PERCEPTION OF DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS: LESSON TO BIMP-EAGA REGION
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ABSTRACT
This research explains the concepts of destination competitiveness, and attempts to measure the level of destination competitiveness of three urban destinations in Malaysia. The identification of destination competitiveness attributes was based on a review of tourism literature, and focused on tourist attractions and facilities attributes. The research employed a questionnaire and adopted a mixed-mode technique in data collection. The survey received 359 valid responses, and the data obtained were analyzed using descriptive analysis, and correspondence analysis. The results from the descriptive and correspondence analyses indicated that all three destinations are found to differ significantly with respect to destination attractiveness and images.

Keywords: competitiveness, perception, attractiveness, domestic travellers

1.0 INTRODUCTION
Realizing that tourism is a fragile sector, many destinations including Malaysia have planned various strategies to remain competitive in the global tourism market. One of the strategies is to provide overall attractiveness and quality experience better than those of the alternative destinations. Tourism research has demonstrated that destination competitiveness studies are necessary in understanding the ability of the destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of tourism experience (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Tourism experience is difficult to produce and manage compared to other products due to the involvement of many different elements and the critical participation or role of the tourist in the experience (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003); thus, a destination needs to consider introducing and developing new tourism products to remain competitive. The newly developed products must be highly diversified and have added value. Pearlman (1989) asserted that a successful site attraction or destination requires a critical mass of compatible products, which have market viability and appeal to sustain the tourism activities. Nevertheless, the development of new tourism products and destinations has become one of the manifestations of the tourism sector to shift toward increased productivity (Fadeeva, 2003).

Moreover, a destination depends on a distinctive and clear image to continue attracting tourists to visit it. Destination image plays an important role in influencing decisions made by a traveler as to which destination to visit (Hunt, 1975; Ashworth, 1990; Goodall & Ashworth, 1998; Goodall, 1991; Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993). The image influences a tourist to condition the after-decision-making behaviors, including participation (on-site experience), evaluation (satisfaction), and future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend) (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1993; Lee, Lee & Lee, 2005; Mansfeld, 1992). The abovementioned studies have confirmed the positive correlation between destination image and visitation intention of tourists.
Tourists have no reason to visit destinations that have nothing to offer. To attract tourists, a destination must respond to their needs. Every destination should attract travelers by emphasizing the experience they have to offer. According to Pritchard and Havitz (2006), tourists are more likely to give positive ratings to destinations they visited when their expectations are met. Laws (1995) revealed that consumers are more likely to make comparisons between facilities, attractions, and service standards of other destinations. In general, “the choice of a particular good or service is the result of a comparison of its perceived attributes with the person’s set of preferences” (Fishbein & Ajzen, in Laws, 1995, p. 113). The competition that occurs among tourism destinations is also a sign of the broader phenomenon of the new economic competition (Asch and Wolfe, 2001) and human competition in the social, technological, cultural and political spheres (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003).

Thus, many tourism experts believed that the tourism sector has become a highly competitive market in recent years. Various studies dealing with the topic of competitiveness of tourism destinations either at the regional/national or international level have been conducted around the globe. A number of studies that explored positioning by comparing competitive destinations have been published in major tourism journals (Goodrich, 1978; Haahti, 1986; Calantone, Bendetto, Hakam & Bojanic, 1989; Gartner, 1989; Crompton, Fakeye & Lue, 1992; Kim, 1998; Botha, Crompton & Kim, 1999; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Andreu, Bigne & Cooper, 2000; Uysal, Chen & Williams, 2000; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Kim & Agrusa, 2005; Omerzel, 2006 and etc.). Thus, conducting a study on this area would be beneficial and interesting. This paper highlighted the importance of research on destination competitiveness in tourism planning and the scarcity of such research in BIMP-EAGA region and Malaysia in particular; The present research directed to measure the competitiveness level of Malaysian towns and cities to determine their positions in relation to each other by classifying the destinations according to product attractiveness, tourist experience, and positioning image perceived by tourists and tourism stakeholders. This research also addresses the issues and limitation in assessing the destination competitiveness of BIMP-EAGA region.

The overall goal of this paper is to measure the level of destination competitiveness among three Malaysian cities by focusing on elements identified from the literature review. This paper also aims to classify the destination image perceived by tourists and tourism stakeholders. Consequently, it is hoped that the results generated from this study will represent a useful contribution in assisting tourism managers, marketers, and travel agencies to develop future marketing and positioning strategies to meet the tourist expectation, as well as to promote and market the competing Malaysian destinations accordingly.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature has highlighted several definitions related to destination competitiveness. The definitions offered in the literature provide both macro and micro connotations of destination competitiveness. To determine the most suitable definition for the competitiveness of a tourist destination, reviewing the definitions of competitiveness from a broader perspective is better for the researchers. According to Scott and Lodge (1985, p. 3) national competitiveness is “a country’s ability to create, produce, distribute and/or service products in international trade while earning rising returns on its resources.” Porter (1990) defined competitiveness as “the ability of entrepreneurs (of a country) to design, produce, and market goods and services, the price and non-price characteristics of which form a more attractive package than that of competitors.” Newall (1992) expanded the definition and explained:
Competitiveness is about producing more and better quality goods and services that are marketed successfully to consumers at home and abroad. It leads to well paying jobs and to the generation of resources required to provide an adequate infrastructure of public services and support for the disadvantaged. In other words, competitiveness speaks directly to the issue of whether a nation’s economy can provide a high and rising standard of living for our children and grandchildren. (p. 94)

In addition, competitiveness is viewed as combining both assets and processes, where assets “are inherited (e.g., natural resources) or created (e.g., infrastructure)” and processes “transform assets into economic results (e.g., manufacturing)” (World Tourism Organization (WTO), 1994, p. 18). Crouch and Ritchie (1999) and Buhalis (2000) claimed that destination competitiveness is associated with the economic prosperity of country residents. The OECD (WTO, 2000, p. 47) described competitiveness as “the degree to which a country can, under free and fair market conditions, produce goods and services which meet the test of international markets, while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real incomes of its people over the long term."

According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), no generally accepted definition of competitiveness exists. However, Porter (1990) attempted to encapsulate the broad and complex concept of competitiveness into universally applicable terms. Porter (1990) noted that:

Some see national competitiveness as a macro economic phenomenon…
Others argue that competitiveness is a function of cheap and abundant labor… Another view is that competitiveness depends on possessing bountiful natural resources… More recently, many have argued that competitiveness is most strongly influenced by government policy… A final popular explanation for national competitiveness is differences in management practices including labor-management relations. (pp. 3–4)

Baker (1987) argued that competitiveness is broader than mere trade statistics. “Competitiveness—as much a cultural undertaking as an economic or political one—requires changing minds as much as changing policies” (p. 5). Relative productivity performance is also often seen as the root of competitiveness (Porter, 1990, p. 6), but Walters (1987, p. 66) warned against placing excessive weight on statistical measures of productivity. Perhaps the situation is best summed up by Spence and Hazard (1988):

The problem of international competitiveness has been defined in highly diverse ways. These definitions (and the proposed solutions to the problem) are partially inconsistent, and thoroughly confusing to most academics, politicians, policy-makers and business managers. There is good reason for this confusion. The collection of problems alluded to as ‘competitiveness’ is genuinely complex. Disagreements frequently occur not only at the level of empirical effects and of policies, but also in the very definition of the problem. Well-intentioned and reasonable people find themselves talking at cross purposes; sometimes it almost seems they are addressing different subjects. (p. xvii)

In the case of defining tourism destination competitiveness, a few researchers have adapted the definitions of national competitiveness by Scott and Lodge (1985), Porter (1990), Newall (1992), and the WTO (2000). For example, Dwyer and Kim (2003) described that destination competitiveness appears to be linked to the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of tourism experience considered important by tourists. On the other hand, d’Harteserre (2000) defined competitiveness as the
ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share, and/or improve upon them through time. Hassan (2000), who agreed with d’Harteserre, further defined competitiveness as the ability of the destination to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining the market position relative to competitors.

Thus, the current study has adapted the definition by Dwyer and Kim (2003). The term ‘destination’ is referring to an entire country as a tourism destination as well as its sub regions, states, cities or towns; some of which may be quite small in size. This would be a constraint to researchers to measure the competitiveness level of BIMP-EAGA region since it is marketed as a single destination for all 4 countries.

**Destination Competitiveness Attributes**

The concept of competitiveness can be observed from six different dimensions of strength and performance; that are economic, social, cultural, political, technological and environmental strengths (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). However, the competitiveness of tourism sector cannot be reviewed with a single dimension because of its unique nature and multi-sectoral elements. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) asserted that:

> What makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences and to do so on a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations. (p. 2)

In every industry and business, many tourist destinations are in competition with each other (Heath & Wall, 1992). Bordas (1994) emphasized that competitiveness is established between destinations and tourism organizations rather than countries due to the different aspects and features of the destinations in a country. For example, most tourists are more familiar with Bali, Bangkok, and Paris rather than their own country. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) pointed out that a consumer selects a destination among alternatives, and evaluates each alternative based on its potential to serve the benefits he looks for. However, Laws (1991) stressed that each tourist has the opportunity and freedom to choose among a set of destinations. Different factors may have an influence on destination choice.

The indicators of destination competitiveness are many and varied (Omerzel, 2006). As Dwyer, Livaic and Mellor (2003) previously stressed, there are no single or unique indicators that apply to all destinations at all times. Previous studies on the competitiveness and positioning of Malaysian tourism destinations are limited; hence, a set of destination competitiveness attributes was developed. The identification of the attributes were based on a review of tourism literature on competitiveness models by Hassan (2000), Ritchie and Crouch (1993), Evans and Johnson (1995), Kozak (2001), De Keyser and Vanhove (1994), and Dwyer et al. (2003). The selection of indicators was made in accordance to the tourism scenario of Malaysian destinations. As a result of the review, a group of 40 attributes were identified and categorized in five themes namely attractions, facilities and services, infrastructure, cost and hospitality. These attributes were tested using a pilot survey and the result of the reliability test, performed on a 40 items using Cronbach Alpha, were 0.943, which is an indication of strong item homogeneity. However, this paper focuses only on attraction and facility attributes. Eight general destination attributes were identified and included in the analysis. The selection of these attributes was made based on the fact that attractions and tourist facilities were the two basic travel components that is essential to the tourism system.
3.0 METHODOLOGY

This research adopted quantitative approach to achieve its objectives. A survey questionnaire was utilized to collect relevant information. The study measured the level of destination competitiveness for three selected cities in Malaysia. The selection of study areas was determined by the popularity of the places and potential as tourist spots among domestic tourists. Kuala Lumpur selected since it is the capital city of the country and also the largest urban area in Malaysia. Penang Island is the second busiest city after Kuala Lumpur and the most popular island in Malaysia. Cameron Highlands was selected because after Kuala Lumpur and Penang, it considers as Malaysia’s most popular tourist destination. It is a treasured natural heritage of Malaysia and one of the long-established tourist destinations (Khairulmani, 1998, Wells, 1982). At the same time, the highland is one of the oldest and largest hill resorts in Malaysia (Leong, 1992).

Questionnaire

The selection of indicators for destination competitiveness was derived from previous research in other countries deemed suitable to the Malaysian tourism culture and environment. Questions and variables used in the questionnaire were derived from past studies, especially those by Dwyer et al. (2003), Go and Govers (1999), Kozak and Rimmington (1998), Mill and Morrison (1992), Laws (1995), Goodall and Bergsma (1990), McLellan and Fousher (1983), Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal (1989), Selby and Morgan (1996), and Sirakaya, McLellan and Uysal (1996).

The questionnaire consists of three sections, namely, general information of respondent, destination competitiveness attributes, and image of town/city. The first section indicated the demographic background of respondents, such as age, gender, race, employment, and main transportation used to reach the destination visited. The second section measured the perceptions of respondents regarding competitiveness attributes of the destination visited. The third section required respondents to state their level of agreement on destination image on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with a neutral position in the middle. The questionnaire was prepared in both Malay and English, and each questionnaire took about eight to 10 minutes to complete.

This study surveyed local tourists and tourism stakeholders throughout Malaysia. The groups of stakeholders consist of tourism industry stakeholders and government officials. The researchers employed two non-probability sampling techniques to approach the potential respondents (Table 1).

Data Collection

To ensure the higher return rate in the survey, the researchers employed two techniques in distributing the questionnaires, namely, questionnaire survey and web-based survey. First, the enumerators distributed the questionnaire on a face-to-face basis by approaching the potential respondents to answer the questionnaire on the spot. The face-to-face approach was employed to allow greater accuracy and avoid repeat surveying. The final technique used was the web-based survey. The researchers employed snowball techniques to achieve as many respondents as possible from the sample of tourism industry stakeholders and government officials. E-mail messages were sent to all possible contacts of the researchers. Respondents were required to answer the online questionnaire that can be accessed through a URL link.
4.0 RESULTS

The researchers managed to get 359 respondents to participate in the survey. Over 200 respondents were recorded in the web-based survey, whereas 159 respondents participated in the paper-based survey. The data were entered and coded into the SPSS program. Data cleaning and crosschecks were performed during the data entry process.

Profile of Respondents

Among the respondents, 40.2% are male and 59.8% female, with an average age of 32 years (Table 2). The foremost age group comprised respondents below 25 years old (33.8%), followed by the group whose age is between 26 and 35 years (31.3%). The most common employment sector is the government sector (66.55%); 21.38% work in the private sector, whereas 5.34% are self-employed. Up to 65.3% of the respondents are Malay, followed by Chinese (24.6%), Indian (2.2%), Bumiputera (5.6%), and others (2.2%). Majority of the respondents are single (54.2%).

Correspondence Analysis

In this study, the correspondence analyses of eight destination attractiveness attributes were performed. Correspondence analysis is a recently developed interdependence technique that facilitates dimensional reduction and conducts perceptual mapping. According to the results of the correspondence analysis, the Chi-square value of all attributes is significant (>86.802–200.356>, showing that the variable of the destination of choice (cities) is related to all eight destination attributes (Table 4). According to the table, the correlation between cities and the attraction attributes is significant. The total inertia of all attributes is above 24%. The inertia reflects the relative importance of each dimension, with the first always being the most important, and the next the second most important.

At the same time, correspondence analysis can be classified as a compositional technique, because it creates the perceptual map based on the association between objects and a set of descriptive characteristics or attributes (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1995). In the correspondence analysis output, the representations of row- and column-points are drawn one above the other on the same graph, in the same scale. The level of association between cities and attributes can be immediately recognized with the points in the graph. The correspondence analysis provides a graphical representation of attributes and destinations in two-dimensional space.

Figure 1 contains the correspondence analysis scaling solution coordinates for destination attractiveness variables and cities in Dimensions 1 and 2, with Dimension 1 on the horizontal axis and Dimension 2 on the vertical axis. In the
figures, a five-point Likert scale represents the following values: 5 (offering very much), 4 (offering somewhat much), 3 (neutral), 2 (offering somewhat little), and 1 (offering very little). The positions of the points in Figure 1 provide some important insights. The green points show destination attractiveness attributes, and the blue points represent the cities. The point's distance from each other is an approximate indication of how close the attributes and the destination of choice are together. However, the positive or negative relationship between cities and attributes determine by which quadrant each of cities and variables fall into. In Figure 1, while most of the cities and attributes are in the negative quadrant, the relationship of the opposite direction is positive. This suggests that cities and attributes have a relationship of opposite characteristics.

(Insert Figure 1 here)

As it is clear in Figure 1A, the value 5 (offering very much) of the scenery/natural resources variable and Cameron Highland are clustered together in the top right quadrant. Therefore, between scenery/natural resources and destination of choice, Cameron Highland greatly offers scenery/natural resources. The reason is that the protection and preservation of natural environment in this destination is being practiced strictly. Out of the eight attributes, Kuala Lumpur is considered to greatly offer six facets compared to the two other destinations. These attributes are nightlife and entertainment, special events and festivals, local transport service, entertainment facilities, shopping centers, and facilities at the airport. Penang Island greatly offers food and cuisine, because Penang is the “food paradise” in Malaysia. On the other hand, Penang significantly offers three other attributes (shopping centers, nightlife and entertainment, and special events and festivals).

Multidimensional Scaling

Multidimensional scaling (MDS) is a set of data analysis techniques for representing (dis)similarity data (similarity or dissimilarity data) through spatial distance models (Takane, 2007). The analysis of the dimensions can lead to an understanding of fundamental processes to perceive the nearness of entities (Van Deun & Delbeke, 2000). The result indicates that Kuala Lumpur is the most highly competitive city, followed by Penang and Cameron Highland. At the same time, the scatter plot of linear fit shown in Figure 3 displays positive progression, and the relativity to the raw data instead of the transformed data. The scatter plot of linear fit displays distances on the Y axis and disparities on the X axis. Distances are those for any two points in the input matrix. Disparities measure the distance of two points in the MDS space created by two dimensions. The more the scatter plot of linear fit forms a straight 45-degree line, the better is the fit of the MDS model to the data. Large ranks are observed to have a better fit than small ranks.

(Insert Figure 2 here)

(Insert Figure 3 here)
5.0 CONCLUSION

In this research, the concept of destination competitiveness has been explained in the literature review. The study later measured the level of destination competitiveness of three urban destinations in Malaysia. The identification of destination competitiveness attributes leads to the selection of eight destination attributes, including scenery/natural resources, food and cuisine, nightlife and entertainment, special events and festivals, local transport service, entertainments facilities, shopping centers, and facilities at the airport.

The results indicate that Kuala Lumpur is the most competitive city among the destinations. Penang Island and Cameron Highland are also competitive destinations, but in specific attributes only. In addition, these three cities were perceived by respondents to have positive images (i.e., beautiful, interesting, exciting and favorable). As an implication, this study suggests that the difference in tourism development zones shall concentrate on different packages of tourist products to take full advantage of their resources and locational advantages. To become a developed country, Malaysia needs a good planning standard to maximize the competitiveness of its tourism cities. It is hoped that the outcomes of this study will help tourism planners and authorities to plan the physical development, allocate the appropriate budget, and direct policies pertaining to development.

Since Malaysia begins to face competition with the new tourism market in the Southeast Asian region such as Laos, Vietnam and Cambodia, it would be beneficial to apply the methodological approach of this study for further use in other parts of Malaysia. The destinations can be measure their competitiveness level in order to identify strengths and weaknesses and consequently develop their future marketing and positioning strategies to meet the tourists’ expectation.

It is acknowledged that there is a limitation associated with this research. The limitation relates to the application of destination competitiveness to BIMP-EAGA region. This constraint was perhaps due to the fact that BIMP-EAGA region is marketed as a single destination that represented 4 countries namely Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia and Philippines. As discussed in the literature review, the destination competitiveness is defined for a country, its sub regions, states, cities or towns. It is difficult to determine the competitiveness between countries due to the different aspects and features of the destination in a country. Specifically, due to different strength and performance of countries, there might be difficulties in determining unique indicators to apply in all destinations in BIMP-EAGA region.

REFERENCES


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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Approaches to data collection</th>
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<td>No.</td>
<td>Sampling Technique</td>
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<td>Purposive sampling</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Snowball sampling</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Demographic characteristics of respondents</th>
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<tr>
<td>Demographic Variable</td>
<td>N</td>
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65
### Table 3
Descriptive statistics of destination attractiveness attributes for three cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination Image</th>
<th>Cameron Highland</th>
<th>Kuala Lumpur</th>
<th>Penang</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ugly-beautiful</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>1.352</td>
<td>5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boring-interesting</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.427</td>
<td>5.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirty-clean</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.488</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noisy-quiet</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>1.415</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chaotic-orderly</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>1.466</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smelly-fresh</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.588</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfriendly-friendly</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.394</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unpleasant-pleasant</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.317</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleepy-arousing</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.480</td>
<td>5.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distressing-relaxing</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>1.393</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gloomy-exciting</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>1.389</td>
<td>5.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfavorable-favorable</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>1.323</td>
<td>5.23</td>
</tr>
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### Table 4
Results of the correspondence analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Inertia Dimension1</th>
<th>Inertia Dimension2</th>
<th>Inertia (Total)</th>
<th>Chi Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scenery/natural resources</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.337 (33.7%)</td>
<td>120.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and cuisine</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.347 (34.7%)</td>
<td>123.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nightlife and entertainment</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.378 (37.8%)</td>
<td>134.187</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Special events and festivals 0.311 0.038 0.350 (35%) 124.844
Local transport service 0.230 0.014 0.245 (24.5%) 86.802
Entertainments facilities 0.352 0.083 0.435 (43.5%) 154.802
Shopping centers 0.459 0.103 0.563 (56.3%) 200.356
Facilities at the airport 0.289 0.058 0.347 (34.7%) 116.537
Figure 1. Results of the correspondence analysis between cities and destination attributes.
Figure 2. Multidimensional scaling results on competitiveness of the three destinations

Figure 3. Scatter plot of linear fit