaluation criteria, Gefen, Straub and Boudreau goodness of fit indicates the recommended data to assess. The assessment standard is (1) the respective fields' significance of the factor loading indicators; (2) when the various dimensions of composite reliability exceed 0.7; (3) the average variance extracted (AVE) exceed 0.5 (although 0.4 can be accepted). Fornell & Larcker highlighted that on the occasion the AVE is less than 0.5 but composite reliability is higher than 0.6, the convergent validity of the construct is still adequate. Using the Cronbach Alpha method to assess the internal

consistency in the estimation of the PLS-SEM is weak. This was based on the premise that it provided a conservative measurement in the PLS-SEM (Chin, 2010; Wong, 2013).

This study further analysed the alternative method to Cronbach as suggested in Bagozzi and Yi (1988), and Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2012), and it was argued that the use of composite reliability in PLS estimations was more appropriate to determine the internal consistency of the model (Wong, 2013). The composite reliability benchmark is greater or equal to 0.6 (Wong, 2013), and Table 5.4 presents the composite and average variance extracted (AVE).

All variables are tested for reliability to see if the measurement scale is measuring what it supposed to be measuring. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) coefficient is used to assess reliability and verify the adequacy of internal consistency. The item scales are considered dependable when the value of (α) is 0.70 or above (Hair, et al., 2010). Cronbach's Alpha values for all constructions were found to be between 0.700 and 0.941, and all variables met the required level of value without the need to eliminate any items, according to internal consistency and reliability assessments. ATT. attained an α value of 0.742 while EOB accomplished an α value of 0.763. ITPT; α value of 0.941, KNOW; α value of 0.845, MOT.; achieved α value of 0.663, which is approximately 0.700. OPPT.; achieved an α value of 0.750, SAV.; achieved an α value of 0.817, SID achieved an α value of 0.771. Finally, WTIV reached a value of 0.839. The overall survey instrument appears to have reached the requisite degree of internal consistency, since all variables had values of 0.7 or higher. As a consequence, all constructs give appropriate coverage of the ideas, all items are understandable and clear, and the questionnaire is a reliable measurement tool, implying that the scale measurement has adequate internal consistency and reliability.

Table 5.4: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Attitude	0.742	0.662	0.793	0.582
Expectation of benefit	0.763	0.675	0.821	0.606
Intention to participate	0.941	0.945	0.958	0.850
Knowledge	0.845	0.864	0.891	0.624
Motivation	0.753	0.677	0.817	0.600
Opportunity	0.750	0.763	0.859	0.673
Savings	0.817	0.821	0.874	0.583
Social identity	0.771	0.849	0.854	0.602
Willingness to invest	0.839	0.845	0.882	0.556

Source: Author's computation

Note: The threshold of composite reliability 0.6.

5.3.1.4 Discriminant Validity using Fornell-Lacker Criterion

The model's discriminant validity was investigated further, and it was discovered that the indicators should load more heavily on their constructs than the other constructs in the model, and that the average variance shared by each construct and its measurements should be greater than the variance shared by the construct and other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 5.5 highlights that all constructs exhibit adequate and acceptable discriminant validities (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), where the square root of AVE (diagonal) exceeds the correlations (off-diagonal) for all reflective constructs.

Table 5.5: Discriminant Validity using Fornell-Lacker Criterion

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
Attitude	0.702								
Expectation of benefit	0.400	0.778							
Intention to participate	0.472	0.210	0.922						
Knowledge	0.600	0.497	0.36	0.790					
Motivation	0.256	0.247	0.193	0.340	0.774				
Opportunity	0.361	0.314	0.522	0.453	0.317	0.820			
Savings	0.410	0.406	0.436	0.526	0.265	0.538	0.763		
Social identity	0.322	0.271	0.420	0.390	0.308	0.443	0.465	0.776	
Willingness to invest	0.509	0.351	0.467	0.541	0.293	0.555	0.491	0.463	0.746

Source: Author's computation

Note: Diagonals represent the square root of the AVE while the off-diagonals represent the correlations.

Table 5.6 portrays a method of discriminant analysis, employing a comparison of the cross-loadings between constructs. Each indicator is expected to load high on its construct but low on another construct when cross-loading is used to assess the discriminant validity. As specified in the table, all indicators load high on their construct but low on the other constructs. The constructs are different from each other, which is an indication that discriminant validity is achieved.

Table 5.6: Cross-Loadings

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
ATT1	0.614	0.345	0.215	0.421	0.178	0.285	0.316	0.216	0.367
ATT6	0.759	0.314	0.302	0.56	0.186	0.204	0.341	0.221	0.339
ATT7	0.641	0.282	0.351	0.219	0.191	0.254	0.19	0.281	0.347
ATT8	0.778	0.206	0.424	0.488	0.167	0.271	0.312	0.19	0.377
EBF3	0.257	0.721	0.105	0.354	0.208	0.206	0.266	0.262	0.293
EBF4	0.341	0.792	0.231	0.453	0.171	0.29	0.392	0.174	0.264
EBF5	0.332	0.818	0.144	0.344	0.201	0.229	0.278	0.200	0.262
ITPT1	0.434	0.132	0.919	0.275	0.169	0.451	0.366	0.363	0.419
ITPT2	0.389	0.125	0.916	0.264	0.184	0.421	0.328	0.347	0.403
ITPT3	0.448	0.247	0.917	0.373	0.153	0.54	0.446	0.400	0.457
ITPT4	0.462	0.253	0.935	0.400	0.206	0.500	0.452	0.432	0.440
KNG1	0.488	0.397	0.208	0.674	0.314	0.348	0.345	0.325	0.385
KNG3	0.513	0.308	0.381	0.815	0.245	0.393	0.463	0.305	0.396
KNG4	0.282	0.290	0.24	0.677	0.204	0.334	0.31	0.267	0.343
KNG6	0.568	0.483	0.316	0.897	0.302	0.371	0.466	0.325	0.497
KNG7	0.489	0.470	0.26	0.861	0.282	0.350	0.469	0.325	0.496
MOTV2	0.212	0.112	0.145	0.223	0.768	0.193	0.135	0.238	0.165
MOTV3	0.153	0.204	0.148	0.198	0.846	0.317	0.256	0.306	0.233
MOTV4	0.240	0.252	0.157	0.38	0.702	0.212	0.213	0.163	0.279
OPT2	0.296	0.264	0.362	0.292	0.203	0.696	0.342	0.392	0.435
OPT5	0.365	0.304	0.488	0.463	0.268	0.879	0.521	0.382	0.473
OPT6	0.223	0.202	0.424	0.346	0.305	0.873	0.448	0.318	0.457
SAV1	0.304	0.424	0.323	0.497	0.250	0.447	0.675	0.378	0.379
SAV2	0.300	0.395	0.269	0.516	0.202	0.404	0.670	0.332	0.382
SAV3	0.312	0.220	0.358	0.314	0.174	0.392	0.816	0.343	0.344
SAV4	0.307	0.268	0.366	0.314	0.166	0.424	0.831	0.358	0.391
SAV5	0.339	0.250	0.338	0.38	0.222	0.384	0.808	0.358	0.373
SID1	0.216	0.169	0.324	0.314	0.154	0.364	0.374	0.752	0.323
SID2	0.360	0.292	0.413	0.388	0.319	0.395	0.451	0.911	0.451
SID3	0.030	0.126	0.184	0.054	0.127	0.177	0.125	0.532	0.168
SID4	0.288	0.215	0.337	0.356	0.299	0.393	0.406	0.854	0.419

WTIV1	0.360	0.260	0.410	0.366	0.291	0.477	0.362	0.381	0.756
WTIV2	0.383	0.202	0.499	0.352	0.206	0.459	0.384	0.450	0.744
WTIV3	0.421	0.209	0.394	0.410	0.298	0.422	0.330	0.370	0.797
WTIV4	0.414	0.292	0.320	0.408	0.246	0.497	0.414	0.411	0.809
WTIV5	0.394	0.346	0.215	0.477	0.113	0.288	0.349	0.226	0.704
WTIV6	0.299	0.274	0.231	0.424	0.133	0.312	0.356	0.195	0.652

Source: Author's computation

Note: Attitude (ATT), Expectation of benefit (EOB), Intention to participate (ITPT), Knowledge (KNOW), Motivation (MOT), Opportunity (OPP), Savings (SAV), Social identity (SID), Willingness to invest (WTIV).

Discriminant validity can also be assessed using the HTMT technique developed by Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015). As shown in Table 5.7, all the value satisfies the criterion of HTMT (Gold, et al. 2001) and the HTMT (Kline, 2015). HTMT refers to the ratio of correlations within the constructs to correlations between the constructs, and can be accessed in two ways:

Firstly, as a criterion (Stringent, Conservative) when the HTMT value exceeds 0.85 (Kline, 2015) and 0.90 (Gold, et al. 2001), indicating the problem of discriminate validity. Secondly, as a statistical test. Here when the confidence interval of the HTMT values of structural paths contains the value of 1, it indicates a lack of discriminate validity. Conversely, if the value of 1 fall outside the intervals range, it suggests that the two constructs are empirically distinct. The result of the HTMT inference shows that the confidence interval does not indicate a value of 1 on any of the constructs, and confirms that discriminant validity $-1 < HTMT < 1$ (Henseler, et al., 2015). All the values fulfill the criterion of the HTMT, which indicates that the discriminant validity has been ascertained. Besides, the result of the HTMT inference also implies that the confidence interval does not present a value of 1 on any of the constructs (Henseler, et al., 2015), which also confirms discriminant validity.

Table 5.7: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID
Attitude								
Expectation of benefit	0.626							
Intention to participate	0.587	0.253						
Knowledge	0.806	0.652	0.397					
Motivation	0.400	0.368	0.246	0.465				
Opportunity	0.526	0.439	0.624	0.569	0.44			
Savings	0.568	0.546	0.492	0.635	0.356	0.685		
Social identity	0.446	0.364	0.477	0.452	0.400	0.572	0.556	
Willingness to invest	0.689	0.472	0.528	0.646	0.387	0.695	0.595	0.54

Source: Author's computation.

5.3.1.5 Assessment of Structural Model

After establishing that MVs were free from multicollinearity issues, the analysis of the structural models was commenced (Chin, 2010). Going by the assessment of the PLS structural model, the study adhered to the basic rules of reporting PLS-SEM results. In assessing the structural model, it is vital to assess the collinearity issue where the VIF value equals or exceeds 5 (Hair, et al., 2010), or the more stringent criteria by Diamantopoulos and Sigouw, (2006), where the VIF value is 3.3 or higher, indicating a potential collinearity problem. Table 5.8 presents the values of the variance inflation factor (VIF) for all the latent variables, and results indicate the absence of multicollinearity problem among the latent dependent and independent variables. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted because the values of the latent variables were less than 5. In other words, the manifest variables (the predictor variables) influencing the latent variables were not linearly correlated.

Table 5.8 highlights the Inner VIF values for the independent variables (Attitude, Expectation of benefit, Knowledge, Motivation, Opportunity and Savings) as being lower than 5 and 3.3, indicating that collinearity was not a concern (Hair, et al., 2017).

Table 5.8: Collinearity Statistic (VIF) – Inner

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
ATT			1.633						1.627
EOB			1.41						1.41
ITPT									
KNOW			2.078						2.068
MOT			1.209					1	1.184
OPP			1.603						1.542
SAV			1.784						1.697
SID			1.43						
WTIV									

Source: Author's computation

Note: Attitude (ATT), Expectation of benefit (EOB), Intention to participate (ITPT), Knowledge (KNOW), Motivation (MOT), Opportunity (OPP), Savings (SAV), Social identity (SID), Willingness to invest (WTIV).

The result of the path analysis is presented in this section. Hence Table 5.9 showed the findings of the path coefficient of the estimated model.

Table 5.9: Path Coefficient and Hypotheses Testing

	Std. Beta	Sample Mean	Std. Error	T Statistics	P Values
ATT -> ITPT	0.328	0.332	0.061	5.408	0.000
ATT -> WTIV	0.223	0.220	0.051	4.401	0.000
EOB -> ITPT	0.279	0.271	0.055	4.318	0.037
EOB -> WTIV	0.215	0.222	0.047	4.127	0.043
KNO -> ITPT	0.164	0.064	0.073	1.876	0.082
KNO -> WTIV	0.182	0.188	0.065	2.784	0.006
MOT -> ITPT	0.239	0.043	0.053	1.726	0.050
MOT -> SID	0.308	0.309	0.057	5.454	0.000
MOT -> WTIV	0.140	0.038	0.050	2.097	0.026
OPPT -> ITPT	0.328	0.322	0.060	5.475	0.000
OPPT-> WTIV	0.310	0.306	0.056	5.528	0.000
SAV -> ITPT	0.121	0.124	0.07	2.098	0.043
SAV -> WTIV	0.120	0.120	0.057	2.099	0.036
SID -> ITPT	0.171	0.171	0.055	3.093	0.002

Source: Author's Computation

Note: **p<0.01, *p<0.05.

Note: Attitude (ATT), Expectation of benefit (EOB), Intention to participate (ITPT), Knowledge (KNOW), Motivation (MOT), Opportunity (OPP), Savings (SAV), Social identity (SID), Willingness to invest (WTIV).

The target relationship was discovered in the path coefficient of ATT to ITPT and OPPT to ITPT, which highlights an effect that is stronger than other paths of the structural model. It had an effect of 0.328, representing a 41% positive effect of ATT to ITPT and OPPT on ITPT. (See Table 5.9).

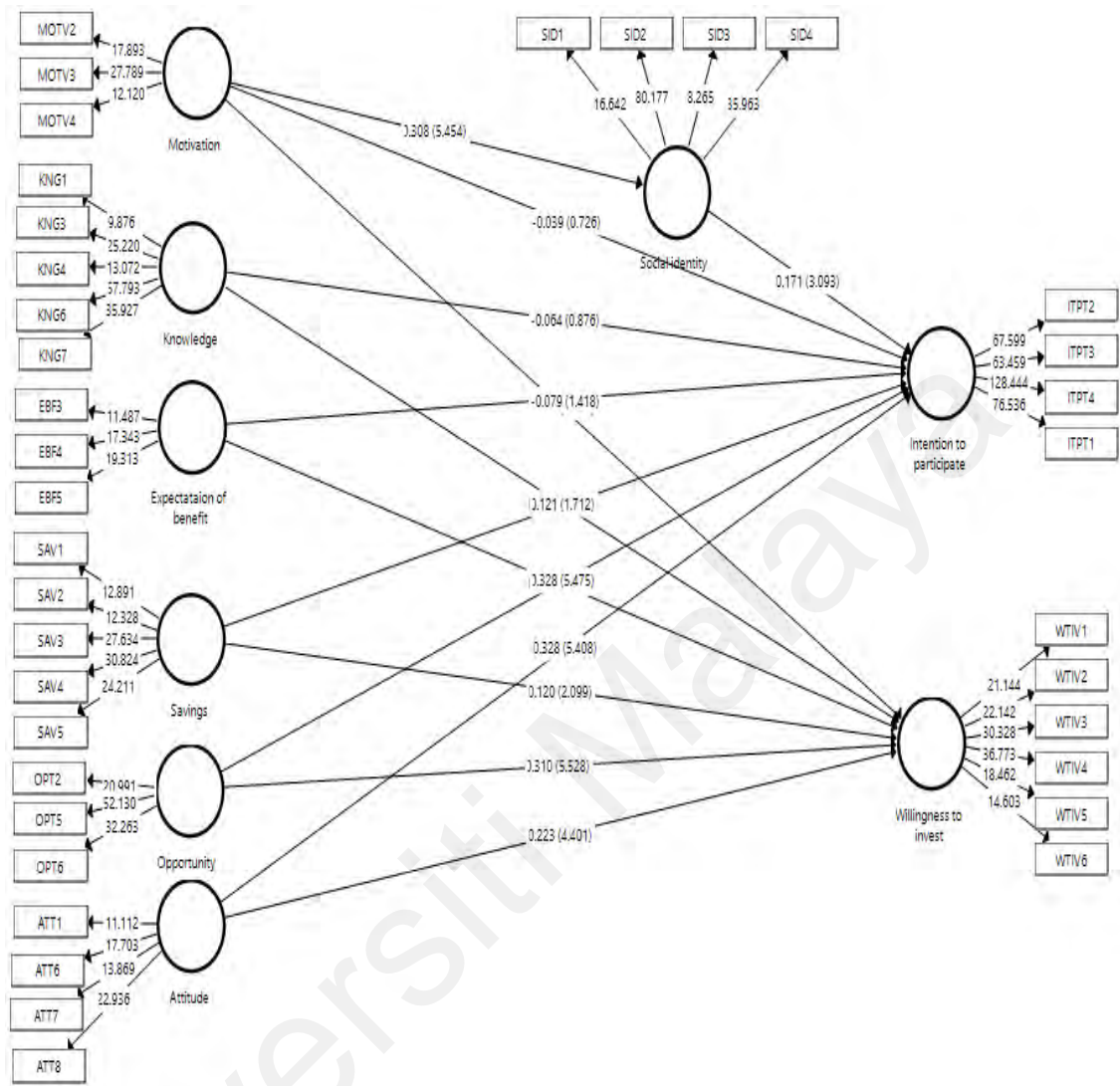


Figure 5.1: The Structural Model with t-value.

5.4 Research Objective 3

Objective 3 examined the mediating effect of social identity, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity with respect to the local community on the relationship between motivation and the intention to participate in tourism development. To promote the development of tourism, there is a need for community members to be motivated in activities that affect them. As such, the study asserts that the self-esteem, self-categorisation, and affective commitment (Sukoco & Wu, 2010) of the local community are gestural views proposed to mediate the relationship between social identity and the intention to participate. This aspect is directly

captured by the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978). Self-categorisation enables a person to have a purposeful formation of themselves in a social group. In this instance, “a social group is a set of individuals who hold a common social identification or view themselves as member of the same social category” (Stets & Burke, 2000, P.225). Stets and Burke, (2000) proposed “in-group” and “out-group” as the categorisation of social groups. The “in-group” refers to others that have similarities to ‘the self’ while “out-group” refers to others that ‘differ to the self’. In so doing, the local community in this study supports the in-group category in which tourism destinations have similar identities, forming tourist centers.

To detect the mediating effects, all mediators in the model including motivation, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity, social identity, and intention to participate were examined. Based on the obtained result, it can be concluded that the mediations are significant at t-values > 1.96 and p-values <0.05.

The bootstrapping analysis shows that the indirect effects, $\beta = 0.062$, are significant with a t-value of 2.851. Furthermore, the indirect effect 95% boot CI Bias Corrected: (LL = 0.123, UL = 0.111 do not straddle a 0 in between, indicating the presence of mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008). The results of the mediating effect testing indicate that social identity provides mediation on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate, supporting the hypotheses. The result can be concluded that the mediating effect is significant.

Assessment of R^2

The coefficient of determination score R^2 is a measure of the model’s predictive accuracy which represents the amount of variance in the endogenous construct explained by all of the exogenous construct linked to it. Table 10 shows the values of Social identity

(0.095) consider weak and Intention to participate (0.404) and willingness to invest (0.460) can be considered Moderate (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 10: Coefficient of Determination score R^2

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Intention to participate	0.404	0.392
Social identity	0.095	0.093
Willingness to invest	0.460	0.451

Effect Size (f^2)

According to Cohen (1988), f^2 values of 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02 are considered large, medium and small effect sizes respectively. If exogenous construct contributes to explaining an endogenous construct, the difference between R^2 included and R^2 excluded will be high, leading to a high f^2 . The effect size is calculated using formula below:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2 \text{ included} - R^2 \text{ excluded}}{1 - R^2 \text{ included}}$$

Table 11: f^2 (effect size)

	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
ATT		0.328						0.223
EOB		-0.079						0.015
ITPT								
KNOW		-0.064						0.182
MOT		0.014					0.308	0.040
OPP		0.328						0.310
SAV		0.121						0.120
		0.171						

Assessment of Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

Stone-Geisser Predictor relevance (Q^2) are often used to assess predictive relevance and can be calculated using blindfolding procedure which is a resampling technique that systematically deletes and predicts every data point of the indicators in the reflective

measurement model of endogenous construct called value D - number from 5 to 12 (Chin, 2010). It is required that the number of sample size should produce a round number (not an integer number) when being divided by D. If the resulting value is larger than 0, then it indicates that the exogenous constructs have predictive relevance for endogenous constructs under investigation (Fornell & Cha, 1994). Blindfolding procedure is shown in Table 12. The results are in the right column (1-SSE/SSO). The predictive relevance Q^2 of intention to participate, social identity and willingness to invest has a value of 0.314, 0.052 and 0.234 respectively indicating that the model has predictive relevance based on the endogenous constructs (because the Q^2 values are considerably above zero).

Table 12: Q^2 (Stone-Geisser Predictor relevance)

	SSO	SSE	$Q^2 (=1 - \text{SSE}/\text{SSO})$	CVR	CVC
Attitude	1,528.00	1,528.00			
Expectation of benefit	1,146.00	1,146.00			
Intention to participate	1,528.00	1,048.30	0.314	0.314	0.679
Knowledge	1,910.00	1,910.00			
Motivation	1,146.00	1,146.00			
Opportunity	1,146.00	1,146.00			
Savings	1,910.00	1,910.00			
Social identity	1,528.00	1,449.24	0.052	0.052	0.366
Willingness to invest	2,292.00	1,754.59	0.234	0.234	0.377

Note: SSO=.....SSE=

	SSO	SSE	$Q^2 (=1 - \text{SSE}/\text{SSO})$
Attitude	1,528.00	1,243.03	0.186
Expectataion of benefit	1,146.00	876.706	0.235
Intention to participate	1,528.00	490.708	0.679
Knowledge	1,910.00	1,082.98	0.433
Motivation	1,146.00	880.41	0.232
Opportunity	1,146.00	744.612	0.35
Savings	1,910.00	1,196.38	0.374
Social identity	1,528.00	969.465	0.366
Willingnessto invest	2,292.00	1,427.72	0.377

According to Hair et.al (2017), cross-validated redundancy (CVR) is recommended as a measure of Q^2 since it includes the key element of the path model and the structural model to predict eliminated data points. As shown in Table 12/ Figure 2. The Cross-Validated Redundancy (CVR) uses the path model estimates approach of both the structural model (scores of the antecedent constructs) and the measurement model (target endogenous construct) with intention to participate = 0.314 and willingness to invest 0.234. And, Table 10/ Figure 3, Construct Crossvalidated Communality (CVC) approach used where the construct scores estimated for the target endogeneous construct (without including the structural model information) to predict the omitted data points with result of intention to participate = 0.679 and willingness to invest 0.377.

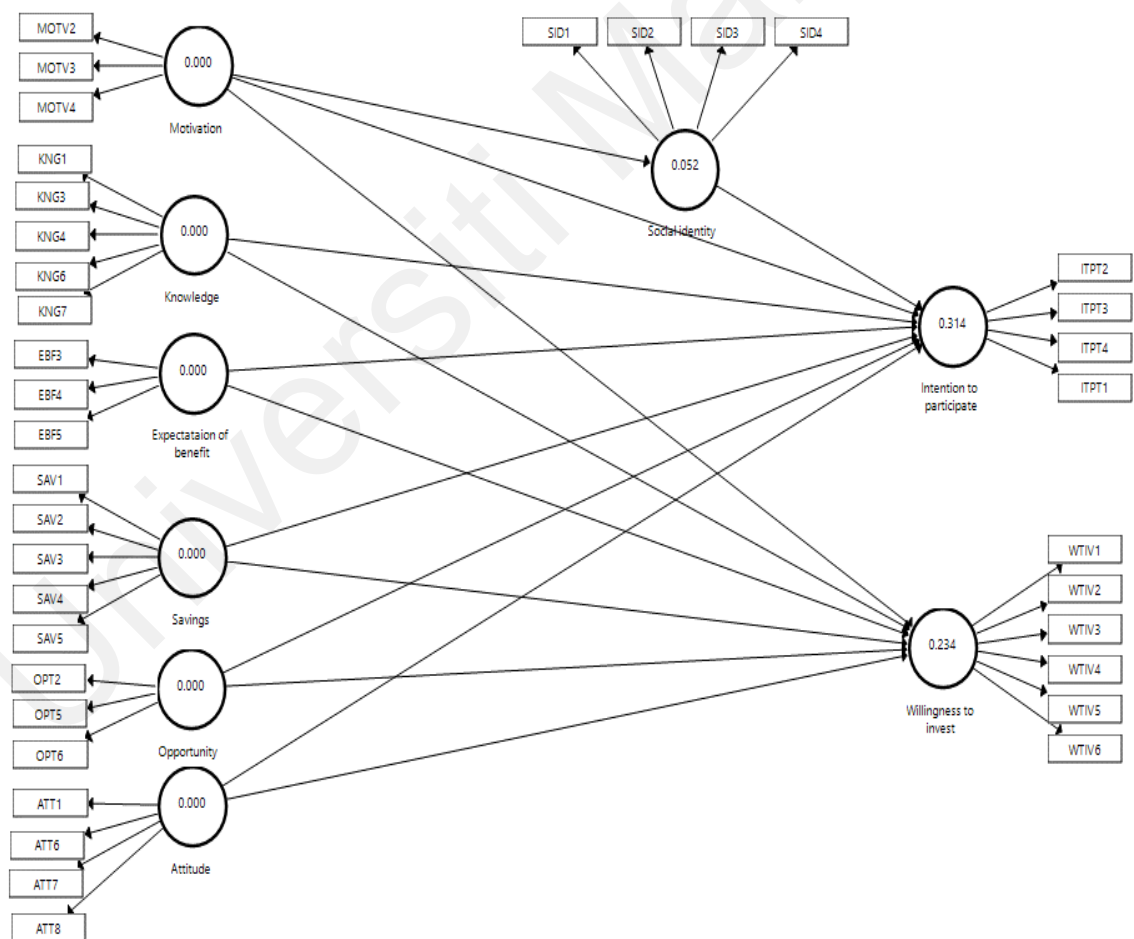


Figure 5.2: Cross- Validated Redundancy (CVR)

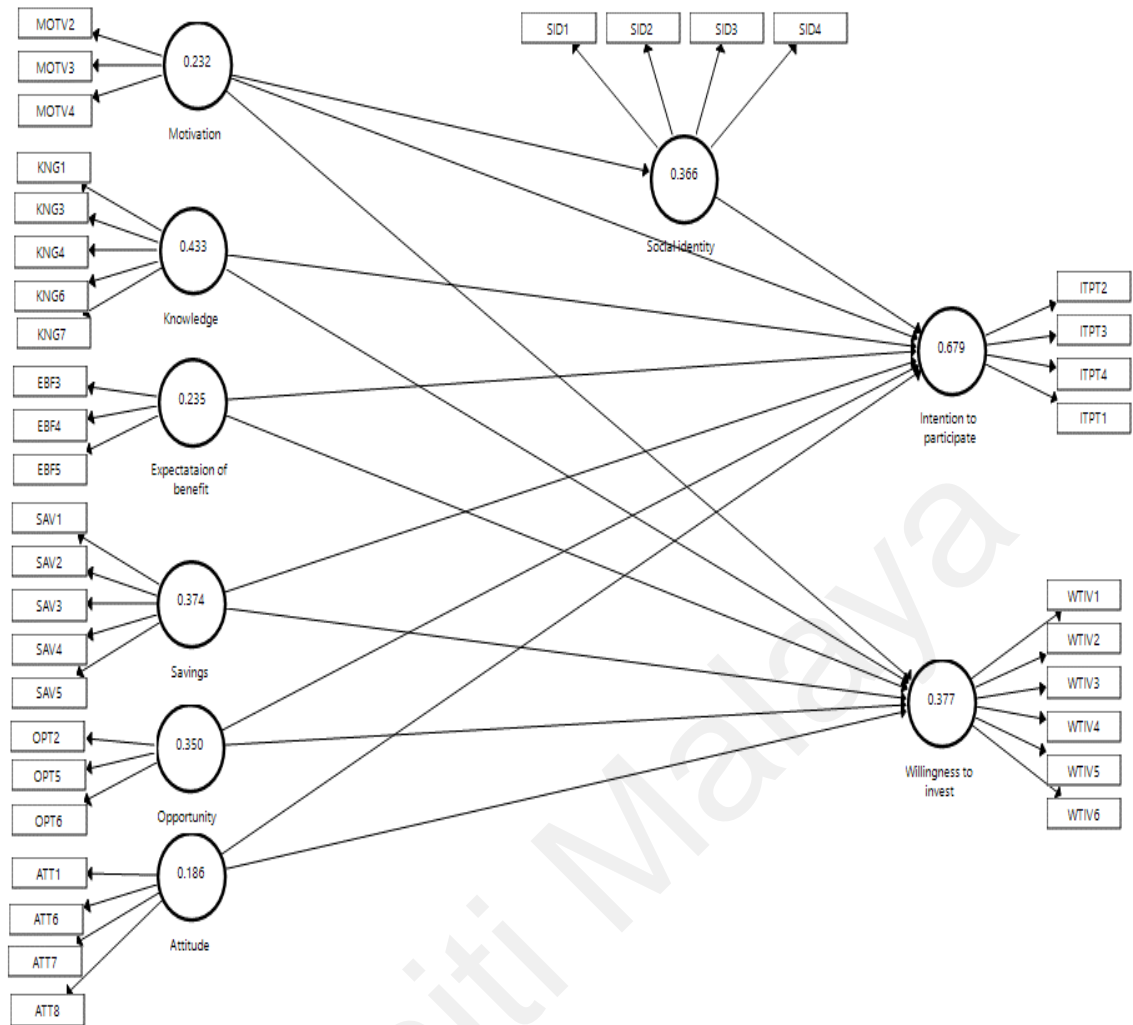


Figure 5.3: Construct Crossvalidated Community (CVC)

In this study, 13 hypotheses are developed between the constructs. In order to test the significance level, t-statistics for all paths are generated using SmartPLS 3.0 bootstrapping function. Based on the assessment of the path coefficient as shown in Table 7, all the hypotheses are found to have $t\text{-value} \geq 1.645$, except Expectation of benefit and willingness to invest, $t\text{-value} = 0.327$; Knowledge and Intention to Participate, $t\text{-value} = 0.876$; Motivation and Intention to Participate, $t\text{-value} = 0.726$; Motivation and Willingness to invest, $t\text{-value} = 0.797$, thus significant at 0.05 level of significance. The predictors of Attitude on intention to participate and willingness to invest ($\beta = 5.408, p < 0.000$ & $4.401, p < 0.000$), Expectation of Benefit and Intention to Participate ($\beta = 1.418, p < 0.157$), Knowledge and Willingness to Invest ($\beta = 2.784, p < 0.006$), Motivation and Social Identity ($\beta = 5.454, p < 0.000$), Opportunity and Intention to Participate ($\beta = 5.475,$

$p < 0.000$), Opportunity and Willingness to Invest ($\beta = 5.528$, $p < 0.000$), Savings and Intention to Participate ($\beta = 1.712$, $p < 0.087$), Savings and Willingness to Invest ($\beta = 2.099$, $p < 0.036$), Social Identity and Intention to Participate ($\beta = 3.093$, $p < 0.002$) are positively related on Intention to Participate and Willingness to Invest.

5.4.1 To determine the mediating effect of social identity and other constructs regarding the local community on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development.

5.4.1.1 The Measurement Model

This study examines the mediating relationship between the independent variables, motivation, and the dependent variable intention to participate was analysed. Also, the mediating effect of the social identity, attitude, expectation of benefit, knowledge, opportunity was assessed. To detect the mediating effects, all mediators used in the model (including motivation, attitude, knowledge, opportunity, expectation of benefit, social identity and intention to participation) were examined. It was concluded based on our result that attitude, motivation and opportunity are significant, given t-values > 1.96 and p-values < 0.05 , while expectation of benefit and knowledge did not have any significant effect.

The bootstrapping analysis showed that 3 of 5 indirect effect was significant. Motivation -> Attitude -> Intention to Participate, $\beta = 0.186$ is significant, with a t-value of 3.388 being statistically significant. The indirect effects 25% and 95% Boot CI Bias Corrected: [LL=0.044, UL= 0.141]. Motivation ->Opportunity-> Intention to participate $\beta = 0.103$, is significant, with a t-value of 3.950 being statistically significant. The indirect effects 25% and 95% Boot CI Bias Corrected: [LL= 0.054, UL= 0.160] and Motivation->Social Identity -> Intention to participate, $\beta = 0.169$, are significant, with a t-values of

3.114, 3.950 and 3.114 respectively. The indirect effects 25% and 95% Boot CI Bias Corrected: [LL= 0.030, UL= 0.120]

On the other hand, Motivation -> Expectation of benefit -> Intention to Participate, $\beta = -0.022$ is not significant, with a t-value of 1.172. The indirect effects 25% and 95% Boot CI Bias Corrected: [LL= -0.062, UL=0.005]. Motivation -> Knowledge -> Intention to Participate, $\beta = -0.010$ is not significant, with a t-value of 0.344. The indirect effects 25% and 95% Boot CI Bias Corrected: [LL= -0.071, UL=0.045]. The results of mediating effect analysis showed the mediating effect of social identity, attitude, opportunity, knowledge, on the relationship between motivation and intention to participate in tourism development. While there is no significant relation between expectation of benefit, knowledge on intention to participate. We can conclude from the result that the mediation effects are significant for H1, H3 and H5. Based on the observed values of the direct relationship with the mediation, a significant relationship is observed between social identity and the intention to participate on tourism development. The result of mediation analysis is presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Hypotheses Testing on Mediation

Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	T. Value	P. Value	Confid. Interval		Decision
					LL	UL	
MOT -> ATT -> ITPT	0.185	0.086	3.388	0.001	0.044	0.141	Supported
MOT -> EOB -> ITPT	-0.020	-0.020	1.172	0.242	-0.062	0.005	Not Supported
MOT -> KNO -> ITPT	-0.010	-0.009	0.344	0.731	-0.071	0.045	Not Supported
MOT -> OPPT-> ITPT	0.103	0.104	3.950	0.000	0.054	0.160	Supported
MOT -> SID -> ITPT	0.169	0.070	3.114	0.002	0.030	0.120	Supported

Note: (MOT -> ATT-> ITPT) Motivation-> Attitude-> Intention to participate, (MOT -> EOB -> ITPT) Motivation-> Expectation of benefit-> Intention to participate, (MOT -> KNOW -> ITPT) Motivation-> Knowledge-> Intention to participate, (MOT -> OPPT -> ITPT) Motivation-> Opportunity-> Intention to participate, (MOT-> SID -> ITPT) Motivation ->Social identity-> Intention to participate).

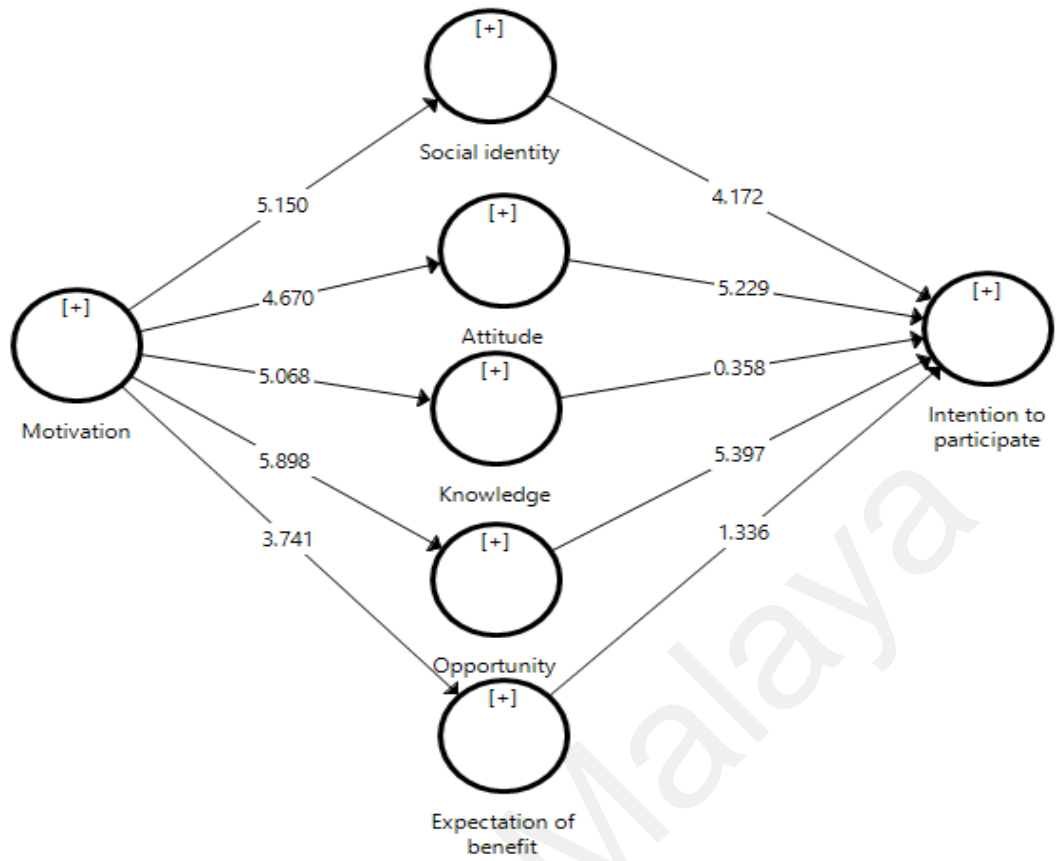


Figure: 5.4

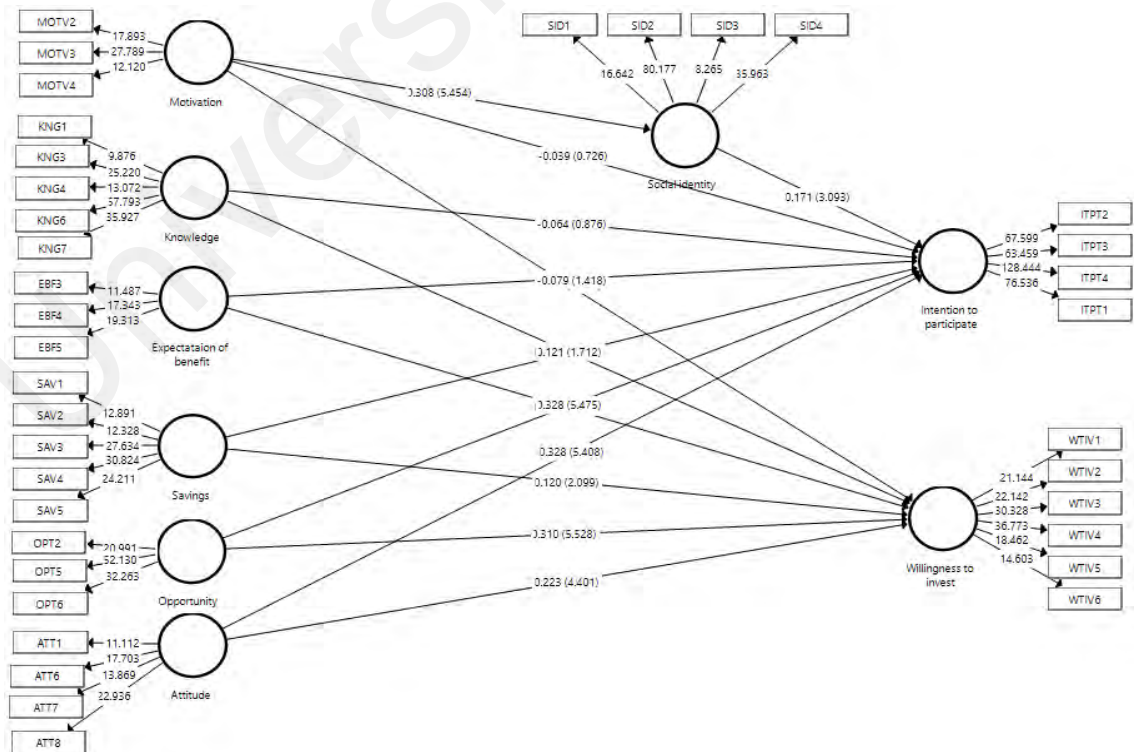


Figure 5.5: The structural model with t-value (two tails, bootstrapping, 0.05 significance level).

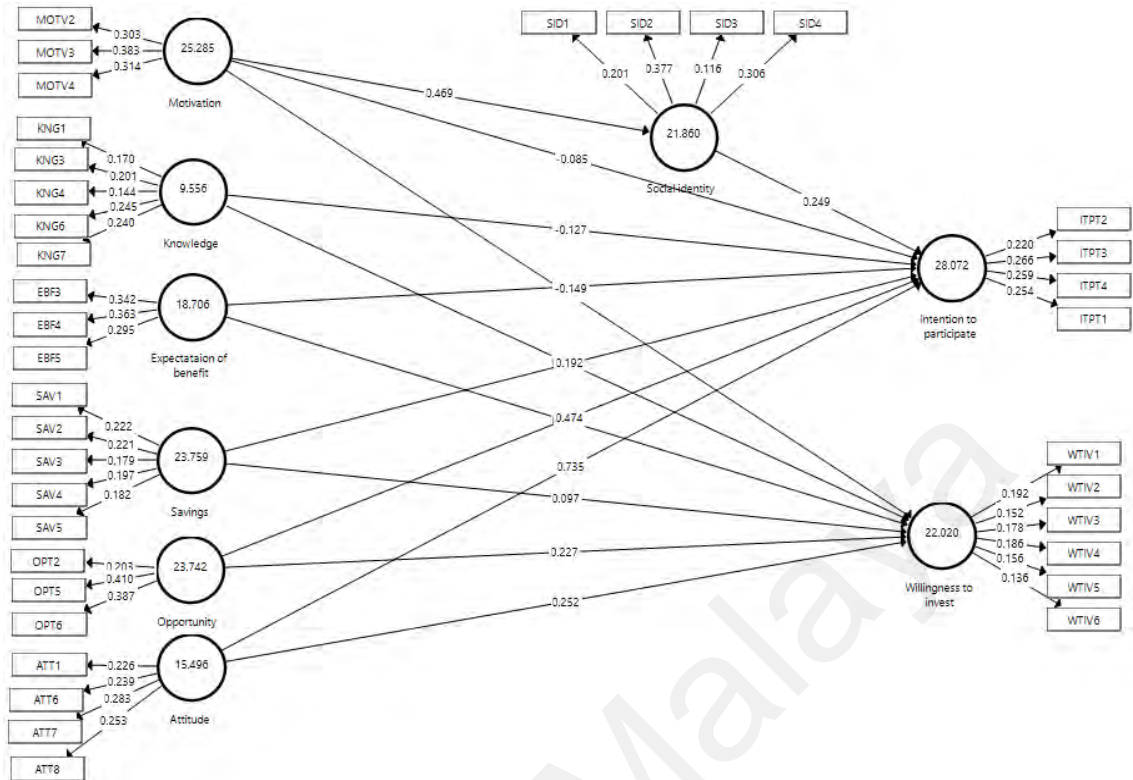
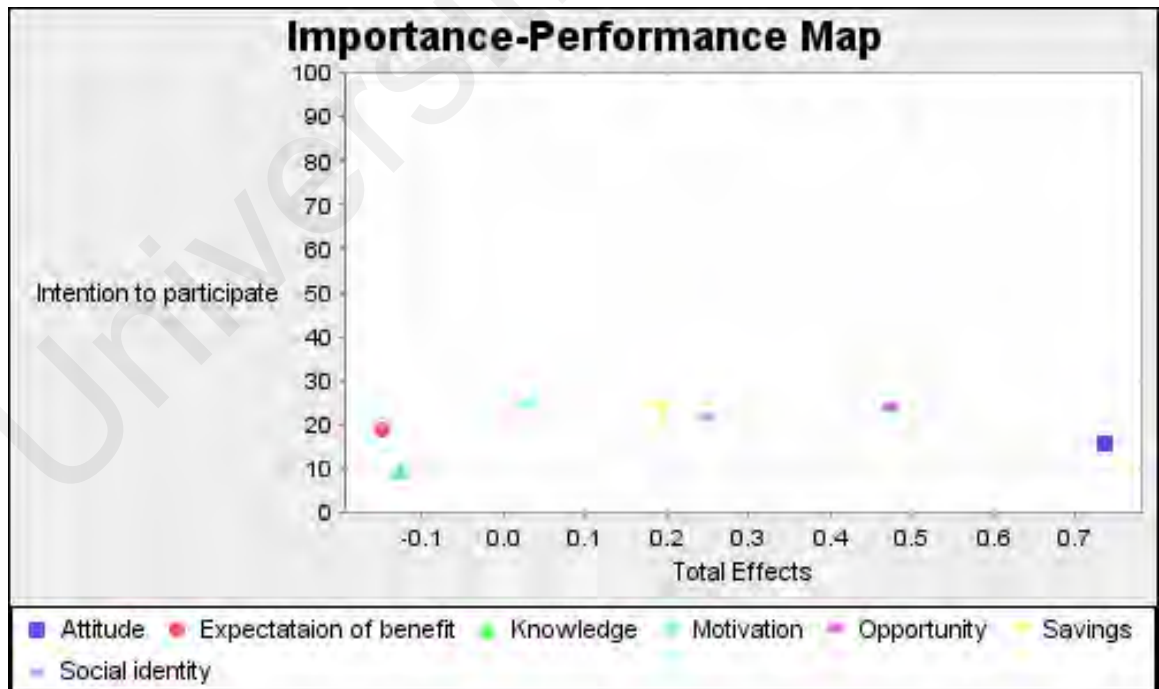


Figure 5.6: Importance and Performance Matrix (IPMA).



Total Effect Construct

	ATT	EOB	ITPT	KNOW	MOT	OPP	SAV	SID	WTIV
Attitude			0.328						0.223
Expectation of benefit			-0.079						0.015
Intention to participate									
Knowledge			-0.064						0.182
Motivation			0.014					0.308	0.04
Opportunity			0.328						0.31
Savings			0.121						0.12
Social identity			0.171						
Willingness to invest									

	LV Index Values	Performance (Index Value)
Attitude	1.438	15.496
Expectation of benefit	1.748	18.706
Intention to participate	2.123	28.072
Knowledge	1.382	9.556
Motivation	1.546	25.285
Opportunity	1.95	23.742
Savings	1.95	23.759
Social identity	1.874	21.86
Willingness to invest	1.695	22.02

In IPMA, all indicator coding must have the same direction; a low value represents a negative outcome and a high value represent a positive outcome. Otherwise, we cannot conclude that higher latent variable values represent a better performance. If this is not the case, the indicator coding needs to be changed by reversing the scale (e.g., on a 5-point scale, 1 becomes 5 and 5 becomes 1, 2 becomes 4 and 4 becomes 2, and 3 remains unchanged).

Secondly, whether the measurement model is formative or reflective, the outer weights must not be negative. If the outer weight is positive, the performance values will be on a scale of 0 to 100. However, the outer weights are negative, the performance values will not be in this specific range but between -5 and 95. Negative weights might be a result of indicator collinearity. In this case, researchers may consider removing that indicator.

5.4.1.2 Direct effects between independent and dependent variables

In this model the mediating role of social identity (SID) was assessed, in which motivation (MOT), attitude (ATT), expectation of benefit (EOB), knowledge (KNOW), opportunity (OPPT) and savings (SAV) were considered as independent variables and intention to participate (ITPT) was the dependent variable. In order to test for mediating effects, the direct relationship between independent variables and dependent variable were observed without mediator as shown in Figure 5.7.

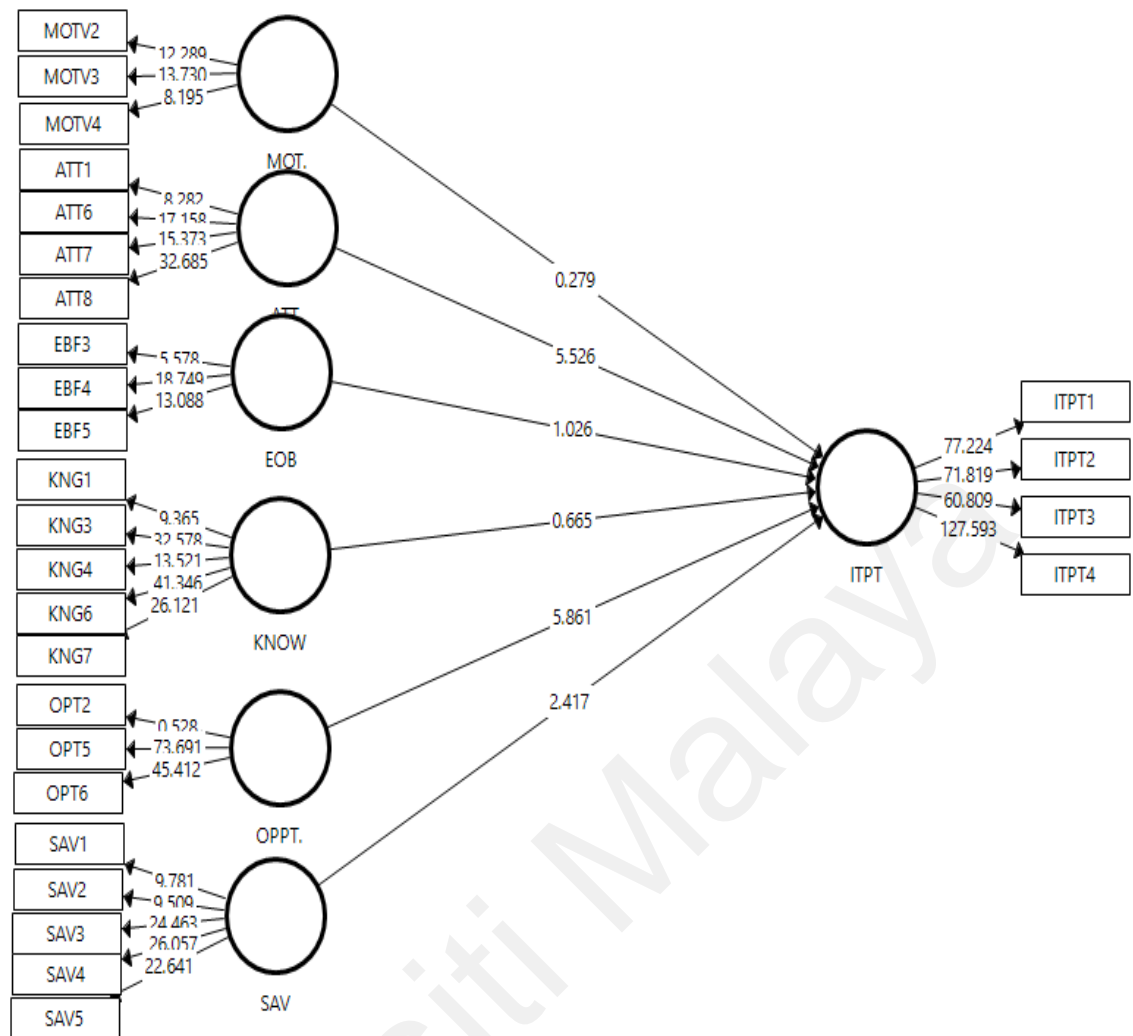


Figure 5.7: Direct Effects.

5.4.1.3 Mediating effects of SID between MOT and ITPT

The mediating relationship between the variables social identity (SID), attitude (ATT), expectation of benefit (EOB), knowledge (KNOW), opportunity (OPPT) and savings (SAV) on the relationship between motivation (MOT), and the dependent variable intention to participate (ITPT) was analysed. The mediating effect of social identity between the relationship of MOT, and ITPT variable were analysed separately which is discussed in the following section. In the test of mediating effects between motivation and intention to participate, we found that social identity mediates the effects of motivation and intention to participate ($\beta=0.125$, $p<0.000$), as shown in Figures 5.8.

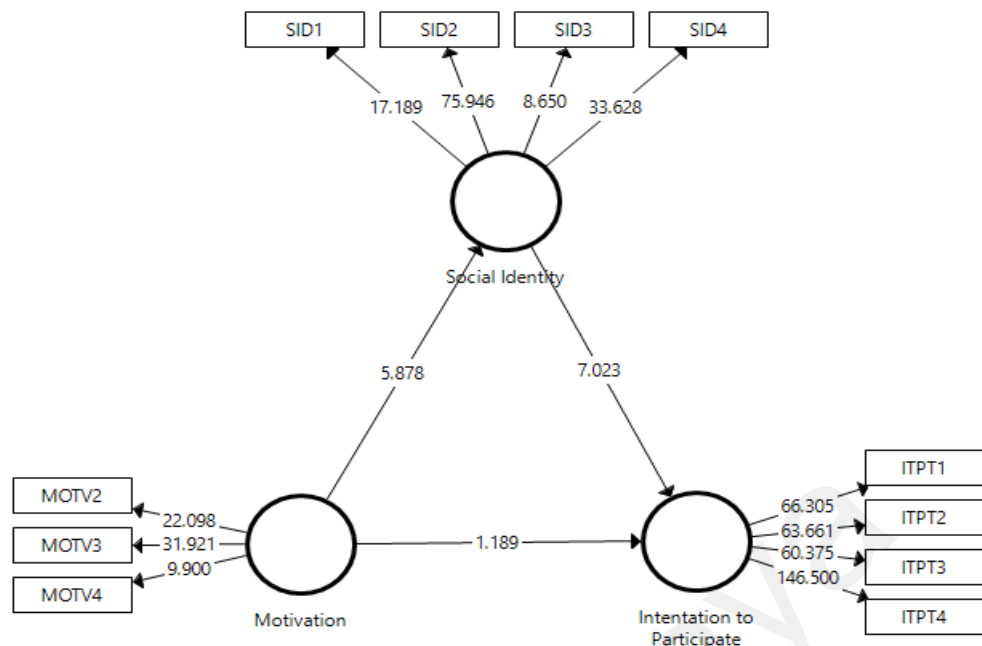


Figure 5.8: Mediating effects of SID between MOT and ITPT.

5.4.1.4 Mediating effects of SID between ATT and ITPT

Likewise, in the test of mediating effects between attitude and intention to participate. We found that social identity mediates the effects of attitude on intention to participate ($\beta=0.198$, $p<0.000$), as shown in Figures 5.9.

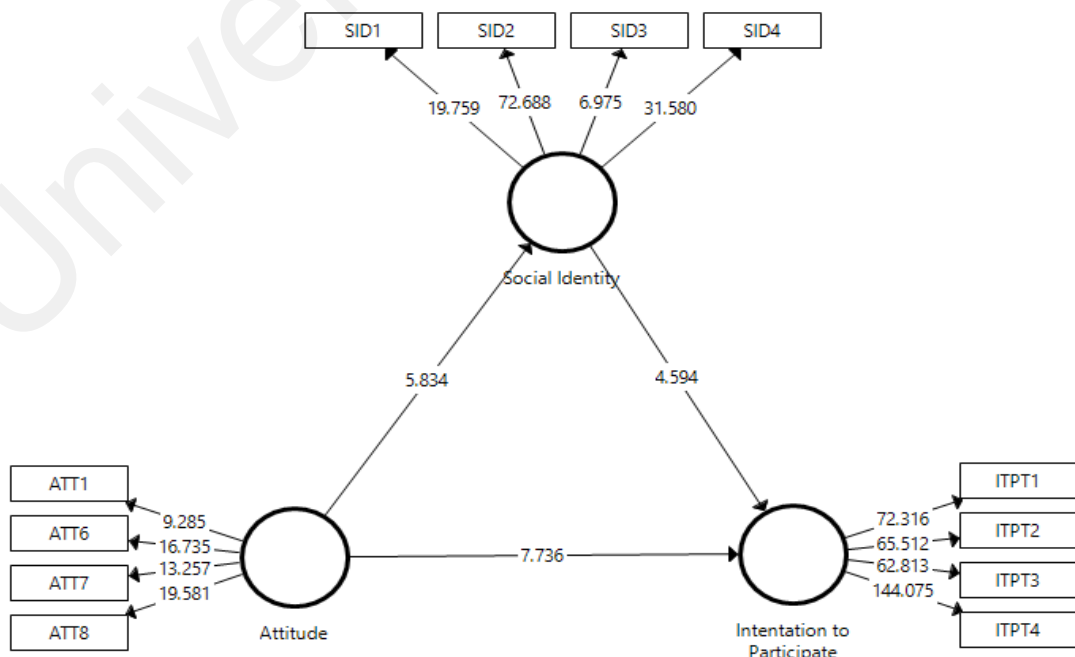


Figure 5.9: Mediating effects of SID between ATT and ITPT.

5.4.1.5 Mediating effects of SID between EOB and ITPT

In the test of mediating effects between expectation of benefit and intention to participate, we found that social identity mediates the effects of expectation of benefit on intention to participate ($\beta=0.107$, $p<0.001$), as shown in Figures 5.10.

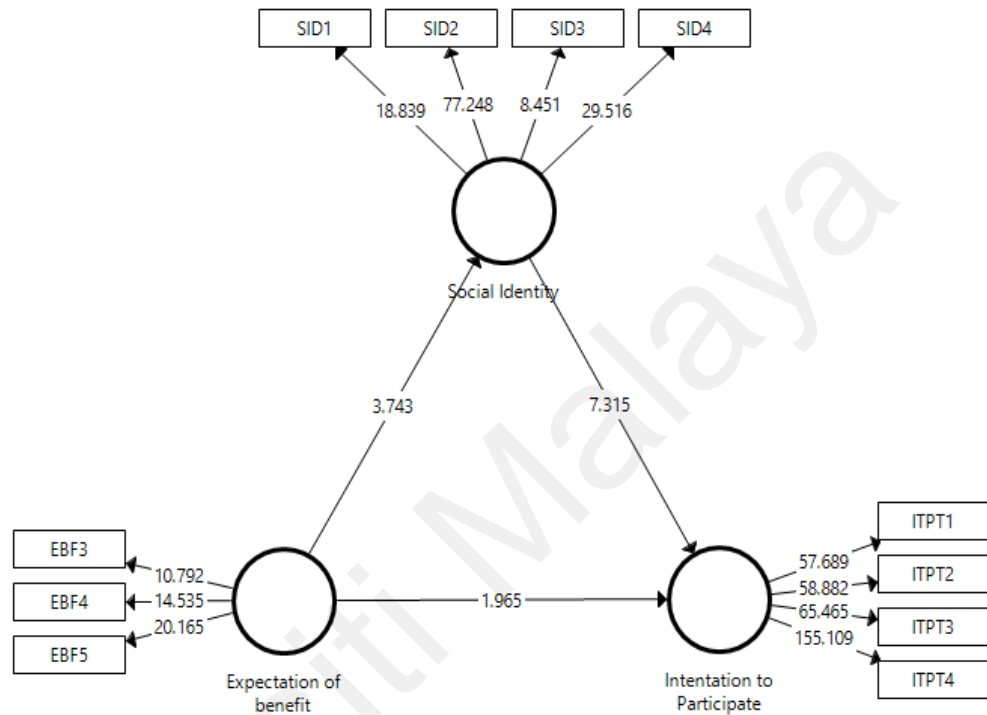


Figure 5.10: Mediating effects of SID between EOB and ITPT.

5.4.1.6 Mediating effects of SID between KNOW and ITPT

Again, in the test of mediating effects between knowledge and intention to participate, we found that social identity mediates the effects of knowledge on intention to participate ($\beta=0.132$, $p<0.000$), as shown in Figures 5.11

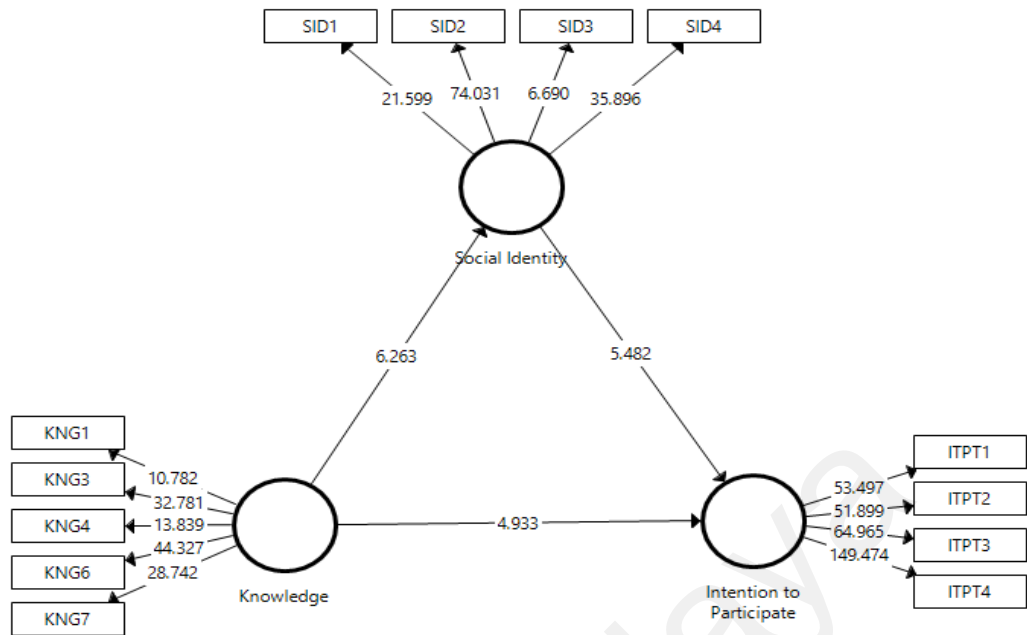


Figure 5.11: Mediating effects of SID between KNOW and ITPT.

5.4.1.7 Mediating effects of SID between OPPT and ITPT

In the test of mediating effects between opportunity and intention to participate, we found that social identity mediates the effects of opportunity on intention to participate ($\beta=0.104$, $p<0.000$), as shown in Figures 5.12.

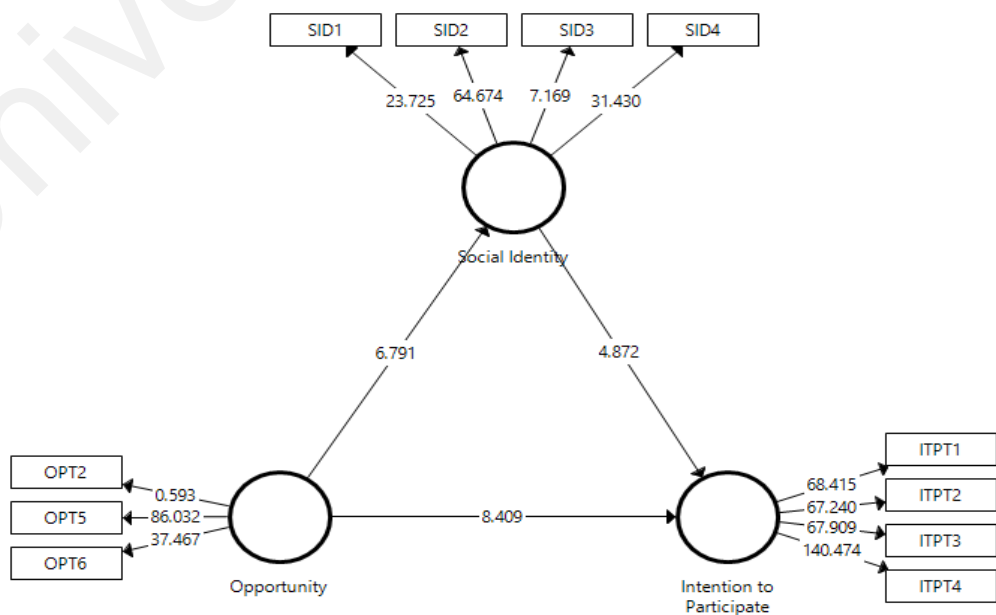


Figure 5.12: Mediating effects of SID between OPPT and ITPT.

5.4.1.8 Mediating effects of SID between SAV and ITPT

Similarly, in the test of mediating effects between savings and intention to participate. We found that social identity mediates the effects of savings on intention to participate ($\beta=0.131$, $p<0.000$), as shown in Figures 5.13.

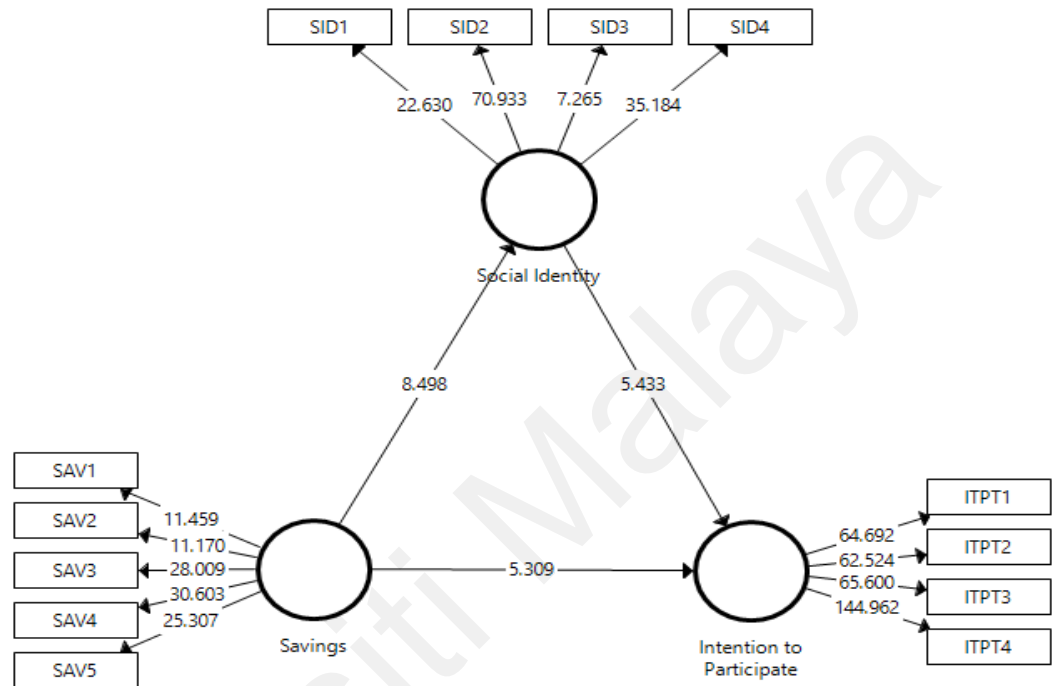


Figure 5.13: Mediating effects of SID between SAV and ITPT.

Table 5.11: Output of Direct and Mediating Relationship

	Direct Relationship		Direct Relationship		Effect	
	Without Mediator		With Mediator			
	Estimate	P-value	Estimate	P-value		
ATT - ITPT	0.359	0.000	ATT - SID-ITPT	0.098	0.000	Mediation
EOB - ITPT	-0.054	0.305	EOB - SID-ITPT	0.107	0.001	NO
KNW - ITPT	-0.047	0.506	KNW - SID-ITPT	0.132	0.000	NO
MOT - ITPT	-0.014	0.780	MOT - SID-ITPT	0.125	0.000	Mediation
OPT - ITPT	0.333	0.000	OPT - SID-ITPT	0.104	0.000	Mediation
SAV - ITPT	0.170	0.016	SAV - SID-ITPT	0.131	0.000	Mediation

Source: Author's Computation.

Based on the observed values for direct relationship without mediator as indicated in Table 5.11, there is no significant relationship between expectation of benefit and intention to participate since $\beta= -0.054$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.305$. Similarly, no significant

relationship was found between knowledge and intention to participate since $\beta = -0.047$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.506$ which is greater than 0.05. In the same way, no significant relationship was found between motivation and intention to participate since $\beta = -0.014$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.780$ which is greater than 0.05. Again, there is direct relationship between attitude and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.359$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$ which is less than 0.05. Furthermore, there is direct relationship between opportunity and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.333$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. Lastly, there is direct relationship between savings and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.170$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.016$ which is less than 0.05.

On the other hand, based on observed values for direct relationship with mediator, there is significant relationship between attitude and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.098$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. Similarly, there is a significant relationship found between expectation of benefit and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.107$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.001$. In the same way, significant relationship was found between knowledge and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.132$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. Again, significant relationship was found between motivation and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.125$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. Furthermore, there is significant relationship between opportunity and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.104$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$. Lastly, significant relationship was found between savings and intention to participate since $\beta = 0.131$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.000$.

5.5 Recap of the Hypotheses Test

Table 5.12: Recap of the Hypotheses Test

No	Hypotheses	Remark
H1	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between motivation and factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H2	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between motivation and factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H3	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between attitude and factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H4	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between attitude and factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H5	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between opportunity and factors constraining the local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H6	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between opportunity and the factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H7	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between knowledge and factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H8	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between knowledge and factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H9	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between expectation of benefit and factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H10	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between the expectation of benefit and factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H11	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between savings and factors constraining local community participation in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H12	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between savings and factors affecting the willingness of the local community to invest in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported
H13	<i>There is a significant positive relationship between all the constructs, social identity and intention to participate in tourism development in Langkawi.</i>	Supported

Source: Author's Computation

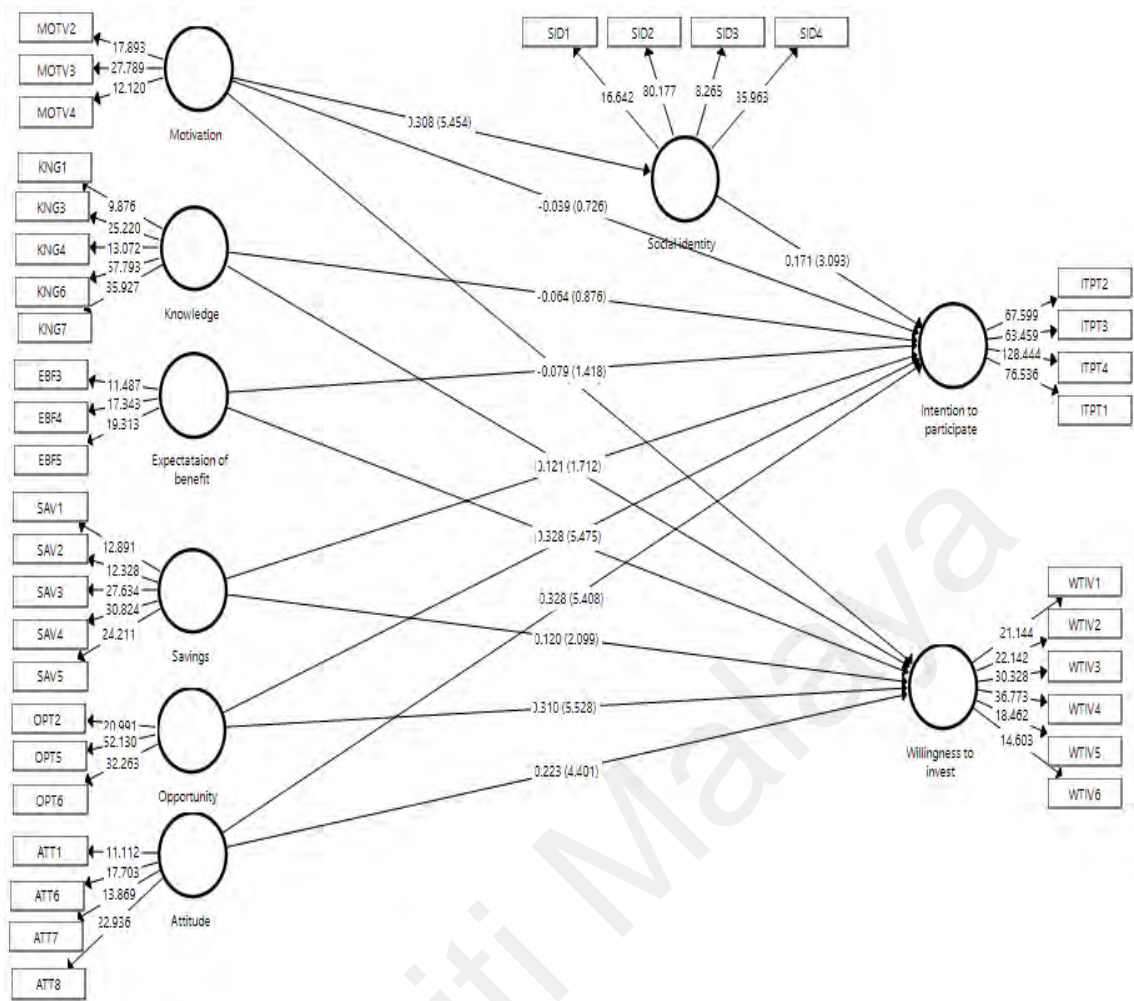


Figure 5.14: Conceptual Framework Model

5.6 Chapter Summary

In summary, this chapter on data analysis commences with the testing for normality and multicollinearity of the variables. Since all the data were not normally distributed or did not support normal distribution, the obtained data was ready for analysis. Reliability analysis was conducted to determine the internal consistency of the items. This chapter also presented the results on the assessments of the measurement and structural model. The overall structural models were assessed; full model analysis, direct relationship analysis, and mediating effects analysis were carried out to test all 13 hypotheses. The results revealed that attitude, motivation, knowledge, savings, the expectation of benefit, and opportunity have a significant influence on the factors affecting the local community's participation and willingness to invest in tourism development.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS.

6.1 Introduction

This thesis quantitatively examined the critical factors constraining the local community's participation in the development of tourism in Langkawi and the predominant factors affecting their willingness to invest in TSMEs in Langkawi. Afterward, implications and the contribution of the thesis to knowledge were presented. The next section (6.2) presents the summary of the findings.

6.2 Summary of the Study

This section presents the summary of the thesis and by extension offers a conclusion on the findings. Chapter 1 of the thesis focused on the background of the study, problematised the concept of participation and investment, and raised the research questions and objectives based on quantitative research design. Chapter 2 examined the general overview of the tourism industry in Malaysia. Chapter 3 reviewed theories and empirical works on participation and investment. Chapter 4 delved into the methodology used in achieving the three-stated objectives of the thesis. Chapter 5 dealt with the discussion of the result. Chapter 6 presents the conclusion and policy implications of the study.

6.3 Overall Summary of the Study

Based on a thorough examination of the theoretical and empirical literature, this thesis framework was created. The participatory approach (PA) and social identity (SID) theories serve as the theoretical underpinning for this investigation. This study looks into the reasons that limit local community engagement and the main elements that influence their willingness to invest in tourism SME in Langkawi. The factors examined include attitude, motivation, knowledge, opportunity, the expectation of benefit and savings.

With respect to the participatory theory as the framework, it is an approach that expedites peoples or societies in participating in matters that encompass them. It deals with needs that are not only related to them but also empowers them (Freire, 1972). The participatory theory considers motivation, attitude, knowledge and opportunity as significant predictors of participation.

Motivation is a force that directs individuals toward achieving goals (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Hoyer & MacInnis, 1997). The motivation arose their interest, energised them, and makes them engage in community activities. Motivation is what strengthens a person's behavior, guides it in a certain direction, and enhanced or maintained it. In tourism development, motivation has been established as one of the core indicator of community development. In other words, motivation is concerned with the strength and direction of conduct, as well as the elements that impact people's behaviour. It is also concerned with the goal's individuals have, how they chose them and how others try to change their behavior. Different methods to motivation focus on cognitive behaviours, non-cognitive components, or both, and motivation involves a constellation of ideas, perceptions, values, interests, and actions that are all intimately related (Lai, 2011).

A person's behavioural beliefs, which are associated with a good or negative judgement of the conduct in issue, are referred to as attitude (Latimer & Martin Ginis, 2005). The degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable opinion of a behaviour is referred to as an attitude toward the conduct. As a result, policymakers and authorities must be aware of community opinions in their respective areas. Residents' opinions, according to Stylidis et al. (2014), not only influence community support for tourism development, but they also have a significant impact on tourists' perceptions of a place. To develop a community and ensure sustainability, it is vital to understand peoples' attitudes. Understanding people's attitudes also aids in the planning of a more long-term

project to curtail hostility between tourists and host community, and also to inspire local communities to participate in development activities (Zhang, et al., 2013; Andereck, et al., 2005; Choi & Murray, 2010; Stronza & Gordillo, 2008), especially in places where the locals have low experience about tourism (Lepp, 2008). Most significantly, it will assist in organising appropriate programs and events to facilitate growing involvement in community development.

A community's ability to participate in tourism activities is determined by its level of knowledge. Lack of knowledge triggers unfavorable bias towards tourism development. Knowledge is the key element causal to local communities' level of power (Robin, 2015). It is a significant factor that influences participation and investment levels. The enlightened environment can be characterised by the community's awareness of various happenings. Objective and subjective information has been applied to investigate the environmental understanding of the public (Barber, et al., 2009). Individuals who succeed in learning about natural issues are more likely, in general, to act in a brilliant ecological approach. Lack of knowledge, on the other hand, imprisons a person. The study directed by Huddart, et al. (2009) in Canada found that more than 60% of respondents felt that their behavior is affected by their lack of knowledge. Knowledge empowers local communities to appreciate their environment and create valued inputs to the administration and development of tourism (Jaafar, et al., 2016). As a result, it is vital to improve their understanding and awareness of the importance of tourism to win local community support for tourism development.

The term "opportunity" refers to how favourable a situation is to achieving a desired result (Gruen, et al., 2007). Opportunity is a situation or circumstance, for instance, rules, political will and channels that expedite the participation of local communities in tourism activities (Hung, et al., 2011). Previous works on opportunity

asserted that political will, rules and political channels are the opportunities attractable for tourism participation (Hung, et al., 2016). Therefore, the level of community participation and investment lies in the political structures and the magnitude to which they are allowed to participate (Hung, et al., 2016). This is because the participatory role of the community depends on the political structure and the extent to which the tourism agencies allow them to grab opportunities (Salleh, et al., 2016). Building upon this theory, the empirical findings discussed in chapter 3 and the research conducted by Lichtenberg and Zimmerman (1999) and Bayard and Jolly (2007), a framework was developed to examine the critical dynamics of the study.

The second framework, social identity theory, specifies that one is socially identified through their status in a group. Hence, the local community's (people) social identity is useful to build interest in tourism development. The magnitude of a community which is the perception of kinds, which embody the intrinsic connections felt among them (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001), is rooted in the social identity theory (Hogg, et al. 2017). People weigh the costs and rewards of any activity before determining what to do, according to sociologists. Here we talk about participation and investment, which depends on finance and human factors. If the local community perceives that they will benefit from tourism development through participation and investment, they will allocate their time and effort to participate.

Chapter 5 presented the discussion on the analysis of data collected to achieve the three objectives of this study. The chapter commenced with the test of normality, followed by reliability, discriminant and convergent validity of the study variables. Finally, PLS-SEM was performed to test the hypotheses. Thirteen hypotheses were tested to achieve the study variables. Based on data analysis, all the hypotheses were supported.

6.4 Research and Methodological Implications

This study has many research and methodological implications, a major one of which is the empirical testing of the research model. In this study, we tested the research model developed based on the Participatory Theory (PT) and Social Identity Theory (SIT). This is the first study to combine the analysis of these two theories in a single framework. These theories were adopted to test the direct and mediating effects of the study variables.

This research model provided empirical evidence that motivation, attitudes, knowledge, opportunity and expectation of benefit have a significant impact on factors affecting local community's intention to participate and invest. We also found a significant relationship between motivation and intention to participate. Likewise, social identity was observed to mediate the relationship between motivation and factors affecting local community's participation intention in tourism development. The good-fit of the model was statistically verified and also supported by the adopted theories. Therefore, by conducting quantitative research methods, this study contributes a unique academic research model for this area. This model was tested using PLS-SEM to identify the direct and mediating effects of the study variables in the model. This approach is more relevant and accurate when looking at numerous relationships at the same time. Although regression analysis can also be applied to test the hypotheses, PLS-SEM is more efficient in this regard.

6.5 Addressing the problem statement

This section addresses the problem statement. The study commenced by highlighting some of the factors restricting the local community in Langkawi Malaysia from participating in tourism development. Some of these factors emanate from the top-down approach of the strong centralist government in Malaysia. This approach allows authorities to make decisions on behalf of the community, most of which may not be

favourable or encourage community participation. Malaysia continues to use a top-down management model, which allows it to maintain control over decision-making, resource allocation, and information. Heck (2003) stated that a centralised public administrative system that manages decision-making, resource distribution, and information could put a pressure on participation, as residents may feel excluded from the development design from such system.

Policymakers create favorable or unfavorable policies for local communities and legally enforce it on them, resulting in the alteration of their socio-cultural, economic, environmental and political sphere. More importantly, this could result in the relocation and destruction of environment and ecosystems, which are protected by human rights declarations. They suggested that local people might not be exposed to new technologies and ideas (Jalilova, Khadka & Vacik, 2011). Plans, designs, costs, and project execution periods have previously been designed using a top-down strategy that ignores differences in sociocultural and environmental conditions among sites. The approach makes the mistake of assuming that communities are naive and unaware of what is best for them. Top-down development, according to Thomas (2013, P.1), is "tokenistic and unable to address the difficulties of top-down development". According to Cooksey and Kikula (2005, p.4), the sources of data in top-bottom surveys are "quantitative data or numerical estimations collected through rapid diagnostic feasibility studies or project formulation missions." Also, "Planners and bureaucrats proceed as if they were writing on a clean slate and possessing all the knowledge for improving people's lives". They overlook that community development's strategic objectives include empowering local communities, forming successful partnerships, operating as multi-agencies, becoming learning organisations, and improving the lives and well-being of rural communities, as well as ensuring their sustainability. This top-down approach affects community members' participation as well as investment in tourism development due to their exclusion from

the decision-making and project planning process. When their acts imply that they are stupid, people feel humiliated. As a result, communities' distance themselves from such endeavours in order to refute the "top" and mock their failures.

For Malaysia to achieve its 2020 vision and more, they should work towards a bottom-top approach and ensure effective communication channels between them and the local communities. Local communities tend to participate fully in activities in their environment when they discover that the government is willing to listen to their voice. The Malaysian government should look into a bottom-up approach, as the management system of tourism development in many countries has been moving towards a more decentralised approach. Top-down approach operates by a set of guidelines and blueprints, providing little opportunity for community members to contribute to the development process. The blueprint approach gives rise to several critical paradoxes and overlooks the numerous communal activities. To address those issues and fill the research gap, this study covers the critical factors constraining the local community participation and willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in Langkawi tourism development.

Again, lack of co-ordination, motivation, centralisation of public administration, attitude, poor dissemination of information, lack of interest, low level of awareness, inadequate capital, opportunity, benefits expented, skills, resources, knowledge, empowerment, involvement, transparency in benefit-sharing and inappropriate policy framework to support community participation have direct effects on participation and investment.

This study will remedy the dearth of research in participation and investment area by adding to existing literatures. Due to the lack of empirical and theoretical discourse on this theme, we adapted the well-known participatory theory and social identity theory

in a single research model to explain the relationship between dependent and independent variables. Finally, this study provides recommended management policy framework and communication channel considering the factors constraining participation and investment in tourism development in Langkawi. This management policy framework will help policymakers improve the embedded inter-sectorial deadlock and maximise the involvement of the local communities to improve their standard of living and environment as well as increase the economy of the country.

6.6 The Impact of Covid-19 to the Malaysian Tourism Industry

COVID-19 has had a major and negative influence on Malaysia's tourism business, with travellers from all over the world cancelling bookings and delaying vacation plans owing to fears about the virus. The Malaysian government's 2020 objective of welcoming 30 million tourists and generating 168 billion dollars in revenue was harmed by the outbreak. As a result of the travel restrictions and bans, the number of tourists has decreased, delaying the implementation of Vision 2020. Because 50 percent of Malaysia's tourists come from Singapore and China, the COVID-19 outbreak posed a significant threat to the Visit Malaysia 2020 (VM2020) campaign. The rising number of cases of Covid-19 in countries has resulted in the cancellation of numerous tours, resulting in a significant decline in the number of tourists visiting Malaysia. Many people are suffering in order to combat the infection (Prime Minister's Office, 2020). The Malaysian government suffered a loss of RM 3.37 billion as a result of the epidemic in the first two months of 2020. (Dzulkiyly, 2020). Similarly, several hoteliers and airline operators lost money because all travel and trip packages were cancelled (Aldaihani & Ali, 2018). The most visible effect of the outbreak is a decrease in inbound international travellers to Malaysia's most popular tourist spots. The Malaysian government estimates that the country's GDP has decreased by 0.8 to 1.2 percent (RM 10.8 billion to RM 17.3 billion). Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture has

cancelled the ongoing Visit Malaysia Year 2020 (VMY2020) campaign, putting the government's goal of 30 million visitors on hold (MSN, 2020). Malaysia welcomed a huge 13.35 million foreign tourists in the first half of 2019 and reported a 6.8% increase in tourism receipts from the previous year, contributing RM41.69 billion to the country's earnings. During that time, Tourism Malaysia claimed that the average length of tourist stays grew by 0.4 to 6.2 nights. Among the top ten sources of international tourist arrivals in the first half of 2019 were Singapore (5,381,566), Indonesia (1,857,864), China (1,558,782), Thailand (990,565), Brunei (627,112), India (354,486), South Korea (323,952), the Philippines (210,974), Vietnam (200,314), and Japan (196,561).

Due to the pandemic, many hotels and airlines were forced to close as a result of Covid 19. According to reports, a total of 170,084 hotel room bookings were cancelled between January and March 2020, resulting in a revenue loss of RM68,190,364. Hotel cancellations have cost Kuala Lumpur and Sabah a total of RM23,021,301 and RM11,550,605, respectively, in income. Similarly, Sarawak experienced a significant loss (less than RM23 million), as a result of 76 room cancellations during the same period. The pandemic is expected to cost the local hotel industry RM3.3 billion in profits. As part of a strategy set in place a decade ago under the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) to make Malaysia a major tourism destination, the number of tourist arrivals and foreign receipts were predicted to hit all-time highs in 2020. The year 2020 has also been declared as a "Visit Malaysia Year," with the goal of increasing tourist visits to the country. The COVID-19 pandemic, on the other hand, brought the whole tourism industry to a halt as the government, along with its counterparts throughout the world, closed borders to stop the virus from spreading, resulting in significant job and economic losses. As funding dried up, many hotels closed their doors, and some travel bureaus and enterprises broke.

Tourist arrivals in Malaysia fell by 78.6% to 4.29 million in the first nine months of 2019, compared to 20.1 million in the previous corresponding period. Before the borders were closed, the majority of the tourists (4.23 million) arrived. Tourism, which is a major contributor to the Malaysian economy, fell by 80.9 percent to RM12.6 billion from RM66.1 billion in the preceding quarter. The industry and allied economic activities were hit hard, with losses totaling more over RM100 billion.

Table 6.1 : Tourism performance 2019 and 2020

	2019	2020
Arrivals (Millions)	20.1	4.29
Receipts (Billions)	66.1	12.6
Per capita spend	2,938.40	3,289.3
Excursionists (million)	1.73	6.91

Source: Vasantha Ganesan, 2021.

Table 6.2 : Hotel performance (2019 and 2020)

2019		2020		
Average Occupancy Rate (%)	Average Daily Rate (%)	Average Occupancy Rate (%)	Average Daily Rate (%)	Loss of Revenue (RM BILLION)
64.49	223,48	27,51	196,69	6,54

Source: Vasantha Ganesan, 2021.

6.7 Implications

This section presents the implications of the thesis from two perspectives: implication for theory and implication for policy. These two aspects are discussed in the next two sub-sections.

6.7.1 Theoretical implications

In chapter three of this thesis, there were two theories presented to guide the achievement of the three objectives of this study.

First, the participatory theory is significant because it allows communities to be part of their development, thus improving their standard of living. On the other hand, exclusion of the local communities inhibits their participation and investment in development programs, which leads to their unemployment. Years of participatory development experience have prompted calls for some much-needed quality assurance. “The opportunities are to initiate and sustain processes of change, empowering disadvantaged people and communities, transforming organisations and reorienting individuals.” Human development is achieved when individual autonomy is engineering the individual capability to participate fully in the market operations. Freedom or autonomy provides the cognitive resources as well as physical capabilities to enhance access to information, improve skill acquisition and strengthen the community members. Therefore, the findings of the two objectives in this thesis confirmed the importance of the participatory approach in terms of development.

Second, the social identity theory lays down the importance of belonging to a group. Tajfel (1978) suggested that a person achieves a social identity through self-awareness of belonging to a group. As mentioned in the work of Ellemers, et al. (1999), there are three pillars of social identity: A cognitive pillar that discusses self-categorisation in a social group, an evaluative pillar that discusses the positive and negative effects of social identity and an emotional pillar that focuses on consciousness or emotions to involve in the group activities. So, this study claims that the SIT would stand as a mediator through the following three pillars: (i) local community self-categorisation, (ii) local community self-esteem and (iii) local community affective-

commitment. These pillars would account for the examination of the local community participation and investment in tourism development.

6.7.2 Policy implications

Referring to the findings of this study, some recommendations were suggested for policymakers wishing to address local community issues in relation to tourism development. Specifically, an integrated policy framework was developed to address the factors constraining participation intention and willingness to invest in tourism development in Langkawi should be addressed.

Several management issues affecting the level of community participation are due to the 'top-down approach,' which legally enforce decisions on the community. This has resulted in a lack of coordination, collaboration and cooperation among the local community. There are often conflicting targets between the state government and the local communities. To improve the management system, we proposed a collaborative management system for local communities in Langkawi. This include availing the local community necessary information related to investment in the tourism industry and participation to help them make the right decisions. Again, to ensure management efficiency in a management framework, the government and the local community should communicate and work as partners, as well as develop some viable communication tactics with diverse partners to enhance participation, coordination, and joint effort between top administration and the local community. In addition, a platform should be established for the local community to ensure their wellbeing. To minimise management issues, collaborative management where the local community and government will work as a partnership is proposed, this is more realistic than any other arrangement. Although community-based management is becoming more popular, non-localized risks and a lack

of capacity, technological know-how, and financial resources make it unclear whether the community can successfully manage local resources on its own.

Again, in participating and investing towards the development of a community, social development plays a vital role. Social interaction, coordination, co-operation and collaboration among community members can bring economic and social benefits at the individual and collective levels (Bankston & Zhou, 2002; Brunie, 2009). The informal organisation can enhance participation of the community members and the coordination of the improvement process. Community participation is essential to ensure common advantages for the environment. It has a specific significance for the local-level collective management of regular assets, such as the environment (Liu, et al., 2014). Furthermore, the outcomes uncovered an insignificant enhancement in the community's way of life, coupled with a notable deficiency in their training and social communication. As a result, for the advancement of tourism development, arrangement producers should contemplate expanding the following societal views. To assure progress, this includes organising seminars, training programmes, and discussion gatherings for community members and supporters.

To ensure successful participation and investment among the local community, consideration should also be given to programs like Community-Based Tourism (CBT); there should be a clear communication channel between the government and the local community to spell out the terms of CBT. This will facilitate better coordination of the program, protect local community interests and improve their status.

Community-based tourism is a mode of tourism in which residents (often rural, poor and economically marginalised) attend to tourists who visit their communities by providing accommodation, food, transportation and guide. The local communities earn income as hosts, entrepreneurs, service providers, product providers and employees. By

so doing, they earn money for their well-being, and part of the tourist income can be channel to projects that benefit the community as a whole and also the tourism industry, which ultimately enhance the nation's economy. Community-based tourism allows visitors to learn about local environments and species while also honouring and respecting a community's traditional traditions, rituals, and wisdom. It's all about social justice, empowerment, benefit equity, redistributive policies, tourism sector ownership, and holistic community development. Because of its potential and strength to supply economic sources to the resident destination, it is a tool for local economic growth. Community-based tourism was created to counteract the negative effects of traditional tourism, such as resource leakage and the loss of local authority over natural resources, as well as to improve the lives of local communities (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2017; Djou, et al., 2017). CBT is becoming more popular as a technique of decreasing poverty and increasing local community development (Runyowa, 2017). Although CBT was introduced to empower local communities and help create a modest life for the indigenes, it also suffers certain setbacks, which make its main purpose unachievable. To begin with, the reality of CBT practice has not matched the principles' ideals. As a result, it's possible to say that true community-based tourism has yet to be implemented (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2018).

The main goal of CBT is to build the local community rather than external parties. It was meant to discourage the non-local community's involvement in the tourism administration of the LCs (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2018). Also, CBT is managed by local people, which is in line with its main objective of uplifting and empowering the residents, thus allowing them to take control of decision makings and local resources (Kaur, et al., 2016). The empowerment process should follow a facilitative approach that is "not" controlled by external agents. The aim of CBT should not only be for the local community to participate, but also to control and manage tourism facilities and the

development processes. In many places, CBT is being developed in such a way that local populations are being denied access to resources to which they are entitled. Furthermore, the local community are offered menial jobs such as housekeeping and security are offered to the local community, while high-profile professions are offered to city residents or outsiders. Developers talk about integrating communities into tourism, but they rarely go to a community to find out what the residents want. Instead, operations are imposed from the top down, as is all too common. Hence, the government should re-examine CBT policy to ensure its aims are achievable.

Again, financial development including income, livelihood opportunities, equitable distribution of benefits, security in terms of living standards, and healthy living should be prioritised. Although Malaysia has made a concerted effort to ensure poverty elimination, the share of local communities in this development is low compared to the urban communities. Therefore, the following strategies should be considered for the betterment of the local community: creation of entrepreneurial development programs, more emphasis on tourism SMEs to ensure tourism development, provision of consultation channel and enhancement of infrastructure development. In this policy implication, we emphasise more on tourism SMEs within the local community, which requires the government to establish programs to train the communities on the risk and return involved in investment. As seen by the lists of financial and non-financial programmes implemented to promote tourism SMEs' performance, though the Malaysian government recognises the importance of tourism SMEs in the tourism industry's performance. This measure was taken to ensure the long-term viability of tourism SMEs as part of the government's objective for a mature tourism industry in Malaysia. As a result of this tendency, the Malaysian government has taken a proactive approach to improving the capability and function of tourism SMEs as the tourism industry's backbone.

While several programs have been developed for tourism SMEs, the government should create a policy specifically for local communities to offset the imbalance existing in tourism development between the mainland and island local communities. Moreover, the mainland hosts many tourism players that have been in operation for long time and have accumulated knowledge, experience and capabilities in managing the business operation (Graner & Isaksson, 2002). On the contrary, younger firms, particularly in the local community, are still new and emerging in the tourism industry, and thus require specific policies to support their participation and investment in tourism development.

6.8 Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to assess the predominant factors affecting local community's willingness to invest in tourism SMEs in Langkawi and also investigate the critical factors constraining their participation in tourism development in Langkawi, which located in the northwest of peninsular Malaysia. To achieve this objective, this study employed the participatory approach and social identity theories, advocated by Freire (1972) and Tajfel (1978), to explore the local community's participation and investment intentions. Thus, policymakers and the relevant authorities need to comprehend local communities' status and subsequently formulate appropriate top-down management policies towards an enhanced tourism development.

The findings indicated savings as being one of the most important factors influencing participation and investment. Local communities invest depending on the capital they hold and the amount they save, which is often low. In this way, policymakers should create different avenues for the local community to have access to loans at a lower rate. Again, the tax imposed on investment in local communities should be slashed or suspended completely. This study has explored the factors needed to ensure participation and investment in tourism SMEs and its findings would help policymakers to formulate

policies to improve participation and investment among local communities. The main purpose of government initiating investment among the local community is to ensure their well-being as well as the development of their communities. If these local communities lack an avenue to raise capital for investment and participation, the purpose of government encouraging entrepreneurship will not be achieved. As the Malaysian government plans to welcome more tourist into the country, investment and participation of local communities are highly needed to buffer the influx of tourists.

Again, the study's findings indicated that motivation, savings, knowledge, opportunity, attitudes, and expectation of benefit are among the many factors that constrain the local community's participation and investment. However, the main purpose of tourism development is to empower the indigenes and develop the nation's economy. Achievement of these goals requires that attention is paid to the factors affecting local community's participation and investment in tourism development. Based on our findings, policymakers should address the issues of local community's well-being and management approach. Most importantly, the government should consider community-based tourism and ensure its main purpose is achieved. Likewise, tourism SMEs should be encouraged by creating alternative livelihood for the local communities to ensure tourism development of the country's economic growth.

Lastly, policymakers need to understand the primary factors that constrain local community's participation intention and willingness to invest in tourism development. It is essential to empower local communities by taking into consideration their needs and by creating a good communication channel between them and the top authorities. Their active participation and investment play a great role in improving their welfare and ensuring tourism development.

Implications of the Study and Suggestion for Future Research

The findings of this study respond to the study's research questions on the factors constraining local community participation and willingness to invest in tourism development. The findings have several significant implications for both participation and investment in tourism development. Although Malaysia is observing rapid economic growth due to its policies and political stability, this can be enhanced by encouraging local community's participation and investment in tourism development. This will ultimately prepare Malaysia towards meeting its vision 2020 goals of welcoming 36 million tourist arrivals and generating RM168 billion receipts. This study offers a clear insight into factors affecting local community's participation intention and willingness to invest to policymakers by highlighting savings, motivation, attitude, knowledge, opportunity and expectation of benefit as some of the factors influencing tourism development. As these are very challenging issues that involves human nature, there is an urgent need to tackle them to ensure improved well-being and also tourism development

The findings of the study embroider the key areas for the government to concentrate on to achieve tourism development; these include indigenes savings or financial capacity, the social capacity, and the environment for economic and sustainable development of the community. The implementation of Sixth and Seventh Malaysia Plans should be supported, as it encourages investment especially from the private sector, involvement of local communities and establishment of small entrepreneur to improve the country's economy. The introduction of community-based tourism and encouragement of tourism SMEs plays a significant role in improving the local community's standard of living by creating multiple job opportunities for them. This will in turn increases the level of environmental awareness and promote favorable attitudes towards development. Also, local communities in Malaysia are managed by a "top-down approach," which generates management issues. Thus, this study proposed a

'collaborative management system' where the government and local community will work together as partners. There should be favorable communication links between the government and the local community to promote community participation and investment in tourism development. Last but not the least, the findings and the recommended policy framework of this study will assist policymakers to make the necessary adjustment to previous policies on tourism development.

The present study has strongly contributed to the scholarly work on the assessment of local community participation and investment. Throughout the literature review and the primary research and investigations, various areas have been recognised for future research.

Although there are many tourism centers in peninsular Malaysia, this study covers only Langkawi community. Consequently, different tourist centers should be considered for future research. Moreover, cross-country comparisons can be conducted to examine different approaches (top-down or bottom-up) to tourism development in Southeast Asian countries towards better management of local community participation and investment in tourism development.

This study did not consider all the residents in Langkawi but only Langkawi indigenes who reside in the community. Future studies should address this gap by considering the views and opinions of other parties, such as foreigners, visitors and Langkawi indigenes living in other parts of the country.

Again, the proposed research model for the study was developed based on the participatory approach and social identity theories. This model was newly developed and subsequently tested with the mediating effects using PLS-SEM. Therefore, other researchers should test this model on other studies.

Lastly, this study did not cover the output part of participation. This could be considered for future research.

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