



THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

香港理工大學

Pao Yue-kong Library
包玉剛圖書館

Copyright Undertaking

This thesis is protected by copyright, with all rights reserved.

By reading and using the thesis, the reader understands and agrees to the following terms:

1. The reader will abide by the rules and legal ordinances governing copyright regarding the use of the thesis.
2. The reader will use the thesis for the purpose of research or private study only and not for distribution or further reproduction or any other purpose.
3. The reader agrees to indemnify and hold the University harmless from and against any loss, damage, cost, liability or expenses arising from copyright infringement or unauthorized usage.

If you have reasons to believe that any materials in this thesis are deemed not suitable to be distributed in this form, or a copyright owner having difficulty with the material being included in our database, please contact lbsys@polyu.edu.hk providing details. The Library will look into your claim and consider taking remedial action upon receipt of the written requests.

**RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS
HONG KONG DISNEYLAND AND ITS IMPACTS**

SUBMITTED BY CHAN AH HEUNG, ELAINE

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements of the Degree of Master of Philosophy

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel and Tourism Management

October, 2003



Pao Yue-kong Library
PolyU • Hong Kong

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

CHAN Ah Heung, Elaine

ABSTRACT

The Hong Kong Disneyland project is expected to be a key component in helping Hong Kong to reinvigorate and strengthen it as one of Asia's most popular international tourism destinations and more importantly to boost Hong Kong's economy and tourism sector. In order to ensure the successful development, marketing, operation and acceptance of this project, residents' perceptions and opinions towards this project is crucial. The objectives of this study are: (a) to identify and examine the general perceptions of residents towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland and its development based upon a social representations framework; (b) to examine the commonalities in residents' perceptions and to profile the characteristics of the community clusters; and (c) to identify how the sources of information (direct experience, social interaction and media) influence residents' perceptions of Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts. A sample of 1,060 respondents was obtained through two telephone surveys.

It was found that residents showed a high level of support for the development three years after the announcement of the deal to develop a theme park and resort development at Penny's Bay. Generally, residents perceived economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude positively while they perceived the environmental impacts negatively. Four groups named as *'Lovers'*, *'Cautious Romantics'*, *'Supporters'* and *'Environmental Ambivalents'* were identified. Moreover, it was found that age was significantly related to cluster membership. For the influence of three sources of information, residents' representations of Hong Kong Disneyland were related to social interaction with their groups or networks and media coverage. Theoretical and managerial implications are drawn within the framework of social representations theory.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to acknowledge the support of School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University for supporting my research in terms of funding and resources. In particular, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. John Ap for his patience, fruitful guidance and encouragement throughout my research. My special thanks are extended to Dr. Andrew Chan, who provided invaluable advice and support throughout the development of my thesis.

Last but not least, thanks to my mother, my sister and my good friend, Angus for their endless support, care and love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
TABLE OF CONTENTS	III
LIST OF TABLES	VI
LIST OF FIGURES	VII
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION	1
1.2 THE DISNEYLAND THEME PARK DEVELOPMENT	4
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	6
1.4 OBJECTIVES	9
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	10
CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 INTRODUCTION	12
2.2 RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES TO TOURISM IN GENERAL.....	13
2.3 RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM IMPACTS.....	18
2.3.1 <i>Socio-Cultural Impacts of Tourism</i>	19
2.3.2 <i>Economic Impacts of Tourism</i>	24
2.3.3 <i>Environmental Impacts of Tourism</i>	26
2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	30
2.5 THE SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS APPROACH	33
2.6 THREE SOURCES OF SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS	40
2.6.1 <i>Direct Experience</i>	40
2.6.2 <i>Social Interaction</i>	41
2.6.3 <i>Media</i>	41
2.7 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS	44
2.8 VARIABLES AFFECTING RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM AND ITS IMPACTS ..	46
2.8.1 <i>Level of Tourism Development</i>	46
2.8.2 <i>Economic Dependency</i>	47
2.8.3 <i>Proximity</i>	48
2.8.4 <i>Community Attachment</i>	49
2.8.5 <i>Demographic Characteristics</i>	50
2.8.6 <i>Personal Influence on Tourism Decisions</i>	50
2.8.7 <i>Knowledge of Tourism</i>	51
CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY	58
3.1 INTRODUCTION	58
3.2 SAMPLING DESIGN.....	59
3.3 DATA COLLECTION.....	60
3.4 INSTRUMENT DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT	61
3.5 OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES	64
3.5.1 <i>Direct Experience</i>	64
3.5.2 <i>Social Interaction</i>	64
3.5.3 <i>Media Influence</i>	65
3.6 DATA ANALYSIS	66
3.6.1 <i>Descriptive Analysis</i>	66
3.6.2 <i>Factor and Reliability Analysis</i>	67

3.6.3 <i>Independent Samples T-tests</i>	67
3.6.4 <i>Cluster Analysis</i>	67
CHAPTER FOUR - FINDINGS	71
4.1 INTRODUCTION	71
4.2 GENERAL INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS	72
4.2.1 <i>Gender and Age of the Respondents</i>	72
4.2.2 <i>Residents' Economic Dependency on Tourism</i>	73
4.3 RESPONDENTS' GENERAL PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS HONG KONG DISNEYLAND	74
4.4 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE IMPACTS OF HONG KONG DISNEYLAND	75
4.4.1 <i>Factor 1 – Economic Impacts</i>	76
4.4.2 <i>Factor 2 – Socio-cultural Impacts</i>	77
4.4.3 <i>Factor 3 – Community Attitude</i>	77
4.4.4 <i>Factor 4 – Environmental Impacts</i>	78
4.4.5 <i>Overall Perceptions to the Impacts</i>	78
4.5 RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE IMPACTS OF HONG KONG DISNEYLAND	80
4.6 AN ASSUMPTION	82
4.7 INFLUENCE OF THREE SOURCES OF INFORMATION	84
4.7.1 <i>Influence of Direct Experience</i>	84
4.7.2 <i>Influence of Media</i>	86
4.7.3 <i>Influence of Social Interaction</i>	88
4.7.4 <i>Comparison of Respondents' Participating in the Two Surveys (Influence of Media and Social Interaction)</i>	90
CHAPTER FIVE - CLUSTER ANALYSIS AND CLUSTER PROFILES	92
5.1 INTRODUCTION	92
5.2 SELECTION OF CLUSTER VARIABLES	93
5.3 ASSUMPTIONS IN CLUSTER ANALYSIS	94
5.3.1 <i>Multicollinearity</i>	94
5.3.2 <i>Outliers</i>	95
5.3.3 <i>Standardizing the Data</i>	95
5.3.4 <i>Missing Values</i>	95
5.4 ALGORITHMS	97
5.5 CLUSTER SOLUTION	99
5.6 VALIDATION OF THE CLUSTERS	101
5.6.1 <i>Reliability</i>	101
5.6.2 <i>External Validity</i>	102
5.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLUSTER MEMBERSHIP AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ..	103
5.7.1 <i>Age</i>	103
5.7.2 <i>Media Ratings</i>	104
5.7.3 <i>Discussion</i>	105
5.8 CLUSTER PROFILES	106
5.9 CONCLUSION	112
CHAPTER SIX - DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	113
6.1 INTRODUCTION	113
6.2 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS	114
6.2.1 <i>Residents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland</i>	114
6.2.2 <i>Residents' Perceptions towards the Development</i>	116
6.2.3 <i>Host Community Sub-groups</i>	116
6.2.4 <i>Influence of Direct Experience, Social Interaction and Media</i>	118
6.3 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS	122
6.3.1 <i>Internal Marketing</i>	122

6.3.2 <i>Community Involvement</i>	124
6.3.3 <i>Environmental Measures</i>	124
6.4 STUDY LIMITATIONS.....	126
6.5 FUTURE RESEARCH.....	128
6.6 CONCLUSIONS.....	130
APPENDIX A - TELEPHONE SURVEY (METHODOLOGY)	131
APPENDIX B - SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)	136
APPENDIX C - SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (CHINESE VERSION)	140
APPENDIX D - T-TEST RESULTS OF VARIABLES SHOWING NO SIGNIFICANCE	144
REFERENCES	145

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Summary of Residents' Perceived Socio-Cultural Impacts of Tourism	21
Table 2. Summary of Residents' Perceived Economic Impacts of Tourism.....	25
Table 3. Summary of Residents' Perceived Environmental Impacts of Tourism	27
Table 4. Major Conclusions on Community Perceptions of Tourism.....	53
Table 5. Respondents' Demographic Profile	73
Table 6. Respondents' Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland.....	74
Table 7. Results of Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation and Reliability Analysis of Respondents' General Perceptions towards Tourism Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland	76
Table 8. Respondents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland	79
Table 9. Respondents' Perceptions towards the Type of Change of Hong Kong Disneyland's Impacts	81
Table 10. Comparison Between Perceived Type of Change and Level of Like/Dislike.....	83
Table 11. Influence of Direct Experience in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland	85
Table 12. Ratings of Media Coverage on Hong Kong Disneyland.....	86
Table 13. Influence of Media in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland.....	86
Table 14. Independent Sample T-test Results: Ratings on Media Coverage as Positive Vs. Negative on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland	87
Table 15. Influence of Social Interaction in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland	88
Table 16. Perceived Outcomes Following Discussion on Hong Kong Disneyland.....	88
Table 17. Independent Sample T-test Results: Impact of Interaction/Discussion with Others on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland.....	89
Table 18. Comparison of Respondents' Responses Participating in the Two Surveys towards Hong Kong Disneyland.....	91
Table 19. Cluster Means for Each Impact Variable and ANOVA Results	100
Table 20. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Age	104
Table 21. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Media Ratings	105
Table 22. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Discussion Results.....	105
Table 23. Cluster Means for General Perception Variables with ANOVA Results.....	110

Table 24. Cluster Profiles on Impact Items.....	110
Table 25. Comparison of Positive Responses between “ <i>Lovers</i> ” and “ <i>Cautious Romantics</i> ”	111

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Relationships between Individual and Social Representations.....	45
Figure 2. Procedures Used in Cluster Analysis of Residents’ Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland	70
Figure 3. Cluster Analysis Procedures	98

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

The tourism industry is one of the Hong Kong's most important foreign exchange earners. In 2001, the industry generated revenues amounting to some \$64 billion (Hong Kong Tourism Board [HKTB], 2002) and contributed over 5% of Gross Domestic Product in the economy (Census & Statistics Department of HKSAR, 2002a). The Asian financial turmoil has certainly impacted the tourism industry throughout the Asia region, exacerbating the drop in intra-regional tourist arrivals. Especially in 1997 and 1998 when arrivals in Hong Kong fell 13.1% and 9.9%, respectively (HKTB, 2001). The drop in visitor numbers towards the end of the 1990s was a wake up call for Hong Kong as it was becoming too expensive and too complacent (Tourism Commission of HKSAR, 2002). Moreover, the outbreak of *Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome* (SARS) since March has caused a dramatic drop in tourist arrivals to Hong Kong and thus severely impacted its tourism industry.

In fact, Hong Kong's status as a "Shopping Paradise" seems to be replaced by Thailand and Shenzhen. Other Asian countries, such as Singapore, Korea, Taiwan and Japan also threaten Hong Kong's position as a leading destination in Asia. In order to cope with competition throughout the region, continuous upgrade of tourism products to compete for the tourist dollar and meet the challenges head on is necessary. The Hong Kong SAR Government has reached agreement on the

construction of a world-class theme park, and have developed plans for other new attractions, such as a tourist Cable Car system (Tung Chung to Ngong Ping), and International Wetland Park, a permanent circus, as well as a Fisherman's Wharf in Aberdeen in order to maintain its competitive advantage.

The Hong Kong Disneyland project is expected to be a key component in helping Hong Kong reinvigorate and strengthen it as one of Asia's most popular international tourism destinations. The Hong Kong SAR government believes this project will reinforce Hong Kong's position as a "must see" destination on the international tourism map. The development of Hong Kong Disneyland provides an opportunity to market Hong Kong to overseas tourists with a new entertainment attraction and to develop the family market. It not only enhances Hong Kong's attractiveness, but will also attract more short haul tourists, especially from Mainland China, Taiwan and the Southeast Asian countries. It is projected that an extra 1.4 million tourists will be induced to visit Hong Kong in the 1st year of operation and this will rise to 2.9 million upon build-out of Phase I. Additional spending by tourists is estimated to be \$8.3 billion in year 1, rising to \$16.8 billion per annum by year 20 and beyond (Government Information Centre of HKSAR, 2002). Tangible benefits of the development include attracting millions of tourists a year, the creation of thousands of jobs and substantial long-term economic returns, while the intangible benefits include the enrichment of the quality of life, and enhancement of Hong Kong's international image. Apart from this, the long-term investment by a well-known international company, the Walt Disney Company, will boost foreign confidence in the local economy. Hong Kong's service industry can also learn from Disney's world-class style and standard of management and services, and hence stimulate an

upgrading of service standards. More importantly, the project would help to develop the family travel market in Hong Kong and lessen reliance on the traditional forms of business travel and shopping-oriented tourism.

Indeed, the Government has to provide a huge investment in infrastructure and a loan to the project company and it accounts for a high proportion of the total investment. Some industry experts, however, still question the economic viability of the park with issues such as, the financial burden on the HKSAR government, fairness of the deal, and expressed doubts about the park's attractiveness to tourists, given that it would be the fifth Disneyland park in the world and the second in Asia after Tokyo. On the other hand, environmentalists are also concerned with the possible environmental impacts of the Disney theme park on Hong Kong's "green lung" - the outlying island of Lantau. The historic boat shelter site, the coastal habitats and the surrounding landscape have been destroyed during site formation; its impact on air quality, waste generation and resource consumption would be substantial once the theme park begins operating (Murray, 1999). Objections have also come from fishermen because of their concerns on the possible impacts to fisheries during the dredging and filling operations of the land reclamation. Although community opinions reported by the government and media indicate favorable reactions to the project, there are still some concerns within the community towards the project. They have varied from those who welcomed the deal and embraced it, to those who raised skepticism that the project is not a very attractive proposition (Ap, 2000a).

1.2 The Disneyland Theme Park Development

After nine months of detailed negotiations between the Hong Kong SAR government and The Walt Disney Company, an agreement was reached between the Government and Disney to build Hong Kong Disneyland at Penny's Bay on Lantau Island. Penny's Bay had been earmarked for tourism and recreational development.

The Government Information Centre of the HKSAR (2002) provided background information about the project as follows:

The project is one of the Hong Kong's largest tourism infrastructure projects with total investment amounting to \$27.7 billion including a \$5.6 billion loan to the project company and \$13.6 billion for land reclamation of some 280 hectares in Penny's Bay and related infrastructure costs. Infrastructure includes public roads, signage, drainage, landscaping and public services. Transportation links like ferry pier, public transportation interchange, road extensions and networks will also be developed.

Hong Kong Disneyland will be built and operated by a new joint-venture company - Hong Kong International Theme Parks Limited (HKITP) - formed by the HKSAR government and The Walt Disney Company. The Government owns 57% of the shares in the company initially, while Disney owns 43%.

The project is estimated to provide jobs covering a broad range of skills from entry-level positions for the emerging workforce to technical, artistic and business

personnel and professionals (Murray, 1999). Sixteen thousand (16,000) jobs will be needed during the construction of Phase I and around 18,400 jobs on opening of the park and with up to 35,800 new jobs over a 20-year period. The theme park will induce 1.4 million “new” or “additional” tourists to visit Hong Kong on opening, rising to 2.9 million on build-out of Phase I. Moreover, it has the potential to provide Hong Kong with a net economic benefit of up to \$148 million over 40 years with a 25% of economic return.

Hong Kong Disneyland Phase I will occupy 126 hectares of reclaimed land at Penny’s Bay to be opened in 2005/06. The park can be expanded to 180 hectares at a future date when demand warrants it. Phase I construction will include a theme park, a Disney resort hotel complex, and a retail, dining and entertainment center. There will be a fireworks display every night, but subdued so as not to interfere with flights in and out of Chek Lap Kok airport or with residents of the nearby regions.

1.3 Problem Statement

Traditionally, theme parks are designed for local residents. The development of Hong Kong Disneyland is regarded as one of the major current tourism development projects in Hong Kong as it is forecasted that approximately 70% of visitors to Hong Kong Disneyland would be tourists (Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Government, 1999). The major market sources would be the East Asian market, largely the Mainland, Taiwan and Southeast Asia. Thus, the project is regarded as one of Hong Kong's largest tourism infrastructure works with total investment amounting to \$27.7 billion, including land reclamation and infrastructure works. Hong Kong Disneyland will play a key role in boosting Hong Kong's economy and tourism sector. It is estimated that five million visitors will attend the Park in its first year of operation and additional spending by tourists will amount to \$8.3 billion in Year 1. If the Disney theme park fails to draw visitors, it will certainly affect Hong Kong's image as one of the Asia's most popular international tourist destination.

In order to ensure the success and acceptance of the project, the Hong Kong government should consider the perceptions and attitudes of residents towards this development. It is well recognized that obtaining information about residents' perceptions of tourism development in the planning of tourism is very important (Butler, 1974; Liu, Sheldon & Var, 1987). Murphy (1985) mentioned the importance of taking into consideration community attitudes and consultation with the community when developing tourism at the community level. In fact, knowing how residents perceive the benefits and costs of tourism is essential to developing a viable tourism industry as they may contribute to the well-being of the community through

their participation in the planning, development, and operation of the tourist attractions, as well as extending their hospitality to tourists (Ap, 1992). So, community perceptions towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland are likely to be an important planning and policy consideration for the successful development, marketing, and operation of the project. If the tourism planners and developers fail to take into consideration community opinions towards this project, it could create unnecessary problems for the developer and lead to the development of negative community attitudes towards the project. Thus, residents' perceptions towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland are investigated in this study.

Knowing the level of support for the development is important. If resident perceptions and preferences do not support tourism development policies and programs, then programs are likely to fail or be ineffective in their implementation (Pearce, 1980). That is, there is a possibility the Disney project could run into problems if it loses support from the public. These problems may include a further decline in attendance to the park by locals, which will lead to the loss of revenue, unpredictable decrease of incremental tourists and dissatisfaction among residents. All of these will lower potential profits and create a potential loss to the Hong Kong International Theme Parks Limited (HKITP). Therefore, for Hong Kong Disneyland to succeed, it must be viewed favourably by the public.

Although Hong Kong residents live in a small place, this does not mean they belong to the same "community". There may be any number of communities which share common goals or opinions. Rather than examining responses to the development, segmentation analysis of those responses allows a closer representation of responses

by forming distinct groups where the variation within the group is low, and variation between the groups is high (Madrigal, 1995).

Apart from investigating residents' perceptions towards economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts, impacts on residents' attitude were also investigated. It influences the overall attractiveness of Hong Kong since it is an crucial factor in selecting Hong Kong by tourists and determining if the tourists return to Hong Kong.

Although knowing residents' perceptions towards the project and its impacts is important, understanding how residents respond to the impacts of tourism they way they do is significant too. In the tourism literature, there are two prevailing frameworks that dominate in explaining the phenomenon. They are social exchange theory and social representations theory. The latter will be adopted as the theoretical framework in this study as there is limited research which has successfully applied this concept in examining residents' perceptions. This would be the most challenging aspect of this study.

1.4 Objectives

Through an investigation about the residents' perceptions towards the main impacts of the construction and operation of the theme park, the following objectives have been identified:

- 1) To identify and examine the general perceptions of Hong Kong residents towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland and its development based upon a social representations framework;
- 2) To examine the commonalities in residents' perceptions (representations) and to profile their characteristics of those community clusters with differing social representations to Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts;
- 3) To identify how the sources of information influence residents' "representations" (perceptions) of Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts. Sub-objectives of applying social representations theory are:
 - a) to examine how direct experience affects residents' perceptions (i.e. social representations) towards the development and the impacts;
 - b) to examine how social interaction affects residents' perceptions towards the development and the impacts;
 - c) to examine how the media influences residents' perceptions towards the development and the impacts.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study of residents' perceptions of the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland is required because failure to give attention to residents' real concerns will result in dissatisfaction and grievances within the community. The Park will find it difficult to be accepted within the community and to succeed if it does not gain support from local residents. The results also provides a reference point for the bodies like the Tourism Commission and the Hong Kong Tourism Board in terms of formulating marketing and community education campaigns to enhance awareness of the project as well as increase the project's successful development, marketing and operation. With the results, the project can be designed and developed in order to accommodate the perceived community concerns and opportunities, so that to minimize any perceived or real negative impacts.

In addition, this study was not a post-hoc study assessment of a tourism development project. It was being conducted during its development and this departed from the traditional nature of most resident perceptions or attitude studies, which involve a post-hoc assessment.

To date, there has been only few research studies reported in the English literature that has attempted to test and applied social representations theory in an empirical setting within the tourism context. Therefore, this study is largely exploratory as it borrows a theory from other disciplines that has been rarely been tested in this context. As social representations are formed by collections of individual opinions, attitudes, or stereotypes which are linked to the individuals' sociological and psycho-

sociological characteristics (Doise, Clemence & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1993), this study did not examine how social representations are formed. This goes beyond the scope of this study. It is difficult to know how an idea is formulated in one's mind and the way to predict their perceptions. Rather, it focuses on identifying groups of residents with differing social representations (perceptions) towards this development.

More importantly, the influences of three main sources of social representations on residents' perceptions towards a particular tourism project and its impacts have not been previously reported nor investigated in the previous literature. This represented one of the unique aspects of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Over the past twenty years, numerous research studies have focused on the perceptions of the residents on the impacts of tourism and tourism development with regard to its economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects. In the following part, residents' perceived impacts of tourism and tourism development as well as the factors, which affect perceptions, will be addressed. Social representations theory, which serves as the theoretical framework for this study will also be explained.

2.2 Residents' Perceptions and Attitudes to Tourism in General

Residents' attitudes towards tourism differ and this is based on many factors, which consist of age, language, length of residence, amount of tourist contact, location and personal characteristics (Sheldon & Var, 1984; Liu & Var, 1986). Their attitudes are mainly influenced by perceptions generally. Perdue, Long and Allen (1990) found that behavioral intentions are closely related to residents' perceptions of tourism. It can be concluded that residents who benefit from additional tourism development would most likely be supportive of it. Jurowski, Uysal and Williams (1997), Lankford and Howard (1994) and Korca (1998) also found that residents with the highest overall level of support of tourism tended to be people who had stronger opinions about the positive aspects of the tourism industry. A study by Perdue, Long and Allen (1987) has shown that residents who perceived more negative impacts from tourism had less favorable attitudes towards tourism development.

Ap (1992) used social exchange theory to explain how residents' developed positive or negative attitudes towards tourism development and its impacts. He argued that residents who perceive the exchange with tourists as beneficial would support tourism, while those who perceive the exchange as deleterious will oppose tourism development. Several studies found that residents benefiting from tourism have a higher level of support for it and thus report more positive impacts (Husbands, 1989; Madrigal, 1993; Lankford & Howard, 1994). Milman and Pizam (1988) found that residents who support tourism development had positive perceptions of tourism impacts. Lankford and Howard (1994) also pointed out that residents who believe tourism will improve their quality of life would react positively. In addition, the more

dependent a person was on tourism as a means of livelihood, the more positive was that person's overall attitude towards tourism (Liu & Var, 1986; Lankford & Howard, 1994).

Residents' attitude will influence the overall attractiveness of tourist regions since it is an important factor in selecting the destination by tourists and determining whether the tourists return to the destination (Liu & Var, 1986). In addition, it will influence future tourism development of a particular region.

Although, an extensive body of empirical study has focused on residents' perceptions towards tourism, only few studies (Getz, 1982, 1994; Johnson, Snepenger & Akis, 1994) have sought to examine community perceptions on a longitudinal basis. Soutar and McLeod (1993) examined residents' perceptions of the America's Cup series and its impact. Surveys of residents were carried out prior to, during, and following the completion of the event. It showed that Fremantle residents' perceptions of the effect of the America's Cup were similar in July 1985 and March 1986, but were more positive in the March 1987 survey, which was conducted after the Cup had been held. As a result of the Cup and related activities, Fremantle would be a much better place to live in the future, so a majority of residents welcomed the prospect of having another America's Cup or similar event in Fremantle in the future. Getz studied the Spey Valley in the United Kingdom in 1978 and again in 1992 and Johnson et al. examined community sentiment over a 6-year period in a developing ski area in Idaho, USA. Both studies found general support for tourism but recognized that a degree of negativity had become apparent by the latter stages of the study. Indeed, a longitudinal study would be useful as it

traces the changes of perceptions of residents towards tourism according to the stages of development which is particularly important to policymakers and developers since such studies would establish a base to which further developments can be compared and appropriate actions can be taken to prevent negative impacts (Ap, 1992). It is particularly useful to develop longitudinal measures of perceptions of the tourism in the pre-development stage and post-development stage to compare any changes in perceptions. For tourism to remain sustainable within a community there must be community-wide participation, continual assessment of resident perceptions to ensure tourism development remains consistent with the local character of the community and its values (Pearce, 1980; Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach, 1988; Johnson et al., 1994).

It is noted that few studies have been conducted on the perceived impacts of tourism either prior to any development or when it is not yet a significant economic area of activity for a region (Mason & Cheyne, 2000). Many studies have been conducted on residents' perceptions towards tourism in a post hoc context during the later stages of tourism development (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Liu & Var, 1986; Liu et al., 1987; Perdue et al., 1987; Husbands, 1989; Long, Perdue & Allen, 1990; Madrigal, 1993; King, Pizam & Milman, 1993; Johnson et al., 1994). Very few studies have examined the hopes, expectations, attitudes, and concerns for residents prior to the establishment of tourism development (Keogh, 1990). Keogh (1990) and Hernandez, Cohen and Garcia (1996) conducted a pre-development stage study of a small-scale development in New Brunswick, Canada and a proposed "instant" enclave resort in Costa Isabela, respectively. Keogh (1990) conducted his research at the proposal stage and reported that those living closest had the strongest

feelings about the development, and local landowners also had strong views. Most residents were not well informed about the development, and Keogh argued that it is important that tourism is not blamed for inadequacies in other aspects of host life. He also suggested that this kind of pre-development research could also enable information transfer to the public. In another survey, Hernandez et al. found that residents felt ambivalent and had mixed feelings, recognizing both the costs and benefits of tourism. However, it was revealed that residents felt powerless to decide whether the development happened or not. Recently, Mason and Cheyne (2000) conducted a pre-development study prior to the establishment of a tourism project and they advocated the need and importance of conducting investigations prior the development. Indeed, more pre-development stage research study should be conducted in order to gain public opinions and attitudes towards tourism development or a project so as to ensure their success and minimize the negative impacts as much as possible.

To date, the majority of tourism studies on residents' perceptions have been conducted in developed countries such as the United States, Canada, Australia, and several European countries (Sirakaya, Teye & Sonmez, 2002). Although, a substantial body of literature about tourism development in developing countries has emerged during the past three decades (Bryden, 1973; de Kadt, 1979; Harrison, 1992; Mowforth & Munt, 1998), but hardly any have examined residents' perceptions towards tourism, especially at the inception stages which is critical to the success of tourism development. Therefore, more studies examining community attitudes and perceptions should be conducted in developing countries where its tourism is at an inception stage.

Regarding the methodology that tourism studies have used, cluster analysis has gained increasingly popular usage as the statistical tool for segmentation purposes since the late 1980s to differentiate residents who have different perceptions of tourism. Examples of such studies include Davis, Allen and Cosenza (1988), Schroeder (1992), Evans (as cited in Williams & Lawson, 2001), Ryan and Montgomery (1994), Madrigal (1995), Martin (1995), Pearce, Moscardo and Ross (1996), Jurowski (1998), Fredline and Faulkner (2000), Weaver and Lawton (2001) and Williams and Lawson (2001). These studies have generally identified three to five clusters with perceptions ranging from “Lovers” to “Haters”; with many also identifying an ambivalent or “Realistic” group who exhibit mixed perceptions.

A number of authors have reported heterogeneity of community response and diversity of resident perceptions (Brougham & Butler, 1981; Husbands, 1989; Ap & Crompton, 1993; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994; Lawson, Williams, Young & Cossens, 1998). Hall (1994) and Joppe (1996) also supported the existence of this heterogeneity and reported that communities do not necessarily have shared interests, but are made up of groups and individual with very mixed views. Pearce et al. (1996) suggested that these community groups indicate different social representations of tourism where social representations are the shared beliefs adopted by groups of people that help to order their reality and facilitate social interaction.

2.3 Residents' Perceptions of Tourism Impacts

The main concern in the context of residents' perceptions is that what is perceived does not have to be true, it simply has to be thought to be true. Perceptions can only be inferred and cannot be directly ascertained (Ap, 1992). Perceptions rather than reality are what motivate residents to act or not to act in a certain way.

Community perceptions of tourism impacts are important because these perceptions affect the behavior of residents towards tourism development and tourists. Its importance is reflected in the large number of studies (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Pearce, 1980; Murphy, 1983; Liu & Var, 1986; Ahmed, 1986; Liu et al., 1987; Perdue et al., 1987, 1990; Milman & Pizam, 1988) concerned with the impacts of tourism and tourism development on host communities in the past two decades. There has been extensive research reporting on community perceptions of the various impacts of tourism since the late 1970s. Existing research on residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism has provided a knowledge base that is exploratory in nature and primarily descriptive (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Sethna & Richmond, 1978; Thomason, Crompton & Kamp, 1979; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Brougham & Bulter, 1981; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Tyrrell & Spaulding, 1984; Var, Kendall & Tarakcioglu, 1985; Liu & Var, 1986; Liu et al, 1987; Allen et al., 1988; Bystrzanowski, 1989; Ross, 1992; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Tosun, 2002). The majority of the research has focused on a single host community or small numbers of neighboring areas.

Early work by Pizam (1978), Mathieson and Wall (1982) and Keogh (1989) on perceived impacts tended to focus on the economic and positive impacts of tourism. However, in the 1970s, there was considerable focus on the negative perceptions of tourism impacts. The 1980s and 1990s have been characterized by a more balanced perspective, where both positive and negative perceived impacts were evaluated (Ap & Crompton, 1998). Basically, a host is influenced by the perceived impact of tourism in three basic categories of benefits and costs: economic, environmental and social (Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Gee, Mackens & Choy, 1989; McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990; Gursoy, Chen & Yoon, 2000). The following paragraphs present a review of the perceived economic, socio-cultural as well as environmental impacts of tourism and tourism development.

2.3.1 Socio-Cultural Impacts of Tourism

By definition, social impacts can change through time in response to structural changes in the industry, and the extent and duration of the exposure of the host population to tourist development (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). It involves the more immediate changes in the social structure of the community and adjustments to the destination's economy and industry (Murphy, 1985), while the cultural impacts focus on the longer-term, gradual change in a society's values, beliefs, and cultural practices (Brunt & Courtney, 1999). Since "there is no clear distinction between socio-cultural phenomena..." (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996, p. 504), many theorists have attempted to classify the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in a broad context.

The socio-cultural impacts of tourism are broad ranging and refer to the ways in which tourism is perceived to contribute to changes in value systems, individual behavior, family relations, collective lifestyles, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies, and community organizations (Fox, 1977). The perceived socio-cultural impacts constitute the greatest number of observed impacts resulting from tourism development. Significant research (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Liu & Var, 1986; Liu et al., 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bystrzanowski, 1989; Perdue et al., 1990; Pearce, Moscardo & Ross, 1991; Ap, 1992; Madrigal, 1993; Getz, 1994; Lankford & Howard, 1994) has been undertaken to evaluate social impacts. Residents have generally perceived economic impacts positively and environmental impacts negatively. However, residents hold differing viewpoints of the socio-cultural impacts. The positive and negative perceived socio-cultural impacts, which have been identified, are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of Residents' Perceived Socio-Cultural Impacts of Tourism**Positive Socio-Cultural Impacts**

Improves the quality of life	Pizam (1978), Milman & Pizam (1988), Perdue et al. (1990), Brunt & Courtney (1999)
Improves understanding and image of different communities or cultures	Pizam (1978), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Milman & Pizam (1988), Korca (1996)
Promotes cultural exchange	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Korca (1996)
Increases availability of recreation facilities/opportunities	Pizam (1978), Belisle & Hoy (1980), Garland (1984), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Perdue et al. (1987), Ross (1992), Akis, Peristianis & Warner (1996)
Increases the availability of entertainment	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Garland (1984), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Korca (1996)
Enables meeting of visitors which is a valuable educational experience	Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Akis et al. (1996), Korca (1996)
Improves quality of fire protection	Pizam (1978) Milman & Pizam (1988)
Improves quality of police protection	Pizam (1978)
Preserves cultural identity	Liu & Var (1986)
Increases civic pride	Garland (1984)
Increases demand for historical and cultural exhibits	Liu & Var (1986)

Negative Socio-Cultural Impacts

Increased prostitution	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987)
Increased sexual harassment	Sethna & Richmond (1978), Milman & Pizam (1988), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996)
Increased alcoholism	Pizam (1988), Milman & Pizam (1988), King et al. (1993)
Increased drug taking and abuse	Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996)
Increased smuggling	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Milman & Pizam (1988)
Increased crime	Pizam (1978), Garland (1984), King et al. (1993), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996), Brunt & Courtney (1999)
Increased exploitation of local natives	Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987)
Avoidance of shopping in tourism areas	Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987)
Increased material gain	Korca (1996)

Source: Adapted from Ap & Crompton (1998)

Residents' perceptions on the socio-cultural impacts are far from consistent. There is always some ambivalence and contradictory evidence on the perceptions of some types of socio-cultural impacts. For example, Milman and Pizam (1988) in their study of Central Florida residents reported that residents did not perceive tourism as a contributor to increasing the social virtues of morality, honesty, politeness and manners, mutual confidence and attitude towards work. Moreover, Bystrzanowski (1989) found that tourism did not increase perceptions of the availability of recreation facilities or opportunities. Contradictory findings were also reported in terms of drug use and addiction, crime and vandalism, and social and family structure, which are shown in Table 1.

On the issue of drug use and addiction, two studies found that an increase was attributed to tourism (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980), and two studies did not (Liu & Var, 1986; Milman & Pizam, 1988). With respect to the issue of crime and vandalism, some studies have reported that tourism increased crime and vandalism (Rothman, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Perdue et al., 1987; Ross, 1992), while other studies have not confirmed this (Liu & Var, 1986; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bystrzanowski, 1989). Besides, some also found a relationship exists between tourism and perceptions of crime (Jud, 1975; Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram, 1983; Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986), while others did not confirm this (Lin & Loeb, 1977; Pizam, 1982; Stokowski, 1996). For the effects of tourism on the social and family structure, some studies found that it had no adverse impact (Liu et al., 1987; Sethna & Richmond, 1978), while others have suggested a relationship exists (Rothman, 1978; Brougham & Butler, 1981).

Butler (1974) and Keogh (1989) classified the perceived socio-cultural impacts on host communities or destination areas into two categories. One category concerns the characteristics of the destination area, which includes the perceived social impacts of the resident-visitor encounters, such as cultural gap effects, crime, prostitution, and the demonstration effect. The other category of perceived impacts concerns social impacts resulting from infrastructure development and their perceived effects on the local resources, such as, pressure on local resources and facilities, local versus imported labor, local language and cultural effects, and life-style changes.

Bulter (1974) also suggested there were five factors related to the destination's characteristics that influenced the nature of perceived socio-cultural impacts. These were (1) the economic state of the area, (2) the degree of local involvement in tourism, (3) the spatial characteristics of tourism development, (4) strength or viability of the local culture, and (5) other characteristics (e.g., political attitudes of local population). The wide ranging nature of these factors suggests that perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of tourism are complex and diverse.

Although the social impact of tourism has been extensively studied, they are seen as "quasi-intellectual findings pretending worldwide validity, which in fact do not go beyond small-talk at a social gathering" (van Doorn, 1989, p. 89). Besides, several authors also argued that it is very difficult to operationalize stage or step based models of residents' perceptions of social impacts (Johnson et al., 1994; Pearce et al., 1996).

2.3.2 Economic Impacts of Tourism

The perceived impacts, which have been measured through empirical research, are extensive. In most studies (Ross, 1992; Lankford & Howard, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Jurowski et al., 1997; Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002; Tosun, 2002), residents were found to perceive the economic impacts of tourism and tourism development positively. The positive and negative economic impacts, which have been perceived by residents, are shown in Table 2.

Generally, residents perceived the economic impacts positively. However, there have been contradictory results on the effect of tourism in increasing the price of land and housing where Belisle and Hoy (1980) reported residents did not perceive this as a problem.

Notwithstanding, costs such as noise, congestion, and pollution which are relatively intangible and difficult to measure in economic terms, are usually not addressed in economic impact studies. In this study, pollution is regarded as an environmental impact. Knowing that the studies related to the economic impacts of tourism were conducted almost 30 years ago, most of them are still applicable to this study. All these impacts are still true today, even in both developed and developing countries. Economic impacts are generally regarded as benefits of tourism while environmental impacts are usually identified as costs of tourism development.

Table 2. Summary of Residents' Perceived Economic Impacts of Tourism**Positive Economic Impacts**

Contributes to income and standard of living	Pizam (1978), Belisle & Hoy (1980), Garland (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Milman & Pizam (1988), Akis et al. (1996), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996), Korca (1996)
Improves the local economy	Perdue et al. (1990), Lawson et al. (1998)
Increases employment opportunities	Rothman (1978), Belisle & Hoy (1980), Garland (1984), Sheldon & Var (1984), Tyrell & Spaulding (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Milman & Pizam (1988), Long et al. (1990), Ross (1992), Johnson et al. (1994), Lankford (1994), Lankford & Howard (1994), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996), Korca (1996), Ap & Crompton (1998), Gursoy et al. (2002), Tosun (2002)
Improves investment, development, and infrastructure spending in the economy	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu & Var (1986), Milman & Pizam (1988), Akis et al. (1996)
Increases tax revenues	Rothman (1978), Brougham & Butler (1981), Liu & Var (1986), Allen et al. (1988), Milman & Pizam (1988), Long et al. (1990), Lankford & Howard (1994), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996), Ap and Crompton (1998)
Improves transport infrastructure	Belisle & Hoy (1980)
Increases opportunities for shopping	Liu & Var (1986), Korca (1996)
Increases town's overall revenue earnings	Tosun (2002)
Increases public utilities infrastructure	Rothman (1978), Sethna & Richmond (1978)

Negative Economic Impacts

Increased price or shortage of goods and services	Butler (1974), Pizam (1978), Belisle & Hoy (1980), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Husbands (1989), Ross (1992), Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996), Korca (1996)
Increased price of land and housing	Butler (1974), Pizam (1978), Var et al. (1985), Bystrzanowski (1989), Perdue et al. (1990), Ross (1992), Korca (1996)
Increased cost of living/property taxes	Butler (1974), Liu & Var (1986), Perdue et al. (1990), Ross (1992), Korca (1996)

Source: Adapted from Ap & Crompton (1998)

2.3.3 Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Residents' perceptions of tourism's environmental impacts have become an important issue throughout the world. The environmental impacts of tourism, which were underestimated in the past, are now receiving attention. It may be because the environmental quality of the world is getting worse. That is also why eco-tourism and green tourism have gained popularity.

Residents generally perceive the environmental impacts negatively and there is a lot of literature focusing on the environmental costs of tourism development rather than the benefits of it (Pearce, 1980; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Gunn, 1988; Inskip, 1991). Moreover, Jurowski et al. (1997) found that residents formed negative perceptions on environmental impacts of tourism and tourism development. Another example is that residents have expressed their concern over the damage to the natural environment as construction of new facilities may change the natural landscape (Liu, Var & Sheldon, 1987; Ap, 2000a).

The negative impacts of tourism on the environment were classified by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 1980 as (1) effects of pollution (air, water, noise and littering), (2) loss of natural landscape including agricultural and pastoral lands, (3) destruction of flora and fauna, (4) degradation of landscape, historic sites and monuments, (5) effects of congestion and crowding, (6) effects of conflict, and (7) effects of competition.

Residents perceived tourism to cause some serious negative impacts on the environment (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Liu & Var, 1986; Liu, Var &

Sheldon, 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Long et al., 1990). Identified environmental costs include: air, water, noise pollution, litter and solid waste, water shortage, inefficient treatment of sewage, soil and beach erosion, damage to coral, crowding and congestion, damage to ecosystems, loss of flora and fauna, extensive cutting of timber for firewood, disturbance to wildlife, increased fire frequency, vandalism and urbanization (Pearce, 1980; Gunn, 1988; Inskeep, 1991). Summaries of the environmental impacts of tourism that have been identified are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of Residents' Perceived Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Positive Environmental Impacts	
Preservation of the natural environment/does not cause ecological decline	Belisle & Hoy (1980), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Akis et al. (1996), Korca (1996)
Preservation of historic buildings and monuments	Garland (1984), Sheldon & Var (1984), Liu et al. (1987), Akis et al. (1996), Korca (1996)
Improvement of the area's appearance	Perdue et al. (1990), Korca (1996)
Negative Environmental Impacts	
Increased traffic congestion	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Brougham & Butler (1981), Sheldon & Var (1984), Tyrrell & Spaulding (1984), Var et al. (1985), Liu & Var (1986), Liu et al. (1987), Perdue et al. (1990), Caneday & Zeiger (1991), King et al. (1993), Lankford (1994), Ryan & Montgomery (1994), Akis et al. (1996)
Deterioration of natural environment	Liu & Var (1986), Johnson et al. (1994), Akis et al. (1996)
Overcrowding	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Thomason et al. (1979), Brougham & Butler (1981), Var et al. (1985), Liu & Var (1986), Lankford (1994)
Increased noise pollution and litter	Pizam (1978), Rothman (1978), Caneday & Zeiger (1991), Akis et al. (1996)

Source: Adapted from Ap & Crompton (1998)

The type and extent of environmental impact is related closely to the type and intensity of tourism development that is undertaken (Inskeep, 1991). Some studies have identified the circumstances which affect the perception of environmental

impacts by residents. Liu et al. (1987) suggested that residents living in areas with a mature tourist industry are more aware of both the positive and negative environmental impacts. They also suggested that there is a positive relationship between perceptions of the negative impacts on the physical environment and the tourist-resident ratio. The higher the tourist-resident ratio, the more the negative perceived impacts on the physical environment. Duffield and Long (1981) also confirmed that regions enjoying a low tourist-resident ratio tended to have residents who had positive perceptions of the effects of tourism

Furthermore, some of the negative environmental impacts mentioned in the literature will not be investigated in this study. For example, noise pollution, air pollution and congestion would not be applicable in this study, as it focuses on the overall Hong Kong residents' concerns towards the Disneyland theme park development. It is expected that in overall, Hong Kong residents would not be concerned with these impacts at this stage. For example, residents living in Hong Kong Island may not show concern about noise and air pollution brought by the development of Hong Kong Disneyland as these impacts will only affect residents who live near to the Penny's Bay area.

For these three categories of impacts, the literature tends to report more positive impacts rather than negative impacts, as the literature tends to generate optimism regarding the potential of tourism among decision makers and community residents. Ap and Crompton (1998) pointed out that the economic impact studies have tended to emphasize the benefits that accrue to a destination and to ignore the costs. Although many studies have identified residents' perception of tourism impacts and

attitudes towards tourism, just a few have examined the relationship between residents' perceived impacts of tourism on their community and attitudes towards their own community (Ko & Stewart, 2002).

2.4 Conceptual Framework

While a number of theories have been advanced to explain residents' perceptions towards tourism development and its impacts – such as the play, compensation, and conflict theories (Bystrzanowski, 1989); attribution theory (Pearce, 1989); and dependency theory (Preister, 1989). However, it is not yet proven that any of these theories can provide an appropriate framework for explaining community perceptions towards tourism. The absence of a comprehensive theoretical explanation was identified by Husbands (1989), Ap (1990, 1992) and Faulkner and Tideswell (1997).

Bystrzanowski (1989) referred to play theory, compensation theory, and conflict theory, but concluded that none of them were able to provide a theoretical perspective that encompassed the phenomenon of residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. Pearce (1989) suggested that attribution theory may be useful, but he did not discuss its application in detail. Preister (1989) has also proposed dependency theory, but he recognized that its macro-level orientation may limit its application at the local community level, and that theory is unable to account for both positive and negative effects. However, he did suggest a number of hypotheses to test the application of the dependency framework.

In the tourism literature, two frameworks have dominated in community attitudinal research, social exchange theory and social representations theory. Perdue et al. (1990) and Ap (1992) suggested that social exchange theory has become more acceptable as the appropriate framework for developing an understanding of

residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism, presents a framework to explain the relationship between individual benefits and perceptions of economic development. Social exchange theory is based on the actions of individuals as well as groups, and cannot necessarily be assumed to fully explain the actions of a community. The concept of social exchange assumes a model of humans as isolated and computer-like information processors (Jaspars & Fraser, 1984; McGuire, 1986). But the fact is that humans are not isolated, they will be affected by some others information sources, such as, their membership groups, media channels as well as the direct experience with that object or events. Moreover, individuals use their existing knowledge to deal with the situation with very little processing of the information available in many situations (Pearce et al, 1996). Besides, Moscovici (1981) stressed that representations are prescriptive in nature which impose themselves upon people with an tempting force. Therefore, knowing what are the existing beliefs or thoughts (i.e. representations) of an individual would be possible to explain how and why the individual respond the way they do. And most often, social representations are served as the reference point for individual to understand the world, behave and react. It can direct both action and thought (especially perception) of individual (Pearce et al., 1996).

Social representations theory has been widely studied in psychology. It is often linked to some psychological theories such as social conflict, discourse analysis, and social identity. Some researchers have also used it as heuristic framework, such as finding out representations of AIDS in current society. However, social representations theory can be very applicable to tourism studies, such as, what communities think tourism is, how they respond to tourism and what they expect it

will bring to them (Pearce et al., 1996). Moreover, this theory can be used in finding social representations of residents about tourism, tourists or even destination image, which are particularly useful in explaining residents' perceptions and why they respond the way they do. Perhaps residents' perceived impacts were affected by the overall image or definition of tourism, tourists and associated beliefs and values. Thus, this theory directs us to look for commonality rather than individual differences. It attempts to identify response patterns, which are similar across the full range of items rather than testing differences among residents in terms of length of residence, age, and income because the community is not homogeneous.

2.5 The Social Representations Approach

There is little understanding of why residents respond to the impacts of tourism the way they do (Dogan, 1989; Husbands, 1989; Ap, 1992). The use of social representations theory may contribute to a greater understanding of how residents respond to the impacts the way they do.

The definition of social representations which was most commonly used or adopted is from Moscovici (1973) who defines them as

cognitive systems with a logic and language of their own and a pattern of implication, relevant to both values and concepts, and with a characteristic kind of discourse. They do not represent simply 'opinions about', 'images of', or 'attitudes towards', but 'theories' or 'branches of knowledge' in their own right, for the discovery and organization of reality (p. xiii).

It was further described as the “concepts, statements and explanations originating in daily life in the course of inter-individual communications” (Moscovici, 1981, p. 181) and “systems’ of preconceptions, images and values which have their own cultural meaning and persist independently of individual experience” (Moscovici, 1982, p. 122). The main focus of the theory is on the content of this social knowledge and the way it is created and shared by people in various groups, societies or communities (Moscovici, 1981). We also define, organize and understand our social world and our everyday knowledge through social representations (Halfacree, 1993). Breakwell (1993) defined social representations theory as a model which focuses upon processes of interpersonal communication as the determiners of the structure and content of the belief systems which are called social representations. Social representations, at one level, are cognitive structures which function to facilitate

communication between members of a collectivity because of their shared or consensual form. For the individual, their role is to give meaning to novel experiences or alien (whether people, objects, or events) by setting them in a contextual frame that makes them familiar (Moscovici, 1981, 1984, 1988).

Fredline (2000) stated that

representations are the mechanisms people use to try and understand objects and events in the world around them. They tend to turn the unfamiliar into the familiar, as objects and events are recognized on the basis of past experiences, and prior knowledge serves as the reference point for new encounters (p. 13).

Moscovici (1984) explained that people would conventionalize the objects, persons and events they encounter, then give them a definite form, locating them in a given category and gradually establishing them as a framework of a certain type, distinct and shared by a group of people. So they try to fit new and abstract concepts or events into their existing frameworks and merge into them.

Moscovici (1984, 1988) proposed two processes, which are *anchoring* and *objectification*, which are mechanisms that make the unfamiliar familiar. For *anchoring*, Moscovici (1981) defines it as the process which draws something foreign and unfamiliar and compares it to the existing system of category which we think to be suitable, then classify, name and interpret it. Indeed, it is a process of fitting new elements into existing frameworks (Doise et al., 1993). It is suggested that anchoring aims to master a strange idea or perception, and it is in the course of this anchoring that it becomes modified (Moscovici, 1988). *Objectification* consists of incorporating new elements of knowledge into a network of more familiar categories (Doise et al., 1993). It is about taking abstract concepts or ideas and

making them ordinary and concrete, and it is concerned with reproducing a concept in an image (Moscovici, 1981, 1984).

For example, when one confronts a completely unfamiliar theme park which has ferris wheel, games area, sea lions and roller coaster, one begins to describe the park by firstly *anchoring* (i.e. comparing and classifying) it to what one already knows, and in the case of Hong Kong it would be Ocean Park. Anchoring gives one access to an image which dominates one's perceptions of the things that are presented at this new and unfamiliar park as Ocean Park. This dominance of an image is known *objectification*.

Whenever a disparity occurs between the representation and the actual phenomenon, preconceptions existing in humans' minds are often reinforced and modified (Moscovici, 1981). People were more likely to remember information consistent with their social representation and to distort contradictory information (Echabe & Rovira, 1989).

Fredline (2000) explained that the "social" element refers to sharing of these representations by groups within a society and help facilitate communication, and that the social process helps to form "constellations" of representations. Moscovici's representations are also social in that they are produced through social interaction. It is through conversation and participation in social activity that individuals develop, contribute to, and change social representations (Moscovici, 1981, 1984, 1988). Representations are prescriptive in nature which impose themselves upon people with an irresistible force (Moscovici, 1981). Social representations not only

determine how people see the world, but it is also simultaneously reinforced socially. That is through their interactions and communications within society (Purkhardt, 1993).

Social representations recognize plurality and diversity in society. The concept of social representations theory was used to identify coherent groups of individuals who share a common set of perceptions which distinguishes them from other groups. In addition, social representations theory aims at looking for commonalities in community responses rather than just individual differences (Dann, 1992). It suggests the commonality or consensus within a group or community subgroup that is the way the people react to tourism impacts is far from consistent and the community is heterogeneous. Some tourism researchers, such as, Davis et al. (1988), Schroeder (1992), Evans (as cited in Williams & Lawson, 2001); Ryan and Montgomery (1994), Madrigal (1995), Martin (1995), Pearce et al. (1996), Jurowski (1998), Fredline and Faulkner (2000), Weaver and Lawton (2001) and Williams and Lawson (2001), have used cluster analysis or segmentation analysis to cluster the residents into groups with commonalities. For example, Davis et al. cluster analyzed the responses of 415 Florida residents to 31 questions rating various attitudes towards the tourist industry in Florida. The analysis revealed five clusters of responses which were labeled "Haters", "Cautious Romantics", "In-betweeners", "Love Em' for a Reason", and "Lovers". The study also examined differences between various clusters in terms of gender, age, length of time living in Florida, education, occupation and whether any family members worked in the tourism industry and so on. However, no statistically significant results were found except the native-born status and knowledge of tourism's economic impact on the state. In

an extension of this work, Evans identified four clusters, which were “Lovers”, “Haters”, “Controlled” and “Selfish”. Age, household income, marital status and employment situation all showed statistically significant differences among clusters. Madrigal (1995) also identified three patterns of responses to tourism impact statements in samples drawn from York (UK) and Sedona (USA). He then examined the differences between these clusters of respondents in terms of their attitudes towards the role of local government in developing and regulating tourism. Pearce et al. (1996) suggested the existence of three groups of residents in Cairns, which were “Moderates”, “Negative Economic Impacts” and “Negative Environmental Impacts”. Demographic variables of age and length of residence in the community were found to significantly relate cluster membership where older and longer-term residents were most likely to be in the Moderate group. The youngest residents were most likely to be found in the Negative Economic Group, and recent arrivals were most likely to be in the Negative Environmental Group. Sometimes, researchers who search for individual differences indirectly provide evidence for a widespread consensus and commonality of responses to tourism.

Moscovici's definitions of social representations are criticized as being vague, boundary-less and broad, seems to reflect a concern for research style rather than a serious attack on the logic of his argument or the consistency of evidence (Pearce et al., 1996). Furthermore, Jahoda (1988) has also commented social representations theory is vague in the construction of its concepts. Doise (1993) attributed this problem to the fact that the agenda provided by the literature on social representations theory is a very large one and it is not only concerned about “the thinking society”, but it also emphasizes the communicated character of thought. So,

if we are to study social representations theory, then we should study all of human life. Indeed, Breakwell (1993) commented that most researchers have left largely unexplored Moscovici's hypotheses concerning the ways in which, at the level of the meta-system, social groups and generate representations which shared by groups. The problems have been identified by Breakwell was that social representations theory cannot explain why a particular social representation takes the form that it does. Besides, this theory is abstract theorized. As this study is focusing on residents' perceptions towards a particular tourism development in Hong Kong, therefore, the investigator is not going to explore the theory in depth, but applied those relevant parts, such as influence of direct experience, social interaction and media as well as examine how they influence representations of the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland and the development itself.

Doise et al. (1993) identified one major problem with social representations studies is that their raw material is composed of collections of individual opinions, attitudes or prejudices whose organizing principles (common to groups of individuals) must be merged together and linked to their socio-logical and psycho-sociological characteristics. So, there should be different types of data-analysis methods to be used. They have also identified three phrases in the quantitative analysis of social representations. In the first phase, social representations are objectified through the use of cluster analysis, multidimensional scaling or methods of correspondence analysis as social representations are described as a kind of collective map, consensus to a given population. In the second phase, analytic techniques like factor analysis and multidimensional scaling analysis of individual differences can be used in order to deal with the problem of inter-individual differences considered to be

variations in individual positioning with respect to common reference points. Phase three focuses on the anchoring of individual variations in socio-logical and psychosociological characteristics of individuals in which correspondence analysis with supplementary variables, automatic interaction detection, discriminant analysis and textual data analysis can be used.

2.6 Three Sources of Social Representations

Pearce et al. (1996) explained the three main sources of social representations, namely: direct experience with the actual phenomenon or one that is seen as similar, social interaction, and external sources such as the media. These three factors work together in shaping social representations. Thus, the integrated impacts of the mass media, social interaction, and direct experiences with particular phenomenon provide the sources of social representations (Pearce et al., 1996). In an extensive search of the tourism literature, only few direct empirical studies exist which relate direct experience and media to perceptions.

2.6.1 Direct Experience

While it is suggested that representations have prescriptive power, direct experience with a phenomenon would provide subjects with personal information upon which perceptions are formed. As people always question inconsistencies between prevailing social representations and actual observations, it may be a catalyst for change (Pearce et al., 1996). Moscovici (1981) stated that preconceptions existing in human's minds are often reinforced and modified when a disparity occurs between the representation and the direct experience. Pearce (1982) presented that an early study of tourism in Europe, British travelers to Greece and Morocco substantially more confident in their beliefs about the character of the host nation after they returned home. For example, residents who have gone to a Disneyland theme park and had a good experience may have more positive perceptions towards the impacts of this project and may be more supportive of it as well. It is because there is a strong

commitment in the beliefs and perceptions formed by visiting a Disneyland theme park.

2.6.2 Social Interaction

In social networks, individuals exert influence over the opinions held by other members of the network of group (Pearce et al., 1996). Therefore, social interaction with others such as friends, family and colleagues is an important means of transmitting social representations. As people are likely to be members of more than one reference group where such groups have differing representations, individuals may be forced to resolve contradictory positions (Dougherty, Eisenhart & Webley, 1992). For example, people belonging to an environmental group may be more negative towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland and less supportive towards it. However, people who are studying tourism or working in the tourism industry may have more positive perceptions towards this development and its impacts because they may be influenced by their peers and social groups within their environment.

2.6.3 Media

The media influences perceptions in three main ways. It can influence through the selection of content of the stories it reports (Neuman, 1990). Secondly, Pearce et al. (1996) mentioned that it can provide individuals with content for their social representations, including analogies, metaphors and visual images and thirdly, it can present issues as conflict between different groups, which may influence individuals' attitudes, opinions. Therefore, it has an important role in the formation and transmission of social representations.

Research conducted by Brown (as cited in Pearce et al., 1996), Robertson and Crotts (1992) and Timmerman (as cited in Pearce et al, 1996) confirmed the influence of media on residents' perceptions and attitudes of tourism. Brown examined the role of the media in influencing community attitudes to tourism in a five-month longitudinal study. Month-to-month fluctuations in residents' attitudes to specific tourism developments were found based upon local newspaper reports in the preceding weeks. Moreover, Robertson and Crotts conducted a study on the impact of a tourism public relations campaign in Florida which investigated resident attitudes towards tourism development. They examined the impact of media releases and other public information stressing the benefits of tourism to residents on the level of support for existing and future tourism development. They found out that residents who recalled seeing or hearing the campaign stressing the benefits of tourism were more likely to have positive perceptions of tourism. In another study of the tourism-media relationship, Timmerman undertook a content analysis of the content of tourism stories over a full year for two newspapers, and found that the residents' view differed in relation to the coverage and position on tourism issues of the two newspapers. Therefore, it can conclude that consumption of the media influences the residents' perceptions.

Direct experience with a phenomenon may provide a force for change (Pearce et al., 1996). However, social interaction could also work against the change of direct experience in which the impact of social interaction on social representations depends upon the influence that individuals have over other group members (Moscovici, 1981). Direct experience is most likely to occur in individuals who

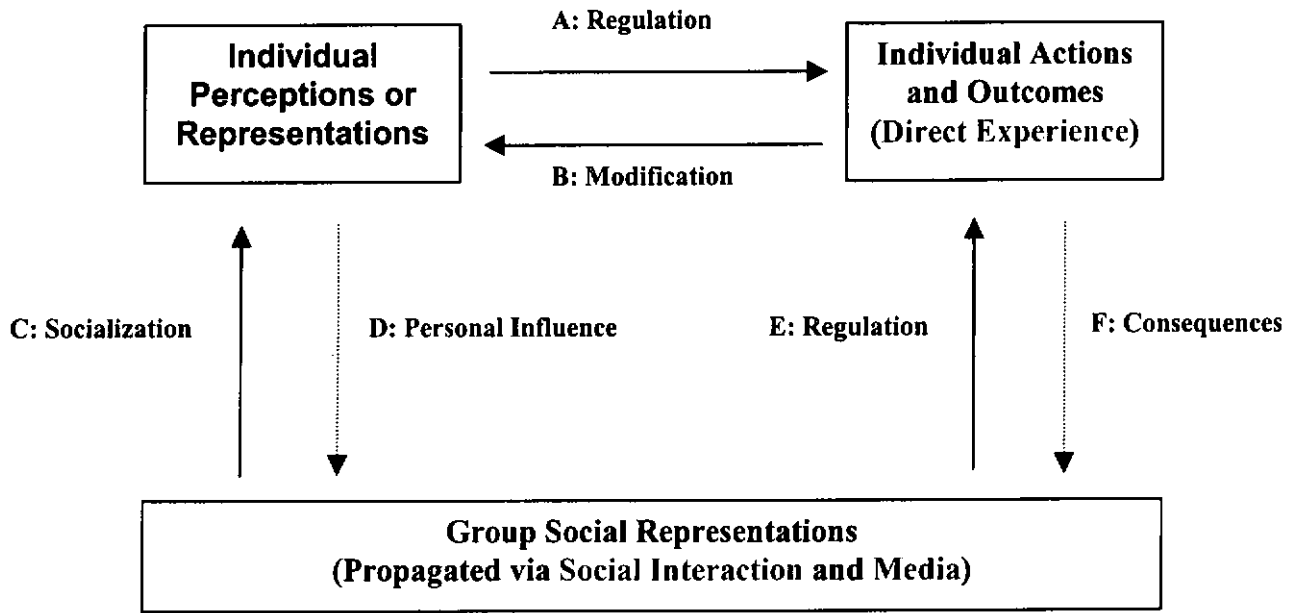
report their experiences to the groups, and the extent to which a social representation is changed or modified depends on the power and influence of the various individuals.

2.7 Relationships between Individual and Social Representations

Perceptions are subjective in nature and individualized. However, social representations theory is based on a conception of society as organized into groups and subgroups, or as a collection of individual social atoms (de Rosa, 1992). Figure 1 shows the linkage and relationships between individual perceptions and group social representations. With reference to Fredline (2000), individuals have representations about an object, and these representations regulate (A) their actions and the interpretations of any interactions with that particular object. Where there is direct experience which is contradictory with the existing representation, individual actions and their outcomes can modify (B) the individual's representation. Through a socialization process (C) like conversation and communication; individuals' representations are strongly influenced by social representations held by groups in which they belong to. However, they may also exert considerable influence over the group's representation (D). On the other side, the group can also directly control individual actions through rules and (E) regulations. Of course, the consequences (F) of individual action may certainly impact upon the group social representations indirectly (Dann, 1992; Pearce et al., 1996).

Therefore, individual representations are certainly linked and related to social representations at the collective level. In this study, the representations were operationalized by respondents' perceptions.

Figure 1. Relationships between Individual and Social Representations



Source: Adapted from Dann (1992), Pearce et al. (1996) and Fredline (2000)

- ▶ Direct Influence
-▶ Indirect Influence

2.8 Variables Affecting Residents' Perceptions of Tourism and its Impacts

Residents' perceptions towards tourism and the impacts do not exist within a vacuum and are influenced by many variables ranging from current economic conditions and environmental awareness through to cultural prejudices. They are known to vary according to a variety of individual and community, or societal, level factors (Lawson et al., 1998). In fact, residents' perceptions of tourism impacts are subjective, inconsistent, and affected by other factors. In order to achieve the goal of favorable support for tourism development, understanding the variables that influence these attitudes is essential (Gursoy et al., 2002). Residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and attitudes towards tourism and tourism development have been studied extensively in relation to a number of factors including level of tourism development, economic dependency on tourism, distance from place of residence to tourist areas, level of contact with tourists, demographics, community attachment, use of outdoor recreation facilities, general economic conditions of a community, perceived ability to influence tourism decisions, knowledge of tourism, socio-political values, media and length of residency which are shown in Table 4.

2.8.1 Level of Tourism Development

Generally, theorists and researchers have stated that there was an inverse relationship between the level of tourism development and perceived or objective measures of economic, social, and environmental impacts upon the host community (Gunn, 1988). Allen et al. (1988) examined the impact of tourism development on residents' perceptions of community life. They found that lower to moderate levels of tourism

development appeared beneficial, but as tourism development increased, the perceptions of residents took a downward trend. A more interesting finding was made by Allen, Hafer, Long and Perdue (1993) who concluded that low economic activity and low tourism development tended to cause positive perceptions of tourism. Their study compared perceptions in areas of low and high tourism development, coupled with low or high economic activity rates. Residents of places with longer history of tourism development were more aware of both positive and negative impacts (Liu et al., 1987).

2.8.2 Economic Dependency

Economic dependency positively influences the manner in which residents evaluate the impacts of tourism; it has been linked to more positive perceptions of the tourism industry (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Husbands, 1989; Perdue et al., 1990; Chan, 2000). Substantial evidence has been obtained on the positive relationship between employment in tourism or economic benefit from tourism, and resident perceptions (Pizam, 1978; Rothman, 1978; Husbands, 1989; Mansfeld, 1992; Glasson, 1994; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996). These results can be supported on the basis of social exchange theory. It suggests that individuals who gain economically from tourism should view the impacts of tourism more positively and should lend more support for tourism. More specifically, Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996) reported that residents who had their main business relations with tourism had more positive perceptions towards the industry and its impacts than those who had no business relations. Those residents involved in tourism businesses were significantly more supportive of the industry than those who had no business relation with tourism. Residents involved in tourism also perceived the industry to

have more positive impacts on these factors than those who were not. Perdue et al. (1990) concluded that perceived positive impacts of tourism are much more closely related to personal benefits than the perceived negative impacts, and support for additional tourism development was positively related to personal benefits and to the perceived positive impacts. But Korca (1996) found no relationship between employment in tourism and residents' attitude towards tourism.

2.8.3 Proximity

Mixed results have been found in empirical studies investigating the relationship between proximity and perceptions. A number of studies have found an inverse relationship with perceptions becoming less positive with increasing proximity (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980) and people living further from tourist areas perceived more negative impacts from tourism (Mansfeld, 1992). On the contrary, some studies have found a relationship with attitudes or perceptions towards tourism or its impacts more positive when proximity increases and people living closer to the development perceived more negative impacts (Pearce, 1980; Keogh, 1990; Korca, 1996). However, Chan (2000) found no relationship between proximity, residents' perceptions and their level of support when she conducted a study on the Hong Kong Disneyland project. She claimed that this finding might be due to the small geographical size of Hong Kong where distance is not an issue. Moreover, perception of both positive and negative impacts increases as distance from tourist activity decreases (Perdue et al., 1990). Thus, residents who live close to tourist foci are more likely to have strong opinions while those far away are more likely to be ambivalent.

2.8.4 Community Attachment

Community attachment was examined in relation to residents' perceptions towards tourism development and its impacts (Um & Crompton, 1987; Davis et al., 1988; Jurowski, 1994; Lankford & Howard, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994; Seid, 1994; Jurowski et al., 1997; Mason & Cheyne, 2000). This variable is measured simply by number of years of residence in a community (Pizam, 1978; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Liu & Var, 1986) or place of birth (Davis et al., 1988). However, McCool and Martin (1994) have queried the use of length of residency to determine the level of community attachment. They found that some long-term residents may actually feel little attachment and it was possible for newcomers to feel attachment to that community because of specific reasons. So, length of residency does relate to level of attachment, but it is not an actual measure of it.

There is no consistent finding in relation to the effects of community attachment on perceptions of tourism. Residents with greater length of residency were more negative towards tourism development (Pizam, 1978; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Liu & Var, 1986; Allen et al, 1988). Jurowski (1994) found that residents who are more attached to the community look at environmental impacts more negatively, while Um and Crompton (1987) suggested that residents highly attached to the community had less positive perception towards tourism impacts. On the contrary, Seid (1994) discussed that the attached respondents viewed tourism impacts more positively. Moreover, Allen et al. (1993), Lankford and Howard (1994), Mason and Cheyne (2000) and Gursoy et al. (2002) made the conclusion that no significant relationship between community attachment and perceptions and attitudes towards tourism.

2.8.5 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic variables appear to have little relationship to residents' perceptions of development (Pizam, 1978; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Liu & Var, 1986; Pizam & Milman, 1986; Davis et al., 1988; Long et al., 1990; King et al., 1993; Lankford, 1994; Madrigal, 1995; Williams & Lawson, 2001). However, consistent findings regarding to age and attitude were found by Brougham and Butler (1981) and Ritchie (1988) that older residents were less positive about tourism. Mason and Cheyne (2000) found that women tended to be more opposed than men to a café/bar development. Regarding to the influence of educational level, residents with the highest overall level of support of tourism expansion in Antalya tended to be people who were more educated (Korca, 1998) and residents with higher level of education were more positive to tourism (Caneday & Zeiger, 1991). However, Bastias-Perez and Var (1995) found that residents were not affected in their perception of tourism's negative impacts by their level of education.

2.8.6 Personal Influence on Tourism Decisions

Lankford and Howard (1994) found that more positive perceptions of tourism were associated with residents who felt as if they had some control over the tourism planning process, while those who felt powerless were more likely to have concerns for tourism development. They suggest that if people feel they have involved in planning or public review process, and their concerns are being considered, they will support tourism. Similarly, Madrigal (1993) found that residents who believed that they were able to personally influence tourism decision outcomes were more positively disposed to tourism, while those who believed that tourism related businesses had too much political influence had more negative perceptions. This also

highlights the importance of taking residents' consideration when the project is in planning stage.

2.8.7 Knowledge of Tourism

Knowledge of tourism was consistently found to be significantly related to residents' perceptions. Studies from Davis et al. (1988) and Lankford and Howard (1994) confirmed the greater knowledge of tourism or the development, the greater support or more positive perceptions to tourism or the development. In addition, Keogh (1990) found that residents who were better informed about a specific tourism/leisure development proposal, were more positive towards tourism impacts, than those who were poorly informed. In a study by Brayley, Var and Sheldon (1990), it was found that tourism students had more positive perceptions of the impacts of tourism than non-tourism students.

To date, there has been extensive research studying how various factors affect the community perceptions towards tourism and its impacts. Certainly, each of those variables seems to affect perceptions towards tourism and its impacts. It has been consistently shown that economic dependency on tourism is positively related to community perceptions towards tourism with the exception that Korca (1996) who found that no relationship was established between employment in tourism and attitude towards tourism. For studies investigating other factors, it is far from conclusive.

To conclude, a comprehensive study was undertaken in examining the influences of the intrinsic and extrinsic variables on residents' perceptions in an attempt to

describe community differences by these variables. However, the study findings were far from consistent. Rather than explaining community differences, exploring commonality of existing community attitudes is suggested by social representation theory.

As representations are derived from three sources of information which are direct experience on actual or similar phenomenon, social interaction, and media influence, it is suggested that these attributes certainly influence residents' perceptions.

Table 4. Major Conclusions on Community Perceptions of Tourism

Variable Examined	Study	Conclusions
1. Level of tourism development	1. Liu et al. (1987)	Residents living in a place with longer history of tourism development are more aware of both positive and negative impacts.
	2. Allen et al. (1988)	Lower to moderate levels of tourism development are quite beneficial to the community, but as development continues residents' perceptions tend to take a downward trend.
	3. Long et al. (1990)	Curvilinear relationship was found between support for tourism and level of development, but as level of tourism development increases, perceptions of both negative and positive impacts increases.
	4. Perdue et al. (1990)	Level of tourism development was associated with the perceptions of impacts.
	5. Allen et al. (1993)	Residents' attitudes towards tourism development in communities with both high economic development and tourism development and low economic and tourism development were more positive than those residents of the low/high or high/low economic and tourism development communities.
	6. Madrigal (1993)	Residents in a city with less extensive development viewed tourism more favorably than residents of a more extensively developed city.
2. Economic dependency on tourism	1. Pizam (1978)	Entrepreneurs employed in tourism-related businesses were most positive in their attitude towards tourism.
	A. Comparisons of residents, business owners and government officials	Entrepreneurs were more positive about tourism than public sector personnel and residents.
	3. Keogh (1990)	No significant differences were found between the perceptions of business owners and residents.
	4. Lankford (1994)	Residents were more cautious about the benefits of tourism than business owners and public officials while they were more supportive.
B. Job in tourism or perceived positive balance of personal costs and benefits of tourism	1. Pizam (1978)	Positive relationship was found between economic dependency and support for tourism.
	2. Rothman (1978)	Residents who were economically dependent on tourism were more favorable to tourism development.
	3. Brougham & Butler (1981)	Residents who were economically dependent on tourism tended to favor tourist activity.
	4. Husbands (1989)	Residents who were economically dependent on tourism were more positive about tourism.

Variable Examined	Study	Conclusions	
B. Job in tourism or perceived positive balance of personal costs and benefits of tourism	5. Perdue et al. (1990)	Support for additional tourism development was positively related to both to personal benefits form tourism and to the perceived positive impacts.	
	6. Mansfeld (1992)	Residents who were economically dependent on tourism were more positive about tourism.	
	7. Madrigal (1993)	Positive relationship was found between economic dependency and positive aspects of tourism, but not negative aspects.	
	8. Glasson (1994)	Dependency on tourism was related to the support for tourism.	
	9. Lankford & Howard (1994)	Dependency on tourism was directly related to more positive support about tourism and its development.	
	10. Haralambopoulos & Pizam (1996)	Residents who were economically dependent on tourism had more positive attitudes towards tourism than those who were not dependent on it.	
	11. Korca (1996)	No relationship was found between employment in tourism and attitude towards tourism.	
	12. Chan (2000)	Residents who are economically dependent on tourism were more positive towards tourism development.	
	3. Distance from place of residence to tourist areas	1. Pizam (1978)	Residents were less positive with increasing proximity.
		2. Belisle & Hoy (1980)	Residents perceived less favorably to the impacts of tourism when distance from the tourist zone increases.
		3. Pearce (1980)	Residents were less negative towards tourism with the distance with tourism 'zone' increases.
		4. Brougham & Butler (1981)	Some relationships were found between residences in zones of high tourist pressure, but the nature of the relationship related to different types of tourist.
5. Sheldon & Var (1984)		Residents living in higher tourist density areas were more positive about tourism.	
6. Kcogh (1990)		Residents living closer to a proposed tourist development perceived more negative impacts from the development.	
7. Perdue et al. (1990)		Perception of both positive and negative impacts increases as distance from tourist activity decreases.	
8. Mansfeld (1992)		Residents living far away from tourist areas perceived more negative impacts from tourism.	
9. Korca (1996)		Perception of negative impacts of tourism increases as the distance between the individual's home and the tourism zone of the community decreases.	
10. Chan (2000)		No relationship was found between perceptions and proximity.	
4. Level of contact with tourists	1. Pizam (1978)	Residents with more contact with tourists were more negative about tourism.	
	2. Rothman (1978)	Residents with more contact with tourists perceived tourism more positively.	

Variable Examined	Study	Conclusions
5. Respondent demographics	1. Pizam (1978)	No relationship was found between sociodemographic variables and attitude towards tourism.
	2. Belisle & Hoy (1980)	No relationship was found between age, gender or level of education and perceptions of tourism.
	3. Brougham & Butler (1981)	Older residents were more negative about tourism.
	4. Liu & Var (1986)	Weak relationship was found between sociodemographic variables and attitude towards tourism.
	5. Pizam & Milman (1986)	No relationship was found between sociodemographic variables and attitude towards tourism.
	6. Davis et al. (1988)	No relationship was found between demographics variables (age, sex, education and occupation) and opinions towards tourism.
	7. Ritchie (1988)	The younger segments of the population were more positively disposed towards tourism development.
	8. Husbands (1989)	Level of educational attainment and age were related to perceptions of tourism.
	9. Long et al. (1990)	No relationship was found between perceptions of economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism and sociodemographic variables.
	10. Caneday & Zeiger (1991)	Level of education was positively related to perceptions of tourism for residents in nontourism jobs, while it was negatively related to perceptions for entrepreneurs in nontourism jobs.
	11. King et al. (1993)	Weak relationship was found between perceptions of tourism and demographics.
	12. Lankford (1994)	No relationship was found between perceptions of tourism and demographics.
	13. Bastias-Perez & Var (1995)	No relationship was found between level of education and perception of tourism's negative impacts.
	14. Madrigal (1995)	No relationship was found between sociodemographic variables and attitude towards tourism.
	15. Korca (1998)	Residents with the highest overall level of support of tourism expansion tended to be people who were more educated.
	16. Mason & Cheyne (2000)	Women tended to be more opposed than men to the cafe/ bar development on the grounds of perceived negative impacts, but woman highlighted positive impacts to a greater extent than men.
	17. Williams & Lawson (2001)	No relationship was found between demographic variables and opinions towards tourism.
6. Community attachment or length of residence	1. Pizam (1978)	Greater length of residency in the community linked to greater negative perceptions of tourism.
	2. Brougham & Butler (1981)	People with longer residency in a community were more positive about some types of tourists.
	3. Sheldon & Var (1984)	Longer residents have been living in a community, the more negative they are towards tourism development.
	4. Liu & Var (1986)	Residents with longer residency were less favourable towards tourism development.
	5. Um & Crompton (1987)	Attached residents are likely to form positive perceptions of the economic and social impacts of tourism.

Variable Examined	Study	Conclusions
6. Community attachment or length of residence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Allen et al. (1988) 7. Davis et al. (1988) 8. Allen et al. (1993) 9. Jurowski (1994) 10. Lankford & Howard (1994) 11. McCool & Martin (1994) 12. Seid (1994) 13. Jurowski et al. (1997) 14. Mason & Cheyne (2000) 15. Gursoy et al. (2002) 	<p>The longer people live in a community, the more negative their perceptions of tourism. Residents who were natives were more positive about tourism than newcomers to the community. No relationship was found between length of residence and residents' attitudes towards tourism development.</p> <p>Residents who are more attached to the community generally perceived environmental impacts more negatively.</p> <p>No relationship was found between community attachment and perceptions of tourism.</p> <p>A greater sense of belonging to a community is highly associated with higher ratings of both positive and negative impacts of tourism.</p> <p>Attached residents viewed tourism impacts more positively.</p> <p>Attached residents are likely to evaluate the economic and social impacts positively but the environmental impacts negatively.</p> <p>No relationship was found between community attachment and perceived impacts of the proposed café/ bar development.</p> <p>No relationship was found between community attachment and perceptions of the impacts of tourism.</p>
7. Use of outdoor recreation facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Perdue et al. (1987) 2. Keogh (1990) 3. Korca (1996) 	<p>No significant difference was found between perception of tourism and different levels of outdoor recreation.</p> <p>Residents who used an area that was proposed for tourism development, perceived stronger positive and negative impacts from the development.</p> <p>Residents who used the beach more frequently had more positive perceptions of tourism impacts.</p>
8. General economic conditions of a community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Perdue et al. (1990) 2. Johnson et al. (1994) 	<p>When the rural economy is perceived as deteriorating, residents appear more likely to support for tourism.</p> <p>Lower level of economic activity resulted in lower support for tourism.</p>

Variable Examined	Study	Conclusions
9. Perceived ability to influence tourism decisions	1. Madrigal (1993)	Residents with positive perceptions believed that they were bale to personally influence tourism decision outcomes.
	2. Lankford & Howard (1994)	Positive relationship was found between perceived ability to influence tourism decisions and perception of positive and negative impacts of tourism.
10. Knowledge of tourism	1. Davis et al. (1988)	Residents with greater knowledge of tourism were more likely to have positive perceptions of tourism.
	2. Brayley et al. (1990)	Tourism students had more positive perceptions of the impacts of tourism than non-tourism students.
	3. Keogh (1990)	Residents with greater knowledge of a proposed tourism development were more likely to support the development.
	4. Lankford & Howard (1994)	Greater knowledge of tourism resulted in greater support for tourism.
11. Socio-Political Values	1. Snepenger & Johnson (1991)	Residents who identified their political views as 'conservatives' were more negatively disposed to tourism than who identified them as 'moderates' or 'liberals'.
	2. Lindberg & Johnson (1997)	Resident values about economic gain are positively related to resident attitudes towards tourism.
12. Influence of mass media	1. Robertson & Crofts (1992)	Residents exposed to a public relations campaign were more positive about tourism than those who did not expose to it.
	2. Timmerman (as cited in Pearce et al, 1996)	Resident perceptions differ according to the coverage and position on tourism issues of the newspapers.

Source: Adapted from Pearce et al. (1996)

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter presents the methods used in answering the research questions and problem of this study. A descriptive research design was used which adopted a quantitative approach for data collection and analysis. In order to identify Hong Kong residents' general perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts, and to examine the relationship between residents' perceptions and the sources of social representations (i.e. direct experience, social interaction and media influence), a survey questionnaire was used. The questionnaire also includes items related to residents' perceptions towards the economic, socio-cultural, environmental impacts and community attitude of Hong Kong Disneyland.

3.2 Sampling Design

A telephone survey was used to collect data and target respondents were PCCW residential line subscribers. PCCW is Hong Kong's leading telecom firm with a domestic market share of 77% at the end of June 2003 (Agence France-Presse, 2003). All subscribers had an equal chance of selection. Respondents were further filtered by criteria such as Hong Kong resident and aged 15 years or above. The data were collected through a random sample telephone survey conducted by PolyU's Computer-Assisted Survey Team (CAST). A systematic random sampling approach was adopted in which respondents were selected through a Modified Random Digit Dialing (mRDD) strategy. All responses were directly entered into the CATI (Computed Aided Telephone Interview) software programme. The response rates for the November survey and January survey were 69% and 78% respectively while that for the 124 respondents who agreed to be interviewed in January again was 92%. Details of the telephone survey methodology were attached in Appendix A.

3.3 Data Collection

The telephone survey was conducted in two phases, in November 2002, on the 3rd anniversary of the announcement of the deal and in January 2003, shortly after the ground breaking ceremony. The reasons for using two stages of data collection were two-fold. Firstly and primarily to accommodate the objective in examining the influence of media on residents' perceptions of the project. With the 'Ground Breaking Ceremony' of Hong Kong Disneyland scheduled on 12 January 2003, it was expected that there would be a lot of press coverage of the project and in the two-week period following ground breaking, 190 articles mentioned the Hong Kong Disneyland project in the English or Chinese press. In examining the influence of media on residents' perceptions, a comparison of residents' perceptions could be made if two surveys were conducted. The results of the November survey were treated as the control to help identify the influence of media, if any, after its coverage of the ground breaking ceremony. More specifically, 514 and 546 respondents were interviewed in the November and January survey, respectively. To enable direct comparison, 124 November respondents who agreed to be interviewed again in January were interviewed twice. Therefore, a total sample of 1,060 respondents was obtained from both surveys.

Secondly, to optimize resources. The first survey was scheduled to coincide with the November 2002 annual survey of the longitudinal study 'Residents' Perceptions Towards on Hong Kong Disneyland' which is conducted by the investigator's supervisor and designed to monitor residents' perceptions and reactions towards the

project since 2000. Thus, the first survey collected two sets of complementary data on Hong Kong Disneyland.

3.4 Instrument Design and Development

This study used a questionnaire survey to collect the perceptions of residents towards Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts. The instrument used comprised 6 parts (see Appendix B & C). As the survey was funded by other source, therefore, questions with an asterisk in Part I, Part II to VI are related to this study. Part I examined respondents' general perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland. Questions asked included their level of support, and whether they believe the benefits of HK Disneyland will outweigh the costs. A five-point Likert type response scale based on the level of agreement was used.

Part II specifically examined residents' perceptions towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland. The impact categories of the questionnaire in this research were based on the 35-item tourism impact scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998). The scale comprised seven domains: socio-cultural, economic, crowding and congestion, environmental, services, taxes, and community attitudes. In the present study, the investigator only identified the general perceptions of residents towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland at Penny's Bay in terms of its economic, socio-cultural, environmental and community attitude dimensions. The domains of crowding and congestion, services, taxes were excluded in this study as these types of impacts would primarily exist after the construction of a development project. As

the focus of this study assesses perceptions prior to and during construction of the project, examination of these impacts would be premature and not really applicable. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of like/dislike for the ten impact items using a five-point response scale. Although most of the items were based upon Ap and Crompton's Tourism Impact Scale, there were some additional items other than those in the original scale. These items included the: influence of American culture on Hong Kong society, water quality at Penny's Bay, as well as natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area. The investigator believed they are relevant local issues that needed to be incorporated in this study. The items were worded neutrally to avoid misleading of the direction of change for that particular item. Generally, people may perceive there are positive impacts/changes on economic, socio-cultural and community attitude dimensions while there are negative impacts or changes on the environmental dimension. However, it would be possible to have some people perceive there was no change or even decrease in terms of job created in the community or revenue generated. Therefore, no positive or negative wording was used as no prior assumptions could be made. For this reason, questions asking the level of change of the ten impact items were included in this part so as to establish the direction of change either positive, negative or no change.

This study also aimed to identify how the three main sources of information of social representations affect residents' perceptions. Parts III to V involved several questions related to the measurement of these variables. Questions on the channels of information and how respondents' knew about the Disneyland project were also asked. The measures used were either nominal, ordinal or interval depending upon the nature of each item.

Part VI asked for general information about the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics, in order to profile the respondents' characteristics. The variables included in this part have frequently been used in similar studies (Milman & Pizam, 1988; Liu, Var & Sheldon, 1987; Liu & Var, 1986; Pizam, 1978).

A pilot test was conducted to ensure the questionnaire was understandable and valid. The questionnaires were pilot tested in late October with 14 students who were taking a "Research Methods" class. This helped refine the questionnaire in terms of its design, format, wording and the scales used.

3.5 Operationalization of Variables

This study attempted to examine and test the influence of three sources of social representations towards residents' perceptions of Hong Kong Disneyland, namely: direct experience; social interaction; and media. Operationalization of these variables was explained below.

3.5.1 Direct Experience

Direct experience was operationalized by respondents' previous experiences in visiting a Disney theme park. To determine the effect of direct experience upon their perceptions of Hong Kong Disneyland, questions used included whether the respondent had visited any Disney theme park before and their level of satisfaction with their visit. More importantly, respondents were asked how they thought their experience influenced their opinions towards the proposed Hong Kong Disneyland project.

3.5.2 Social Interaction

Influence of social interaction on perceptions was based on questions such as whether the respondent has talked or discussed the project with their friends, relatives or colleagues, and if the discussion or conversation had affected their opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland and its impacts. The nature and direction of influence after their discussions were also asked.

3.5.3 Media Influence

Media influence was operationalized by asking how residents' opinions on media reporting of the Disneyland project in the press (i.e. either positive, negative or neutral), how much trust they placed on the media, and how the media influenced their opinions.

3.6 Data Analysis

All survey data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics and the appropriate bi-variate and or multi-variate statistical tests. The SPSS 11.0 (Statistical Packages for the Social Science) computer software was used. Several statistical techniques were used to analyze the data, such as, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, independent samples t-tests and analysis of variance. In order to identify the groups (community clusters) in an analysis of the relevant residents' perceptions data under the social representations framework, cluster analysis was used (Pearce et al., 1996; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

The complete data set was used for data analysis, except for the cluster analysis procedure. In fact, cluster analysis was used to identify community groups whose share the same representations within the group. Therefore, only one set of responses among those who were interviewed twice in November and January could be used for this particular analysis. For those 124 respondents, the January responses were used in cluster analysis instead of November because they demonstrated higher stability in terms of the optimal numbers of clusters and their characteristics.

3.6.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the mean and frequency of all items. Frequencies were also be generated to provide a general profile of study respondents.

3.6.2 Factor and Reliability Analysis

Factor Analysis was conducted to separate the ten impacts into the four dimensions, namely economic, socio-cultural, environmental and community attitude impacts. Each dimension was further tested for reliability in order to measure the internal consistency of the multi-item dimensions.

3.6.3 Independent Samples T-tests

Independent sample t-tests was used to see if there are any significant differences between the mean scores of two groups of respondents. In this study, it was used to test the influence of the three sources for groups with direct experience and without direct experience; between groups with satisfactory and dissatisfactory experiences; those with positive media and negative ratings; and groups with more positive and more negative perceptions after discussion of the projects with family, friends and colleagues with the variables of interests such as the economic impacts, socio-cultural impacts, community attitude, environmental impacts and general perceptions items. These findings are reported in Chapter 4.

3.6.4 Cluster Analysis

In terms of methodology, cluster analysis was used because of the adoption of social representations framework. Cluster analysis is the most widely used statistical tool for identifying representations of responses by forming distinct groups where the similarity within the group is large and differences between the groups is high in order to differentiate residents who have different perceptions. It attempts to maximize the homogeneity between of objects (respondents) within the clusters while also maximizing the heterogeneity between the clusters (Hair, Anderson,

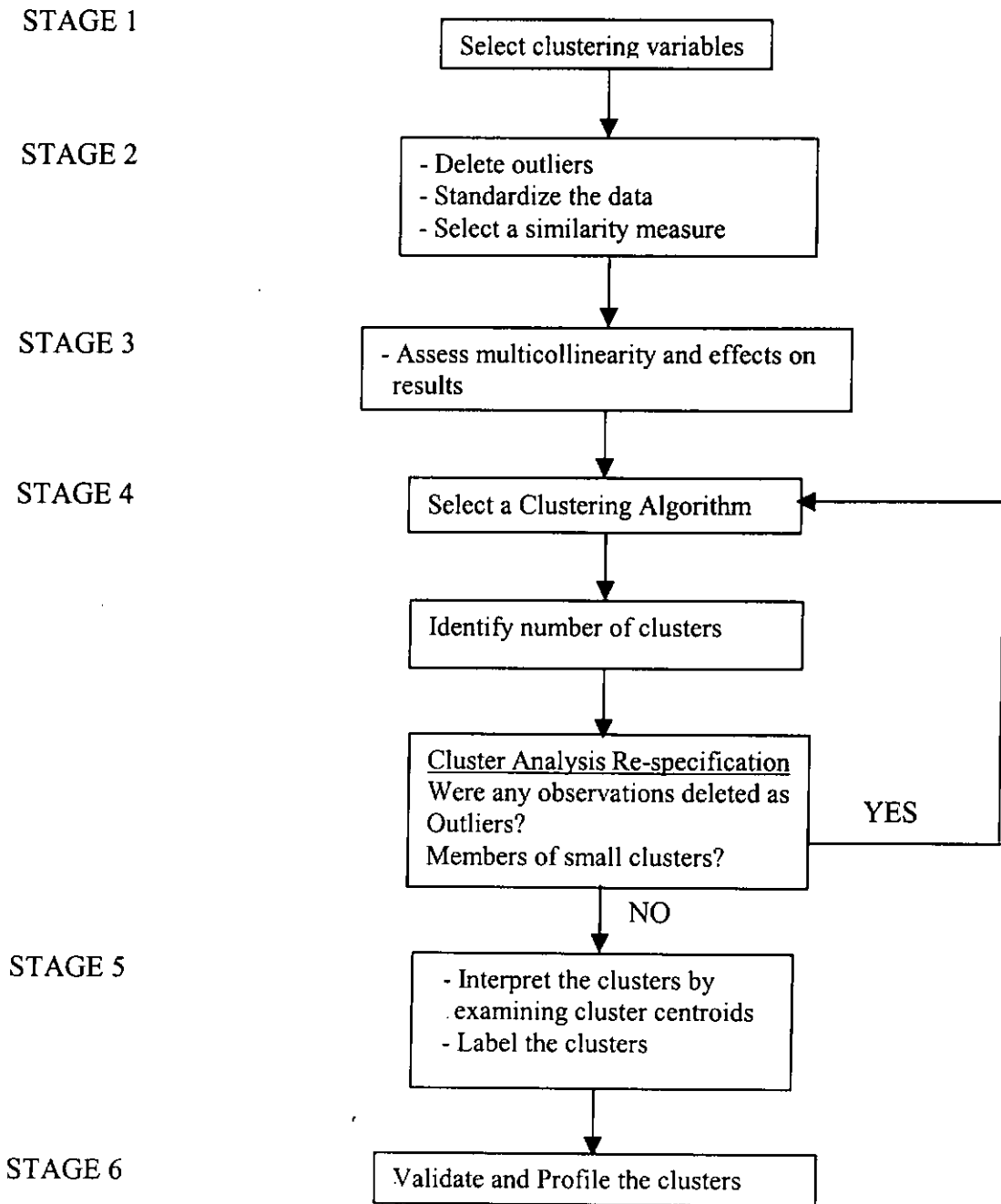
Tatham & Black, 1998). It is an appropriate mode of analysis for groups or clusters of individuals together on the basis of how similar their responses are to the objects. Pearce et al. (1996) suggested that the groups identified in this manner reflect differing social representations. This method allows researchers to identify a small number of groups with similar perceptions so as to search for agreement among individuals. Cluster analysis also allows researchers to identify groups with commonalities and this has far more meaningful implications for tourism planners and managers (Pearce et al., 1996) as it may provide insights for them by categorizing the individuals into clusters or segments.

Figure 2 shows the detailed procedures followed in running cluster analysis to arrive at an optimal cluster solution. Firstly, variables used for cluster analysis should be selected. In the second and third stage, the standardization, selection of distance measures, detection of outliers and measure of multicollinearity should be undertaken in order to assess the suitability for inclusion of cases in the analysis. As cluster analysis ignores cases with missing values, therefore, recoding of missing values by the neutral value was conducted whose rationale will be explained in Chapter 5. In stage 4, the clustering algorithm is selected. Finally, the determination of number of clusters and validation of clusters has to be undertaken.

The most commonly used clustering algorithms can be classified into two general categories: (1) hierarchical; and (2) nonhierarchical. Hierarchical procedures involve the construction of a tree-like hierarchy structure and have an important characteristic which is that the results at an earlier stage are always nested within the results at a later stage (Hair et al., 1998). It starts by joining cases and clusters that

are known to be the most similar. This has a better chance of pointing the clustering effort towards the highest concentrations of respondents. Therefore, it could produce better clusters at the early stages of the process (Myers, 1996). For nonhierarchical algorithms, K-means is the most popular. However, the number of clusters has to be specified in order to get the solution. Its use depends on the ability of the researcher to select the seed points, which are the starting points. If a non-random starting point is specified, K-means outperforms Ward's method. Conversely, it may be markedly inferior to the hierarchical techniques if a random starting point is used (Punj & Stewart, 1983). Therefore, a combination of both methods was adopted in order to gain the benefits of each in this study which will be described specifically in Chapter 5.

Figure 2. Procedures Used in Cluster Analysis of Residents' Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland



Source: Adapted from Hair et al. (1998)

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the analyses undertaken. It comprises of six main parts. First of all, a summary of the demographic profile of the respondents is presented. Then, descriptive statistics of the respondents' general perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland are provided, followed by a presentation of the descriptive statistics of the perceptions towards the impacts of the project, the results of the factor analysis and reliability analysis of the nine impact items examined in the study. The fourth and fifth parts present the respondents' perceptions towards the level of change of the impacts. The last part shows the results of the influence of three sources of social representations on the respondents' perceptions. Results of the cluster analysis and its profile are presented in Chapter 5.

4.2 General Information of Respondents

A comprehensive demographic profile of the respondents is presented to provide background information about the respondents. It includes gender, age and economic dependency on tourism.

4.2.1 Gender and Age of the Respondents

In the two surveys undertaken, a total of 1,060 respondents were interviewed, of whom 45% were male and 55% female (see Table 5). One hundred and twenty-four (124) respondents were interviewed for both surveys and this enabled the researcher to directly compare responses between the two surveys.

As seen in Table 5, about 16% of the respondents were 15-19 years old and 40-44 years old, 13% of them were 30-34 years old, 11% were 35-39 years old. It should be noted that there was an over representation among the 15-19 years, 30-34 years and 40-44 years age groups when compared to the 2002 mid-year population census statistics. Also, there is an under representation of the 45-49 years, 55-59 years and 65 or above age groups.

Table 5. Respondents' Demographic Profile

Gender	Frequency			Percentage (%)			Census Population (%)*
	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	
Male	232	243	474	45.1	44.5	44.7	48%
Female	282	303	586	54.9	55.5	55.3	52%
Total	514	546	1060				
Age Group (years)							
15-19	67	96	163	13.1	17.6	15.5	7.7%
20-24	48	43	91	9.4	7.9	8.6	7.9%
25-29	32	42	74	6.3	7.7	7.0	9.0%
30-34	73	66	139	14.3	12.1	13.2	10.3%
35-39	66	48	114	12.9	8.8	10.8	11.9%
40-44	84	87	171	16.5	16.0	16.2	12.2%
45-49	26	29	55	5.1	5.3	5.2	10.0%
50-54	42	53	95	8.2	9.7	9.0	8.1%
55-59	10	9	19	2.0	1.7	1.8	5.0%
60-64	33	30	63	6.5	5.5	6.0	4.2%
65 yrs or above	29	41	70	5.7	7.5	6.6	13.7%
Total	510	544	1054				

* Source: Census & Statistics Department of HKSAR (2002b)

4.2.2 Residents' Economic Dependency on Tourism

This was determined by direct employment in tourism or tourism-related businesses, or with household members employed in these businesses. Only 4% of the respondents were employed in tourism or tourism-related businesses, or had household members employed in these businesses.

4.3 Respondents' General Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

In terms of the level of support for the project, 85% of the respondents supported the development of Hong Kong Disneyland and 77% believed the benefits of Hong Kong Disneyland would outweigh the costs (see Table 6).

Table 6. Respondents' Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

Statement	n			Disagree (%)			Neutral (%)			Agree (%)			Mean*		
	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total
Benefits of the project outweigh costs	489	508	997	14.1	12.2	13.1	11.0	8.5	9.7	74.8	79.3	77.1	3.7	3.76	3.72
Support Hong Kong Disneyland	497	532	1029	8.0	8.4	8.2	7.2	6.0	6.6	84.7	85.5	85.1	3.9	3.88	3.87

* Based upon a five-point scale where 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

4.4 Respondents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland

Ten impact items were originally examined in the study and these were further grouped into four factors. One cultural item, concerning influence of American culture was deleted from the analysis as part of the scale purification process. The Cronbach's alpha co-efficient for the sub-scale increased from 0.64 to 0.76 if this item were deleted from this sub-scale. The impact factors were labeled economic, socio-cultural, environmental, and community attitude (see Table 7). All four factors that emerged from the factor analysis had Eigenvalues, which ranged from 0.83 to 3.15 with 71% of the variance explained. In terms of reliability, the Cronbach's alpha co-efficients for the factors ranged from 0.68 to 0.76. It might be noted that two factors had Eigenvalues below the usually accepted 1.0 cut-off. However, as all the items loaded cleanly onto each factor, made theoretical sense, and with the cumulated variance increasing 19% from 52% to 71% with inclusion of these factors, they were retained for subsequent analysis. Jolliffe (1972, 1986) also argues that 1.0 is too strict and suggests retaining factors that exceed an Eigenvalue more than 0.70. Given the above, it was decided to retain all four factors for subsequent analysis.

Table 7. Results of Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation and Reliability Analysis of Respondents' General Perceptions towards Tourism Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland (n=1060)

Statement	Factor Loadings				Communality
	F1	F2	F3	F4	
Factor 1: Economic Impacts					
1. Number of jobs in the community.	.87				.77
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	.74				.68
Factor 2: Socio-cultural Impacts					
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.		.85			.79
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.		.82			.77
Factor 3: Community Attitude					
5. Community spirit among local residents.			.79		.65
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.			.73		.62
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.			.62		.59
Factor 4: Environmental Impacts					
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.				.87	.76
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.				.87	.76
	F1	F2	F3	F4	
Eigenvalue	3.15	1.52	.91	.83	
Variance (%)	35.0	16.9	10.1	9.2	
Cumulative variance (%)	35.0	51.9	62.0	71.1	
Cronbach's alpha	.68	.76	.69	.74	
Number of items ($\Sigma=9$)	2	2	3	2	

4.4.1 Factor 1 – Economic Impacts

The two statements related to economic impacts all were directly extracted from Ap and Crompton's (1998) scale. It was found that the results were consistent with those of Ap and Crompton's study. As shown in Table 8, approximately 80% of respondents indicated they liked the changes in the revenue generated in the local economy, while 77% liked the changes in the number of jobs created by the project in the community. The mean scores of these items were both 3.95.

4.4.2 Factor 2 – Socio-cultural Impacts

Originally, three items in this aspect were included in the questionnaire with two were extracted from Ap and Crompton's (1998) scale. The additional item was "Influence of American Culture on Hong Kong Society". After the factor analysis, this latter item was eliminated. Respondents generally liked the socio-cultural impacts. Nearly 70% of the respondents liked the changes in opportunities to learn about other people and cultures, and understanding of different people and cultures by local residents (see Table 8). The mean scores were 3.81.

4.4.3 Factor 3 – Community Attitude

Three statements related to community attitude were directly extracted from Ap and Crompton's (1998) scale. Consistent with Ap and Crompton's study, all three impacts fell into the intended category – community attitude. Respondents perceived the impacts of the project on community attitude positively. As shown in Table 8, about 73% of the respondents liked the changes in positive attitudes of local residents, and 66% liked the vitality created by the project for Hong Kong. For community spirit, 43% gave a positive response while 47% gave a neutral response. The mean scores ranged from 3.43 to 3.89.

4.4.4 Factor 4 – Environmental Impacts

Two statements related to environmental impacts, which are specific to this project, fell into the intended category – environmental impacts, after the factor analysis. Respondents perceived the environmental impacts negatively. Nearly 75% of the respondents disliked the changes associated with the water quality at Penny’s Bay and natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area (see Table 8). The mean scores ranged from 1.93 to 1.96.

4.4.5 Overall Perceptions to the Impacts

Almost 70% of the respondents liked the overall changes associated with the project. Although respondents disliked the environmental changes, they still positively rated the overall changes with a mean score of 3.80.

Table 8. Respondents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland

Statement	n			Dislike ¹ (%)			Neither like nor dislike (%)			Like ² (%)			Mean*		
	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total
Changes brought about by Hong Kong Disneyland in the:															
<i>Economic Impacts</i>															
1. Number of jobs in the community.	497	507	1004	6.4	4.2	5.3	15.7	18.9	17.3	77.8	76.9	77.4	3.94	3.97	3.95
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	484	492	976	6.7	4.8	5.7	14.0	16.5	15.3	79.3	78.6	79.0	3.93	3.98	3.95
<i>Socio-cultural Impacts</i>															
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	479	486	965	4.4	3.5	3.9	28.8	27.2	28.0	66.8	69.3	68.1	3.78	3.83	3.81
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	476	478	954	5.7	4.6	5.1	27.1	25.7	26.4	67.2	69.7	68.4	3.77	3.85	3.81
<i>Community Attitude</i>															
5. Community spirit among local residents.	417	440	857	9.6	10.7	10.1	49.2	44.1	46.6	41.3	45.3	43.3	3.40	3.46	3.43
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	465	478	943	3.3	3.7	3.5	23.4	23.0	23.2	73.3	73.3	73.2	3.88	3.90	3.89
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	460	453	913	5.6	8.6	7.1	27.6	26.0	26.8	66.7	65.3	66.1	3.78	3.72	3.75
<i>Environmental Impacts</i>															
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.	423	447	870	75.9	72.9	74.4	19.1	20.1	19.7	5.0	6.9	6.0	1.96	1.95	1.96
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	435	447	882	75.4	77.9	76.6	19.1	16.6	17.8	5.5	5.6	5.5	1.99	1.87	1.93
<i>Overall</i>															
10. Overall perceptions towards the likely changes associated with the development of HK Disneyland.	488	523	1011	7.4	7.5	7.4	24.0	23.3	23.6	68.7	69.3	69.0	3.79	3.80	3.80

¹ Includes both "Dislike" and "Somewhat Dislike" responses.

² Includes both "Like" and "Somewhat Like" responses.

* Based upon a 5-point scale where 1 = Dislike to 5 = Like.

4.5 Respondents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong

Disneyland

The impacts were measured by the respondents' perceptions on the type of change of various impact items with the results shown on Table 9. For the economic impacts, over 70% of the respondents thought that Hong Kong Disneyland will increase the number of jobs in the community (statement 1) and revenue generated in the local economy (statement 2). The mean scores for these impacts ranged from 3.60 to 3.82. For the socio-cultural impacts, almost 70% of the respondents thought that Hong Kong Disneyland will increase the opportunities to learn about other people and cultures (statement 3) and understanding of different people and cultures by local residents (statement 4). The combined mean scores for these impacts were 3.7. For the community attitude, the majority of respondents (over 68%) thought that it will increase the positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists (statement 6) and the vitality of Hong Kong (statement 7). However, over half (53%) of the respondents thought there was no change in the level of community spirit among Hong Kong residents (statement 5). For the environmental impacts, the majority of respondents (over 86%) thought there would be a decrease (i.e. deterioration) of the water quality at Penny's Bay (statement 8) and the natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area (statement 9).

Table 9. Respondents' Perceptions towards the Type of Change of Hong Kong Disneyland's Impacts

Statement	n			Decrease ¹ (%)			No Change (%)			Increase ² (%)			Mean*		
	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total	Nov	Jan	Total
Changes brought about by Hong Kong Disneyland in the:															
<i>Economic Impacts</i>															
1. Number of jobs in the community.	495	519	1014	19.0	18.6	18.9	9.5	9.4	9.5	71.5	71.9	71.7	3.62	3.58	3.60
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	485	504	989	5.1	4.4	4.7	12.8	12.3	12.5	82.1	83.4	82.8	3.83	3.81	3.82
<i>Socio-cultural Impacts</i>															
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	496	515	1011	3.0	3.9	2.6	29.0	25.4	27.2	67.9	72.4	70.3	3.71	3.73	3.72
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	490	509	999	3.3	3.3	3.3	28.2	25.9	27.0	68.6	70.8	69.7	3.68	3.70	3.69
<i>Community Attitude</i>															
5. Community spirit among local residents.	454	480	934	7.0	8.8	7.9	55.3	50.0	52.6	37.6	41.3	39.5	3.33	3.35	3.34
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	477	498	975	1.2	3.6	2.5	24.7	21.3	23.0	74.0	75.1	74.6	3.76	3.75	3.75
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	470	473	943	2.9	8.0	5.5	28.7	24.7	26.7	68.3	67.2	67.8	3.69	3.61	3.65
<i>Environmental Impacts</i>															
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.	437	458	895	86.7	85.5	86.2	10.1	10.3	10.2	3.2	4.1	3.6	1.87	2.02	1.95
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	450	457	907	88.0	88.8	88.5	8.7	7.0	7.8	3.4	4.2	3.8	1.89	1.98	1.94

¹ Includes both "Large Decrease" and "Decrease" responses.

² Includes both "Large Increase" and "Increase" responses.

* Based upon a 5-point scale where 1 = Large Decrease to 5 = Large Increase.

4.6 An Assumption

As shown in Table 10, when comparing the type of change and the level of like or dislike, respondents responded logically and consistently, that is, a decrease in an impact resulted in a disliking for that impact; no change in an impact resulted in neutral responses to that impact; and an increase in an impact resulted in a liking for that impact between these two sets of results. The level of correspondence between these two sets of results ranged from 72% to 91% of the respondents. Therefore, a simple assumption was made that respondents who disliked a particular impact implied that the level of change for that particular impact was negative; respondents who liked a particular impact implied that the level of change for that particular impact was positive; and respondents who gave a neutral response to a particular impact implied there was no change for that particular impact.

However, the technique of deriving a change/like or dislike index by multiplying the type of change and level of like/dislike was not used because of the lack of meaning derived from using an index. For example, a product of 4 can be achieved by having a combination of 4-1, 1-4 and 2-2. That is, level of change as increase with level of liking as dislike; level of change as large decrease with level of liking as somewhat like; level of change as decrease and level of liking as somewhat dislike; all derived into the same product of 4, respectively. Unfortunately, the same perceptions regarding the impact cannot be assumed by having different combinations in this case.

Table 10. Comparison Between Perceived Type of Change and Level of Like/Dislike

Statement	Decrease – Dislike (%)	No Change – Neutral (%)	Increase – Like (%)	Total (%)
Changes brought about by Hong Kong Disneyland in the:				
<i>Economic Impacts</i>				
1. Number of jobs in the community.	2.1	6.5	63.0	71.6
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	3.4	8.4	76.6	88.4
<i>Socio-cultural Impacts</i>				
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	2.0	20.9	65.2	88.1
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	2.4	19.0	64.8	86.2
<i>Community Attitude</i>				
5. Community spirit among local residents.	6.8	42.8	40.5	90.1
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	1.5	17.6	71.4	90.5
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	4.5	21.8	64.6	90.9
<i>Environmental Impacts</i>				
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.	73.7	7.6	2.7	84.0
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	75.8	6.1	1.8	83.7

4.7 Influence of Three Sources of Information

The influence of three sources of information is presented next. Independent sample t-tests were used to examine if mean scores differences exist between two independent groups, such as, those who had visited Disney theme park and had not visited; those who had discussed the project with their friends, colleagues and relatives and had not; as well as those who rated media coverage as positive and negative.

4.7.1 Influence of Direct Experience

Among the 932 respondents, 39% (363 respondents) had previously visited a Disney theme park, and 82% (297 respondents) of the Disney theme park visitors were satisfied with their visit to the Disney park. A mean score of 4.0 was obtained, which indicates that the respondents were “satisfied”. As shown in Table 11, only 16% of the respondents who had visited a Disney theme park thought their previous direct experience greatly influenced and shaped their opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland while over one-third (35%) of respondents thought it had little or even no influence in shaping their opinions. Since this is a direct question asking respondents’ about the influence of their direct experience on opinions, therefore, this result cannot generalize the whole measurement of influence of direct experience and it should cross-check with the results of the independent sample t-tests conducted between previous visitors Vs non-previous visitors and satisfied visitors Vs dissatisfied visitors.

Table 11. Influence of Direct Experience in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland (n=335)

Extent of Influence	Percent
Little or no Influence	35.2
Some Influence	30.4
Quite a bit of Influence	17.9
Great Influence	10.7
Very Great Influence	5.7

Independent sample t-tests were then used to test if any significance exists between the following groups of respondents (Visited Vs Non-visited a Disney park and Satisfied Vs Dissatisfied with their visit).

No mean score differences were found between respondents who had visited a Disney theme park and have not visited it; and who were satisfied with their visit and were not satisfied with their visit for the following items (see Table a & b in Appendix D):

- support for the development;
- benefits of the project outweigh costs;
- economic impacts;
- socio-cultural impacts;
- community attitude impacts;
- environmental impacts; and
- overall impacts.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the influence of direct experience in shaping opinions and perceptions towards the project is minimal.

4.7.2 Influence of Media

For the channels of how respondents knew about the Hong Kong Disneyland project, 96% of the respondents (893) indicated they found out through the “Media”. As shown in Table 12, half of them (50%) rated the media coverage about Hong Kong Disneyland as neutral while 37% of them rated it as positive. It was also found that there was an 8% increase in terms of the number of respondents who rated the media as positive after the ground breaking ceremony of Hong Kong Disneyland. Almost 50% of the respondents indicated they trust the media coverage on Hong Kong Disneyland. Table 13 shows that only 11% of the respondents who thought the media had great influence in shaping their opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland while 58% of them thought it had no or only little influence.

Table 12. Ratings of Media Coverage on Hong Kong Disneyland

Media Ratings	Frequency (Percentage)			Change (from Nov to Jan)
	Nov (n=426)	Jan (n=460)	Total (n=886)	
Positive ¹	32.9%	40.7%	37.0%	+ 7.8%
Neutral	51.2%	49.3%	50.2%	- 1.9%
Negative ²	16.0%	10.0%	12.8%	- 6.0%
Mean *	3.33	3.57	3.45	+ 0.24

¹ Includes both “Positive” and “Somewhat Positive” responses.

² Includes both “Negative” and “Somewhat Negative” responses.

* Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Negative to 5=Positive.

Table 13. Influence of Media in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland (n=967)

Extent of Influence	Percent
Little or no Influence	57.6
Some Influence	21.6
Quite a bit of Influence	9.7
Great Influence	8.7
Very Great Influence	2.4

However, Table 14 shows that respondents who rated the media coverage related to Hong Kong Disneyland as positive, had significantly higher mean scores for six of the seven variables examined which include:

- support for the development;
- benefits of the project outweigh costs;
- economic impacts;
- socio-cultural impacts;
- community attitude impacts; and
- overall impacts,

than respondents who rated the media coverage as negative. This confirms that the media had influence on respondents' perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland.

Table 14. Independent Sample T-test Results: Ratings on Media Coverage as Positive Vs Negative on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

	Group	n	Mean [^]	t-value	df	p
1. Support for the development	Positive	321	4.0	-3.502	161	0.001*
	Negative	109	3.7			
2. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	Positive	317	3.9	-3.628	151	0.001*
	Negative	109	3.5			
3. Economic Impacts	Positive	301	4.1	-4.240	141	0.001*
	Negative	105	3.7			
4. Socio-cultural Impacts	Positive	295	3.9	-3.354	168	0.001*
	Negative	102	3.6			
5. Community Attitude	Positive	241	3.7	-2.611	325	0.009*
	Negative	86	3.5			
6. Environmental Impacts	Positive	252	2.0	-1.191	344	0.234
	Negative	94	1.9			
7. Overall Impacts	Positive	313	4.0	-4.161	172	0.001*
	Negative	110	3.5			

[^] Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Dislike to 5=Like.

* Denotes significance at the 0.05 level.

4.7.3 Influence of Social Interaction

Thirty-six percent (36%) of the respondents had discussed the Hong Kong Disneyland project with their friends, relatives and colleagues. More than half (63%) of the respondents thought their discussions had little or no influence in shaping their opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland (see Table 15). Although most respondents indicated “little or no influence” to this question, the influence of social interaction was also assessed by another question which asked about the outcome of the respondents’ discussions on their opinions..

Table 15. Influence of Social Interaction in Shaping Opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland (n=363)

Extent of Influence	Percent
Little or no Influence	63.1
Some Influence	22.9
Quite a bit of Influence	8.0
Great Influence	5.5
Very Great Influence	0.6

It can be seen from Table 16 that almost half (48%) of the respondents thought they became more positive towards the project after discussions with their friends, relatives or colleagues about it. Only 11% of them thought they became more negative after their discussions. More than half (59%) thought their opinions had either become more positive or negative after their discussions with their relevant parties. Therefore, it contradicts the findings from Table 15 that 63% of them thought their social interaction with their social networks did not have any influence or only little influence on their opinions.

Table 16. Perceived Outcomes Following Discussion on Hong Kong Disneyland

	Nov (n=181)	Jan (n=170)	Total(n=351)
More positive	50.3%	44.7%	47.6%
No change	43.1%	40.6%	41.9%
More negative	6.6%	14.7%	10.5%

By conducting independent sample t-tests, respondents who had discussed the project with their social or reference groups and resulted in a more positive thinking about the project, had significantly higher mean scores for all seven variables of interest than respondents whose discussions resulted in a more negative opinion about the project (see Table 17). Therefore, it can be concluded that the impact of interaction or discussion with others influences respondent opinions towards the Hong Kong Disneyland project. For those respondents who had discussed the project and resulted in a more positive opinion towards it were more likely to form more positive representations towards the project while those who had resulted in a negative thinking were more likely to form less positive representations or even negative representations towards the project.

Table 17. Independent Sample T-test Results: Impact of Interaction/Discussion with Others on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

	Group	n	Mean [^]	t-value	df	p
1. Support for the development	More Positive	167	4.0	4.463	40	0.001*
	More Negative	37	3.2			
2. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	More Positive	166	4.1	4.375	38	0.001*
	More Negative	35	3.1			
3. Economic Impacts	More Positive	163	4.2	3.856	34	0.001*
	More Negative	29	3.5			
4. Socio-cultural Impacts	More Positive	162	4.0	4.521	36	0.001*
	More Negative	31	3.2			
5. Community Attitude	More Positive	130	3.8	4.519	154	0.001*
	More Negative	26	3.2			
6. Environmental Impacts	More Positive	133	1.9	2.530	163	0.012*
	More Negative	32	1.5			
7. Overall Impacts	More Positive	161	4.2	4.779	38	0.001*
	More Negative	34	3.1			

[^] Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Dislike to 5=Like.

* Denotes significance at the 0.05 level.

4.7.4 Comparison of Respondents' Participating in the Two Surveys (Influence of Media and Social Interaction)

Approximately one quarter (24%), that is, 124 out of 936 respondents completed both surveys. Their responses towards the perception items were analyzed by using the paired samples t-test, which compares the respondents' mean scores for identical variables or items between the two surveys. Table 18 shows that the respondents' level of like/dislike towards the economic, socio-cultural and community attitude impacts significantly increased from the November to January survey. The mean scores for these three categories were significantly higher than those in the November survey. For general perceptions of the Hong Kong Disneyland project, residents' level of support and the belief that the benefits of Hong Kong Disneyland outweigh the costs also increased significantly. The influence of media and social interaction can also be further confirmed here. Just prior to the January survey, there was lot of press coverage which was generally positive about the Hong Kong Disneyland project following the ground breaking ceremony. Therefore, more respondents rated the media as positive and thus, formed more positive perceptions towards the project. Interaction may influence the process of the formation of perceptions, as there was almost a two-month gap between two surveys. Therefore, respondents may have had a number of discussions with others between the survey periods.

Table 18. Comparison of Respondents' Responses Participating in the Two Surveys towards Hong Kong Disneyland

	Group	n	Mean [^]	t-value	df	p
1. Support for the development	November	120	3.9	-2.040	119	0.044*
	January		4.0			
2. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	November	118	3.7	-2.071	117	0.041*
	January		3.9			
3. Economic Impacts	November	105	4.1	2.462	104	0.015*
	January		4.3			
4. Socio-cultural Impacts	November	100	3.9	2.791	99	0.006*
	January		4.1			
5. Community Attitude	November	67	3.7	2.557	66	0.013*
	January		3.9			
6. Environmental Impacts	November	86	1.8	-1.300	85	0.197
	January		1.6			
7. Overall Impacts	November	116	3.9	-1.388	115	0.168
	January		4.0			

[^] Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Dislike to 5=Like.

* Denotes significance at the 0.05 level.

CHAPTER FIVE

CLUSTER ANALYSIS AND CLUSTER PROFILES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of a cluster analysis which helped identify distinct community group responses towards Hong Kong Disneyland. It is used to discover structure in data that is not readily apparent by visual inspection (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). Everitt (1980) defines clusters as regions of a space with a relatively high density of points, distinguished from other such regions with a relatively low density of points. Therefore, variation within the group is low while variation between the groups is high in order to differentiate among groups.

Cluster analysis was performed using the combined dataset of both the November and January respondents. For the respondents who were interviewed twice in the November and January surveys, only one set of responses could be used in the cluster analysis to avoid redundancy and double counting of the same respondents. As indicated in Chapter 3, the January data was used. Therefore, the total sample used for the cluster analysis was 936 respondents.

5.2 Selection of Cluster Variables

Figure 3 shows the stages and procedures used in the cluster analysis. Stage 1 decides what variables are to be included as the cluster variables. In this study, the cluster analysis was used to identify a few homogenous groups of residents who have similar perceptions (representations) towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland; therefore the nine impact items were selected for the analysis in Stage 1. Although the nine impact items can be reduced into four factors, ratings on all items were used instead of the factor scores because their use may not identify individual statements that best separate clusters (Myers, 1996) and there is also some doubt about the representativeness of using factor scores to provide good representation of the true data structure (Hair et al., 1998; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

5.3 Assumptions in Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis is an objective methodology for quantifying the structural characteristics of a set of observations (Hair et al., 1998). It has strong mathematical properties, but not statistical foundation. It is not like factor analysis, which is based upon an extensive body of statistical reasoning (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). Therefore, the requirements of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity have little bearing on cluster analysis. However, the issues of outliers, representativeness of the sample, and multicollinearity have to be considered in Stages 2 and 3 (see Figure 3). The distance measure of squared Euclidean distance was also selected at Stage 2.

5.3.1 Multicollinearity

In cluster analysis, the impact of multicollinearity is the implicit weighting given to those multicollinear variables (Hair et al., 1998). Suppose that respondents are being clustered on 10 variables. When multicollinearity is examined, there are really two sets of variables; one is made up of eight variables and the second made up of two variables. Therefore, the first group of variables is weighted four times as the second group of variables. For this study, nine impact items have been categorized into four dimensions (2 – economic impacts, 2 – social-cultural impacts, 3 – community attitude, 2 – environmental impacts). There were no major variables, which were found to be heavily weighted. Moreover, in testing for multicollinearity, no variance inflation factor (*VIF*) exceeded the accepted cut-off criteria of 10.0 for the nine impact items. Therefore, only minimal levels of multicollinearity exist and this should not impact the cluster analysis in any substantial manner.

5.3.2 Outliers

The effect of outliers in cluster analysis was substantial. Therefore, multivariate outliers have to be deleted before the analysis. To identify the multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distances generated in multiple regression of each case needs to be computed and compared with the critical value (Department of Psychology of Monash University, 2003). This can be found from the chi-square table when alpha is 0.001 and the degrees of freedom equal to the number of predictor variables, which is 9. Therefore, 26 cases, which had Mahalanobis distance over 27.88 ($df = 9, p = 0.001$), were identified and deleted from the analysis.

5.3.3 Standardizing the Data

Distance measures are sensitive to differing scales or magnitude among the variables. Standardizing is required if different scales are used between the variables. No standardizing was needed in this study as the nine impact items all used the same 5-point Likert scale.

5.3.4 Missing Values

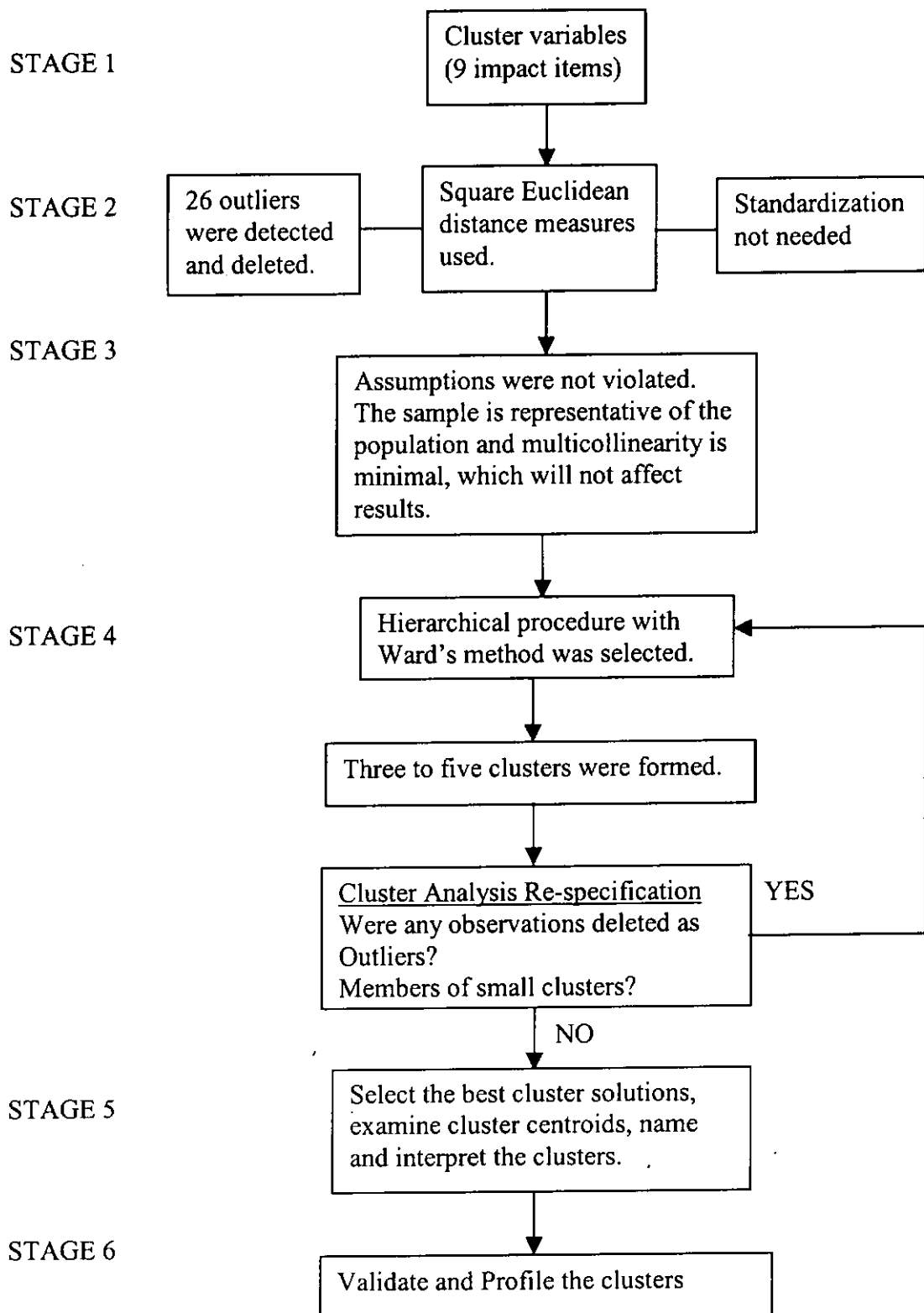
Cases with one or more missing values among the nine impact items are ignored in cluster analysis as it can only include complete cases. Therefore, these cases have to be either excluded from the cluster analysis or re-coded to enable inclusion. In order to preserve the most genuine cluster structure and characteristics, the latter option was chosen. Missing responses of “no opinion/don’t know” were recoded with the middle of the scale “neither like nor dislike” as the respondents were, in fact, unsure or did not have feelings about the level of change of the impact. Therefore they had no opinion or did not know their liking to that particular impact. In this circumstance,

“like” or “dislike” responses cannot be substituted for these missing values, therefore, “neither like nor dislike” would be more appropriate to substitute them. In accordance with Fredline (2000), if the “no opinion/don’t know” option had not been included, it is likely that many of the respondents would have selected the middle of the scale (neutral), as they were apparently unsure about the level of impact. Everitt, Landau and Leese (2001) pointed out that recoding with mean should only be used within a homogenous group, but not for cluster analysis, because the groups are unknown prior to cluster analysis. For example, if the income of the respondents with missing are recoded as the mean group, then income level is also used for cluster analysis, the cases recoded with mean will then tend to a particular group which loses the function of the cluster analysis. Furthermore, Ap (2000b) has pointed out that respondents may not have any opinions on the matter and prefer to adopt a consensus approach to choose “neutral”. Therefore, based on the several reasons, recoding missing values with “neutral” was adopted.

5.4 Algorithms

In stage 4, algorithms are selected. In this study, hierarchical clustering using Ward's method and squared Euclidean distances as the measure was undertaken using SPSS 11.0. In fact, several algorithms like the median method, the centroid method, complete linkage, single linkage, and average linkage (both with and between groups) were used, however, one large cluster and several very small clusters (some with only one case) resulted in all of these algorithms. Therefore, Ward's method, which produced more even sized clusters, was selected. The original sample of 910 cases was used to run the hierarchical clustering first in order to establish the number of clusters, profile the cluster centers (cluster seeds), and identify any obvious outliers. No obvious outliers were detected. Therefore, the cases were then clustered by a nonhierarchical method (K-means clustering) with the cluster centers from the hierarchical results as the initial seed points for fine-tuning purpose which resulted in some reassignments of the respondents.

Figure 3. Cluster Analysis Procedures



Source: Adapted from Hair et al. (1998)

5.5 Cluster Solution

Two cluster solutions were obtained showing three and four clusters, respectively. The four-cluster solution was selected on the basis of observation from the agglomeration schedule, the face validity of the clusters and after conducting subsequent analyses to profile each cluster (Hair et al., 1998). The four well-defined clusters represented 11% - "*Lovers*", 22% - "*Cautious Romantics*", 41% - "*Supporters*" and 26% - "*Environmental Ambivalents*" of the sample, respectively. The results of the four-cluster solution are provided in Table 19. The highest mean scores are shown in bold while the lowest mean scores are italicized. The integrity and character of this solution are evident from a comparison of the mean scores. The different clusters have been compared using analysis of variance techniques including Tukey's Test for Honestly Significance Differences which showed that all means were significantly different at $\alpha < 0.01$ with only one exception for the item water quality at Penny's Bay which was not significant different for "*Lovers*" and "*Supporters*".

Table 19. Cluster Means for Each Impact Variable and ANOVA Results (n=910)

Variables	Overall Mean	Lovers (n=98)	Cautious Romantics (n=201)	Supporters (n=374)	Env. Ambivalents (n=237)	F-value	Sig.
<i>Economic Impacts</i>							
1. Number of jobs in the community.	3.9	4.7	4.3	3.8	3.4	106.25	0.001
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	3.9	4.7	4.3	3.8	3.3	144.47	0.001
<i>Socio-cultural Impacts</i>							
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	3.7	4.5	4.1	3.7	3.2	161.08	0.001
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	3.7	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.1	187.93	0.001
<i>Community Attitude</i>							
5. Community spirit among local residents.	3.4	4.1	3.8	3.3	2.8	98.55	0.001
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	3.8	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.3	118.02	0.001
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	3.6	4.5	4.1	3.6	3.0	163.74	0.001
<i>Environmental Impacts</i>							
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.	2.2	2.9	1.3	2.8	1.7	314.40	0.001
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	2.1	3.0	1.3	2.7	1.6	309.79	0.001

Bold numbers indicate the highest mean score and italicized numbers indicate the lowest.

Where there are two or more numbers in one row emboldened, they have been tested with Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test and found to be statistically equivalent ($\alpha < 0.05$).

5.6 Validation of the Clusters

The subjective nature of cluster analysis makes validation very important (Saunders, 1994). There is no assurance of arriving at the most meaningful and useful set of clusters, even after careful analysis of a data set and the determination of a final cluster solution (Punj & Steward, 1983). Therefore, validation of the clusters is very critical. According to Sharma (1996), demonstration of the reliability and external validity of a cluster solution is compulsory.

5.6.1 Reliability

Reliability of the cluster solution may also be established by cross-validation of the sample (Punj & Steward, 1983). In accordance with the procedures recommended by Punj and Stewart, the 910 cases were randomly split into two data sets, D1 and D2, containing 455 cases individually. D1 was the test sample, and D2 the internal validation sample. D1 was run with cluster analysis and the cluster means were obtained from this procedure. Then the cluster means were entered into D2 as the initial centroids and generated the cluster membership for the internal validation sample as the constrained solution. On the other hand, D2 was also run with cluster analysis without determination of any starting points and the unconstrained solution was obtained. The chance corrected coefficient of agreement, Kappa, was computed for the two solutions of D2 cases. A Kappa value of 0.82 was obtained which shows a high level of agreement between these two solutions exists and the membership of 87% of the cases in D2 were the same for the two solutions. Therefore, the internal reliability of the sample was high.

5.6.2 External Validity

External validity is obtained by comparing the results from cluster analysis with an external criterion (Sharma, 1996, Hair et al., 1998). Therefore, three external variables (general perceptions items), which were not used in the cluster analysis, were tested to see if significant differences exist between clusters by using analysis of variance techniques. Results are shown in Table 23 and further explained in Section 5.8. The patterns of differences among the clusters provide sufficient evidence to draw the conclusion that the four-cluster solution also has an adequate level of predictive validity.

5.7 Relationship between Cluster Membership and Independent Variables

The statistical integrity of various cluster solutions were also assessed by checking for significant mean differences responses between the resulting clusters for independent variables such as, gender, whether any family members worked in the tourism industry (economic dependency) and whether involved in any tourism-interest group or environmental group. The relationships were examined using Pearson chi-square test which is a non-parametric technique.

No statistically significant relationships were found for gender, ($\chi^2_{(3)} = 6.370, p = 0.095$); economic dependency, ($\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.209, p = 0.360$); involvement in tourism-interest group or environmental group, ($\chi^2_{(3)} = 5.742, p = 0.125$); and direct experience ($\chi^2_{(3)} = 0.951, p = 0.813$). However, for the variables of: age; exposing to favorable Vs. unfavorable media coverage; and positive Vs. negative discussion with others were found to be significantly related to cluster membership.

5.7.1 Age

Age was significantly related to cluster membership ($\chi^2_{(9)} = 58.497, p < 0.01$). As shown in Table 20, the younger group (15-29 years) were more likely than expected to be “*Cautious Romantics*” and “*Environmental Ambivalents*” and less likely than expected to be “*Lovers*” and “*Supporters*”. It shows that the younger age group was more likely to be a member of a cluster which disliked the environmental impacts.

For the older age groups of 45-59 years and 60 years or above, they were more likely than expected to be “Lovers” and “Supporters” while they were less likely than expected to be “Cautious Romantics” and “Environmental Ambivalents”. Therefore, these age groups were more likely to be a member of groups, which showed neutral responses to the environmental impacts and positive perceptions towards the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude.

Table 20. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Age

Cluster		15-29 years	30-44 years	45-59 years	60 or above	Total
Lovers	Observed	13	37	30	18	98
	Expected	30.0	39.6	16.2	12.1	
	Std. Residual	-3.9	-0.6	4.0	1.9	
Cautious Romantics	Observed	82	75	25	18	200
	Expected	61.2	80.9	33.1	24.8	
	Std. Residual	3.6	-1.0	-1.8	-1.6	
Supporters	Observed	93	152	75	53	373
	Expected	114.2	150.8	61.8	46.2	
	Std. Residual	-3.1	0.2	2.4	1.4	
Environmental Ambivalents	Observed	89	102	20	23	234
	Expected	71.6	94.6	38.8	29.0	
	Std. Residual	2.9	1.1	-3.8	-1.4	
Total	Observed	277	366	150	112	905

5.7.2 Media Ratings

Media ratings were significantly related to cluster membership ($\chi^2_{(6)} = 18.189, p < 0.01$). Table 21 shows that people who rated media as positive were more likely than expected to be “Lovers” and less likely than expected to be “Environmental Ambivalents”. People who rated media as negative were more likely than expected to be “Environmental Ambivalents” and less likely than expected to be “Lovers”.

Table 21. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Media Ratings

Cluster		Positive	Neutral	Negative	Total
Lovers	Observed	41	34	4	79
	Expected	30.5	38.9	9.6	
	Std. Residual	1.9	-0.8	-1.8	
Cautious Romantics	Observed	64	93	17	174
	Expected	67.2	85.6	21.2	
	Std. Residual	-0.4	0.8	-0.9	
Supporters	Observed	124	139	36	299
	Expected	115.4	147.1	36.5	
	Std. Residual	0.8	-0.7	-0.1	
Environmental Ambivalents	Observed	62	105	35	202
	Expected	78.0	99.4	24.6	
	Std. Residual	-1.8	0.6	2.1	
Total	Observed	291	371	92	754

5.7.3 Discussion

Discussion was significantly related to cluster membership ($\chi^2_{(6)} = 54.598, p < 0.01$).

As shown in Table 22, people who resulted in more positive opinions after their discussions with their social groups were more likely than expected to be “*Lovers*” and less likely than expected to be “*Environmental Ambivalents*”. People who resulted in more negative opinions after their discussions were more likely than expected to be “*Environmental Ambivalents*” and less likely than expected to be in other three groups.

Table 22. Relationship between Cluster Membership and Discussion Results

Cluster		More Positive	More Negative	No Change	Total
Lovers	Observed	23	0	13	36
	Expected	17.0	4.1	15.0	
	Std. Residual	1.5	-2.0	-0.5	
Cautious Romantics	Observed	45	2	34	81
	Expected	38.2	9.1	33.7	
	Std. Residual	1.1	-2.4	0.0	
Supporters	Observed	50	6	44	100
	Expected	47.1	11.3	41.6	
	Std. Residual	0.4	-1.6	0.4	
Environmental Ambivalents	Observed	20	25	31	76
	Expected	35.8	8.6	31.6	
	Std. Residual	-2.6	5.6	-0.1	
Total	Observed	138	33	122	293

5.8 Cluster Profiles

To further describe the characteristics and make up of the four community clusters, three external variables (general perceptions items), which were not used in cluster analysis, were tested to see if significant differences exist between clusters by using analysis of variance techniques including Turkey's Test for Honestly Significance Differences. Table 23 shows that the level of support for the development and the belief that benefits of the project outweigh the costs for "*Environmental Ambivalents*" was significantly lower than the other three clusters. For the item "Overall Impacts" from Hong Kong Disneyland, each cluster was significantly different from each other where the level of like/dislike of this item significantly decreased across "*Lovers*", "*Cautious Romantics*", "*Supporters*" and then "*Environmental Ambivalents*".

The four clusters represented 11%, 22%, 41% and 26% of the sample, respectively, and are identified in the data set. Cluster profiles, as shown in Tables 19, 21 and 22, are described as follows:

- ❖ Cluster 1 ($n = 98$) – "*Lovers*". This first cluster comprised 11% of the total sample. It can be characterized as the most positive cluster in which members showed the most favourable attitude towards the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude and had the most positive perceptions towards the development. As a result, this group was labeled "*Lovers*". Specifically, the vast majority (89% or above) of the members in this cluster liked all the impacts in the economic, socio-cultural and community attitude dimensions except for

the community spirit among local residents (see Table 24). Table 25 shows the different responses for the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude items between “*Lovers*” and “*Cautious Romantics*”. Over 62% of the members showed a “like” response to those items except community spirit. This pushed up their perceptions to form the most positive group. They had almost no negative perceptions towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland. Even for the environmental impacts (the potential negative impacts), around 60% of “*Lovers*” gave neutral responses (see Table 24). Overall, this group had the most favourable attitude to the overall changes caused by Hong Kong Disneyland.

- ❖ Cluster 2 ($n = 201$) – “*Cautious Romantics*”. This group represents 22% of the study sample. It is so named because it holds many of the same feelings as “*Lovers*” towards the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude, but generally these feelings are not as strong as those of “*Lovers*”. As shown in Table 24, over 84% of the members liked all the impacts in the economic, socio-cultural and community attitude dimensions except for community spirit among local residents. And Table 25 shows that over 50% of the respondents indicated a “somewhat like” response which was less positive than for “*Lovers*”. Meanwhile, they showed negative responses to the environmental impacts which were the lowest amongst the four clusters. While this group recognized many of the benefits of Hong Kong Disneyland, members in this group also believed that it poses negative impacts to Hong Kong in terms of the water quality and the natural habitat of the white dolphins. Therefore, it was labeled “*Cautious Romantics*”. This group had the second highest favourable attitude to the overall changes caused by Hong Kong Disneyland. This segment appreciates the many

benefits derived from the existence of Hong Kong Disneyland, but appear to be more cautious with respect to the potential environmental impacts.

- ❖ Cluster 3 ($n = 374$) – “*Supporters*”. This group included the majority (41%) of the respondents. As shown in Table 18, members in this group had positive perceptions and had the third highest mean scores towards the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude (but significantly lower mean scores than “*Cautious Romantics*”). However, they showed “neutral” responses to the environmental impacts and had equivalent mean scores with “*Lovers*” on these items. Therefore, they were named as “*Supporters*” meaning that they liked the economic, socio-cultural and community attitude impacts, but they neither liked nor disliked the environmental impacts. They are described as “*Supporters*” of the Disneyland project.

- ❖ Cluster 4 ($n = 237$) – “*Environmental Ambivalents*”. Almost one-quarter (26%) of the respondents were categorized in this cluster. This cluster exhibits neutral mean scores across the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude (see Table 19). That is, they neither liked nor disliked the three impact categories. However, they still recognized and disliked the impacts on the water quality and the natural habitat for white dolphins as approximately 90% of the members indicated “somewhat dislike” or “dislike” responses to the environmental impact items (see Table 24). Besides, members in this group also gave the lowest level of support for the development and gave the lowest level of agreement to the beliefs that benefits of the project outweigh the costs when compared to the other

three groups (see Table 23). Overall, this group had the least favourable attitude towards the overall impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland.

Table 23. Cluster Means for General Perception Variables with ANOVA Results (n=910)

Variables	Overall Mean	Lovers (n=98)	Cautious Romantics (n=201)	Supporters (n=374)	Env. Ambivalents (n=237)	F-value	Sig.
1. Overall Impacts	3.8	4.5	4.1	3.8	3.2	76.890	0.001
2. Support for the development	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.0	3.5	33.385	0.001
3. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	3.8	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.4	22.538	0.001

Bold numbers indicate the highest mean score and italicized numbers indicate the lowest.

Where there are two or more numbers in one row emboldened, they have been tested with Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test and found to be statistically equivalent ($\alpha < 0.05$)

Table 24. Cluster Profiles on Impact Items

Variables	Percentage											
	Lovers (n=98)			Cautious Romantics (n=201)			Supporters (n=374)			Environmental Ambivalents (n=237)		
	L	N	D	L	N	D	L	N	D	L	N	D
Economic Impacts												
1. Number of jobs in the community.	97	3	0	90	9	2	75	23	2	48	41	11
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	97	3	0	92	8	1	77	22	2	41	45	14
Socio-cultural Impacts												
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	89	11	0	85	15	0	65	35	1	26	63	11
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	93	7	0	87	13	1	65	33	2	22	68	11
Community Attitude												
5. Community spirit among local residents.	67	32	2	60	36	4	32	63	5	7	74	19
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	92	7	1	84	16	1	67	33	1	35	57	8
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	89	11	0	84	15	1	55	41	3	20	63	17
Environmental Impacts												
8. Water quality at Penny's Bay.	16	56	28	0	2	98	8	61	31	0	13	87
9. Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	20	58	21	0	2	98	6	56	38	0	11	89
10. Overall Impacts	95	5	0	85	12	3	71	24	4	39	42	19

L: "Somewhat Like" and "Like"; N: "Neither like nor dislike"; D: "Somewhat Dislike" and "Dislike".

Table 25. Comparison of Positive Responses between “Lovers” and “Cautious Romantics”

Variables	Lovers (n=98)			Cautious Romantics (n=201)		
	<i>Percentage</i>					
	<i>Like</i>	<i>Somewhat Like</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Like</i>	<i>Somewhat Like</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Economic Impacts</i>						
1. Number of jobs in the community.	75	22	97	40	50	90
2. Revenue generated in the local economy.	78	19	97	38	54	92
<i>Socio-cultural Impacts</i>						
3. Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	64	25	89	29	56	85
4. Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	64	29	93	34	53	87
<i>Community Attitude</i>						
5. Community spirit among local residents.	43	24	67	20	40	60
6. Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	65	27	92	32	52	84
7. Vitality of Hong Kong.	62	27	89	28	56	84

5.9 Conclusion

Four groups were successfully identified using cluster analysis with a two-step analysis which was followed with proper techniques of validation. Community groups with differing levels of perceived impacts were identified, namely "*Lovers*", "*Cautious Romantics*", "*Supporters*" and "*Environmental Ambivalents*" and these sub-groups were considered to hold differing social representations of the Hong Kong Disneyland project. Age was the only demographic variable found to be related to the cluster membership where the younger group (15-29 years) was more likely to be in "*Cautious Romantics*" and "*Environmental Ambivalents*" which disliked the environmental impacts while the older groups in the 45-59 years and 60 years or above age groups were more likely to be in "*Lovers*" and "*Supporters*", which gave neutral responses to the environmental impacts and positive perceptions to the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter reviews the results presented in previous two chapters, which provide some understanding on the residents' perceptions towards the Hong Kong Disneyland. Then, discussion and implications for the Hong Kong International Theme Parks Limited (HKITP), Hong Kong Tourism Board and the HKSAR government are given based upon the findings. Finally, some research limitations and recommendations for future research are provided.

6.2 Discussion and Implications of the Findings

Residents showed different perceptions towards different categories of impacts, but overall they were still supportive of the development. A discussion of the results and implications from the findings are presented as follows.

6.2.1 Residents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland

The majority of the respondents thought the economic changes brought by the development would be positive and liked them. This result was consistent with the previous findings by Ross (1992), Lankford and Howard (1994), McCool and Martin (1994), Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996), Jurowski et al. (1997), Gursoy et al. (2002) and Tosun (2002) who found residents perceived the economic changes positively. It makes sense that the Hong Kong Disneyland would provide many jobs opportunities, no matter in the construction or operation phase. Moreover, because of the increase in numbers of tourists coming to Hong Kong due to the Hong Kong Disneyland, it would certainly increase the revenue generated.

Most of the respondents rated the socio-cultural impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland as positive and liked them. They consider Hong Kong Disneyland would increase tourist arrivals and thus provide more opportunities to meet, interact with tourists, learn about them, and understand their cultures.

For the environmental impacts, they generally viewed the impacts negatively. This is consistent with the findings by Jurowski et al. (1997) who found residents had formed negative perceptions towards environmental impacts of tourism development.

However, the findings of the cluster analysis showed that there are four clusters, where two clusters perceived the environmental changes as negative and another two clusters perceived them as having no environmental change or were neutral in their attitude. The two clusters of "*Cautious Romantics*" and "*Environmental Ambivalents*" disliked the environmental impacts. There were two possible explanations for that. Firstly, the publicity and awareness of the actions to minimize the environmental impacts brought by the Disneyland project may not be enough and adequate, so these members were not well informed or aware of the protection measures taken by the Walt Disney Company and the HKSAR government. Secondly, it is a genuine concern for the environment. Therefore, it is suggested that the Walt Disney Company and the government should do more to reassure and accommodate their concerns on the environment.

With regard to community attitude, most of the respondents thought it would be positive and liked them except for the impact on the community spirit among local residents. Hong Kong presently has only one theme park (Ocean Park); therefore, one more international standard theme park certainly increases the vitality of Hong Kong. For the increase of positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists, it is easily recognizable and understandable. The increase in visitor numbers will be definitely beneficial for Hong Kong tourism; therefore, residents are likely to show more hospitality towards the tourists.

For the overall changes associated with the development of Hong Kong, almost 70% of the respondents liked the changes. It represents a relatively high level of favourable perceptions to the impacts of the development.

6.2.2 Residents' Perceptions towards the Development

A high level of support for the development was found in this study. Quite a large proportion of respondents (77%) believed that the benefits of the project outweigh the costs associated with it. Therefore, people generally believe the benefits derived from the economic, socio-cultural impacts and community attitude are much more than the costs on environment. All in all, the costs are considered less important than the benefits of the development.

6.2.3 Host Community Sub-groups

The operationalization of the social representations theory as a framework enabled the identification of four nested communities with differing social representations (perceptions) and the understanding of the perceptions underlying these representations. The finding also supports the contention that residents' perceptions are far from homogenous. Four distinct community groups representing four different social representations for Hong Kong Disneyland were homogeneously grouped on the basis of their perceptions of the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland on their community. These findings are consistent with those of Evans (as cited in Williams & Lawson, 2001), Martin (1995) and Williams and Lawson (2001) where four clusters were formed. From previous studies by Davis et al. (1988) and Madrigal (1995), the largest cluster identified comprised "*Realists*" which was named as "*Cautious Romantics*" in this study. This group of people recognized both the positive and negative impacts of the development. However, the largest group identified in this study was "*Supporters*" which reveals an interesting finding from this study. This study did not identify any distinctly negative groups towards the development which differs from the findings of other studies where anti-tourism groups were usually identified. This may be due to the consensus nature of the Chinese culture in which

Chinese usually likes to conform to group norms and avoid confrontations (Ap, 2000b). More importantly, Hong Kong is the highly urbanized city where reclamation of land is quite prevalent, and therefore, residents are already used to it. Thus, they may not give a high level of concern towards this particular issue.

Only one-fourth of the respondents fell in the "*Environmental Ambivalents*" cluster, which is not that many given that no negative cluster was found. The results are encouraging, however, specific attention and efforts should also be given for this group which will be mentioned again later on in this chapter.

Age was found significantly affect the cluster membership. The younger group (15-29 years) was more likely to be a member of "*Cautious Romantics*" and "*Environmental Ambivalents*" which implies that the younger group was likely to form negative perceptions towards the environmental impacts of the project and more environmentally concerned. There are a few possible reasons for this response. Firstly, the younger group is more environmentally-conscious so that their expectations regarding government action for minimizing impacts on environment have not been reached while the government, in fact, has done something, however, they were still concerned. Secondly, the publicity of the environmental protection program was inadequate so that they were not aware of it and thirdly, the government's measures for minimizing the environmental impacts were inadequate. On the other hand, the older group (45 years or above) was more likely to be a member in the "*Lovers*" and "*Supporters*" groups. They were more likely to form neutral perceptions towards the environmental impacts. This may mean that they were aware of the environmental protection measures that the government has been taken or they may be less environmentally-conscious.

Gender, economic dependency and involvement in tourism-interest or environmental groups did not affect the cluster membership of respondents. Gender has been found to be irrelevant to cluster membership which is consistent with the studies by Davis et al. (1988), Schroeder (1992), Ryan and Montgomery (1994), Fredline (2000) and Weaver and Lawton (2001). Owing to the small sample size of four percent (41 out of 777) and five percent (32 out of 785) of the respondents who were economically dependent on tourism and involved in tourism-interest or environmental groups, respectively, and thus both also contained one group with less than five respondents, therefore it cannot meet the basic assumption of Pearson chi-square test.

6.2.4 Influence of Direct Experience, Social Interaction and Media

There is evidence to support the notion that the social representations held by residents are influenced by social interaction and media.

However, it was found that direct experience with Disney theme park did not influence their perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland. People who visited a Disney theme park may not necessarily have different perceptions with non-visitors or those without any direct experience in terms of the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland. They only got knowledge and information about Disney theme park, but not about the impacts of Disney theme park from their direct experience. Also, it may not influence perceptions, because people may sometimes get their knowledge beyond their personal experiences (Pearce et al., 1996). The knowledge may come from other avenues such as the media or their social and reference groups.

Direct experience primarily provides information and knowledge for individuals to construct their social representations of Disney theme park which may also provide a catalyst for change of their existing opinions. However, for those who did not visit a Disney theme park, their knowledge and information may come from other sources, such as their social networks or the mass media. Therefore, not all of their knowledge and information were obtained from personal experience with a Disney theme park while some may have been obtained from social interaction and media. The magnitude of influence of each attribute also differs and is unknown.

For the influence of media in forming representations, this can be confirmed by the results obtained. Firstly, respondents who rated the media coverage on Hong Kong Disneyland as positive were significantly more likely to form positive perceptions to all perceived impact items except the environmental impacts (see Table 14). Among respondents who participated in both the November and January survey, responses in the January survey were significantly more positive than the November survey responses. It may be because there were totally 97 positive press articles from Chinese and English press found from “WiseNews”, which is a newspaper database on Hong Kong Disneyland after the ground breaking ceremony. These articles are likely to have influenced their opinions. They may have also had discussions with their social networks or groups about the project within this period. Thus, the influence of social interaction also exists. Notwithstanding, this cannot be investigated from this study because such changes can be due to their social interaction with their social networks or the media. We may not know which of these two attributes exactly influences their perceptions, may be both, may be either one. Therefore, one may suggest that the influence of media exists where positive media reporting resulted in the formation of more positive perceptions and vice versa.

Moreover, the findings from the independent samples t-tests which were conducted between groups who had more positive opinions and negative opinions after their discussion on the various items of interest also confirm the influence of social interaction on residents' perceptions. Respondents who had discussed the project with their social networks and resulted in more positive views were significantly more positive for all the perception items than those who had more negative views.

Besides, there were no specific insights drawn from the respondents who were involved in tourism-interest or environmental group because of the small number of responses ($n = 50$) in the sample.

Although the three factors of direct experience, social interaction and media work together in shaping social representations of Hong Kong Disney and its impacts, social interaction could also work against the impact of direct experience. That is, the influence of direct experience may be overwhelmed by other sources of information. An individual's consumption of media information is "frequently interactive, taking place in conversation with other readers who may see different meaning" (Gamson, Croteau, Hoynes & Sasson, 1992, p. 373). People may usually use the information from the mass media to influence the opinions of others and its influence is much more considerable than that of direct experience because most people expose to the mass media in their daily lives. However, the influence of direct experience is limited because when one tries to use his/her personal experience to Disney theme park to influence others' opinions, others may not be influenced as they do not actually visit the theme park.

Three factors influence social representations but the magnitude of their influence depends upon their intensity, the power of individuals in influencing others and the individuals' personal characteristics. In the twenty-first century, information is everywhere and mass media is extensive. People expose to them everyday and they are everywhere. They passively influenced individuals' opinions, attitudes and behavior. Direct experience would also occur occasionally. That may be a possible reason for explaining why direct experience did not influence residents' perceptions very much towards Hong Kong Disneyland in this study. Therefore, the influence of mass media would be more substantial than that of direct experience. Without a doubt, numerous interactions occur between individuals and their social networks either friends, colleagues, relatives or strangers everyday especially in a place with approximately 6.8 million people living in a total area of just above 1,100 square kilometers. Influence of social interaction would be predicted as substantial. The power of influence by social interaction, of course, depends upon the power of the individuals. Strangers may have a weaker power to influence one's opinions. However, with the increased intensity of the social interaction, such as ten strangers talking with one another and expressing the same perceptions to Hong Kong Disneyland, one may be more or less influenced by the ten strangers. Finally, the influence of the social networks or media on individuals also depends upon the personal characteristics of individuals. One's self-esteem may inherently affect the extent in which one is being influenced.

6.3 Managerial Implications

The world is never perfect. Although the results of this survey are encouraging for the HKSAR government and the Hong Kong International Theme Parks Limited (HKITP) because of the continuous high level of support shown for the project after three years since the announcement of the deal to build Hong Kong Disneyland in 1999. However, attention should be given to the segments of “*Environmental Ambivalents*” and “*Cautious Romantics*” which are accounted for 50% of the sample. It is inevitable that the project will induce negative impacts. However, gaining continuous support from public is critical for a tourism project. Therefore, specific insights with important implications from the findings for the Hong Kong International Theme Parks Limited (HKITP), Hong Kong Tourism Board and the HKSAR government and other relevant parties are drawn.

6.3.1 Internal Marketing

Local residents can be regarded as “internal customers” of the development (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). Therefore, internal marketing may be used to satisfy the community so that they will go to Hong Kong Disneyland and further promote it to the tourists. Different marketing strategies can also be used to satisfy different clusters (Davis et al., 1988).

The most important marketing strategy may have to be directed to “*Environmental Ambivalents*” which was the most negative cluster amongst the four groups and with the lowest level of support to the development. This particular group did not show positive perceptions to economic, socio-cultural and community attitude impacts and

only noticed the environmental drawbacks from the development. It implies that part of the local population may not be aware of or recognize the benefits. This may be due to the unequal spreading of the benefits to the community where 74% of the respondents agreed that the government should ensure the outcomes (or benefits) from the Hong Kong Disneyland project are fairly distributed across the community. It can be seen that residents, in fact, are concerned about the distribution of the benefits to the community. Firstly, attempts should be made to help them to understand the significance of the existence of Hong Kong Disneyland, educate them of the benefits derived from the project, and tell them what is being done to minimize the potential environmental drawbacks. Moreover, efforts should be made to equally distribute the benefits into the host communities, such as, provide employment opportunities to the residents from entry level to managerial positions.

For the "*Cautious Romantics*" group, they recognized both the positive and negative changes derived from the development. Therefore, it would be less effective to emphasize the benefits of the Hong Kong Disneyland in terms of job creation, revenue generated or learning about other cultures, but rather focus on how the development provides incentives to protect the natural environment. Measures on how the authorities take the views of local residents seriously would be more effective.

Although over half of the respondents fell into "*Lovers*" and "*Supporters*" groups, however, opinions may change overtime. Therefore, the relevant authorities should make every effort to ensure that support will continue in the long-term. Continuous education and awareness programs of the benefits from the development are essential.

6.3.2 Community Involvement

Another strategy to internally market to the residents is to gain the residents' involvement in the planning process, which increases the awareness of the consequences of the tourism development in the community (Haywood, 1988). Besides, residents can show hospitality to the tourists, participate in operation of the tourist attractions and they can also take part in the planning and development of the tourism project (Ap, 1992). They can contribute their opinions to the government and industry to let them know of their concerns and dislikes. On the other hand, the HKSAR government can consult and obtain their advice before making decisions to invest in a tourism project. Therefore, the tourism project will be more likely to gain public support and be successful.

6.3.3 Environmental Measures

Apart from the education and awareness programs, concrete measures to minimize the environmental impacts created by the development have to be taken into consideration. Although the government has already implemented the recommended mitigation measures suggested by the Environmental Impact Assessment report on Hong Kong Disneyland Development and has carefully planned Hong Kong Disneyland, in order to rectify or minimize the environmental impacts. The high level of dislike to the environmental impacts implies that awareness of such programs or measures may be low. More promotion of the environmental measures, programs or actions that have been or will be taken should be publicized in the newspapers, magazines and radio so that residents would take notice of them.

Besides, the environmental-friendly design of the Hong Kong Disneyland would also decrease the level of dislike for the impacts on the environment. For example, the use

of architecturally and environmental compatible materials, energy conservation design techniques and a similar waste recycling program like Florida's Walt Disney World can be implemented so as to minimize such impacts on the Hong Kong environment.

6.4 Study Limitations

There are some limitations in this study. According to Ap and Crompton's (1998) tourism impact scale, tourism impacts can be divided into seven domains: socio-cultural, economic, crowding and congestion, environmental, services, taxes, and community attitudes. However, this study only focused on the general perceptions of residents towards the environmental, economic, socio-cultural and community attitudes impacts.

Secondly, the sampling methodology which this study adopted may create another limitation. The Computer-Assisted Survey Team selected PCCW residential line subscribers for participation in the telephone survey and excluded subscribers of other competing providers in the sample. Moreover, it also excluded residents without telephones.

Although the sample is deemed to be representative of the general public of Hong Kong, however, there were some age groups which were under-represented or over-represented. Therefore, the results may only be interpreted as indicative rather than as representative and conclusive.

Moreover, detailed measures of social interaction may be used to find out the magnitude of the influence of social interaction, such as, the respondents' types of conversations with their colleagues, friends, family and even strangers have to be recorded. Even a taxi driver or a hairdresser, they may still influence one's opinions,

so inclusions of conversation with strangers are necessary. Therefore, the respondents may have to drop down those conversations on a daily basis.

Three direct questions asking about respondents' views in terms of the influence of direct experience, social interaction and media in shaping their perceptions could not actually measure the intended responses because respondents were shy and reluctant to tell how or why they were influenced by those attributes. Chinese may think that they will lose face if they admit some of the attributes have influenced them. Being easily influenced by others is treated as one having "no character".

In operationalizing direct experience, experience or a previous visit at one of the existing Disney Magic Kingdom parks was used as a substitute for direct experience with Hong Kong Disneyland as these are similar products and would have the same brand image. However, using the direct experience of other Disney Magic Kingdom parks may not actually reflect the influence of direct experience in shaping their opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland because the source of influence (Disneyland elsewhere) and the object to be influenced (Disneyland in Hong Kong) may not be really compatible. Thus, the use of these substitutes is recognized as a study limitation.

Finally, due to the limitation of the length of the telephone survey, only a few demographic items were included in the questionnaire, which limits the power of cluster profiling and identification. If demographic information such as household income, occupation, place of birth and education level were included, a more detailed profiling of the clusters could be presented which may help further identify the cluster groups in the community.

6.5 Future Research

There are few recommendations for future research to be taken in order to achieve a better understanding of the application of social representations theory. Firstly, the existence of influences of the media and social interaction was confirmed. It would be suggested that further detail analysis of the media content and pattern on all forms of transmissions such as audio, print, electronic or visual; all sorts of interaction with their social groups or networks can be used to diagnose the effects and the magnitude of the influences with ongoing monitoring of the same respondents over a period of time. Or alternatively, a very detailed diary of the respondent or a quasi-experimental design asking respondents to respond to different scenarios of media, social interaction can be adopted. Another suggestion would be to conduct focus group discussions in order to obtain more detailed information and opinions from residents. This can also enable the researcher to observe the interaction process during discussion and work out how the discussion may influence the individuals' opinions. Respondents can also be asked to fill in the same questionnaire before and after the discussion so that the measurement of influence of social interaction can be much more accurate and confirmative.

“Opinions may change” leads the importance of on-going measurement of residents' perceptions towards the impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland. Regular monitoring of community perceptions is required to provide information on the needs, views and desires of host communities. Longitudinal data should be established to monitor the changes in terms of the perceptions and the level of support for the development. If decreased level of support or increased negative perceptions is found, immediate

measures or programs should be taken to examine the source and resolve such changes. In fact, this is to engender positive attitudes and ensure the success of Hong Kong Disneyland.

Given the inadequacy of the profiling of the community clusters in this study, more demographic information such as occupation, income level, education level and independent variables like proximity, community attachment and length of residency can be used to precisely profile the sub-groups in the community. It helps planners and the government to identify the groups in the community and implement the specific internal marketing strategies to the specific group.

This theory can also be applied in finding the social representations of Hong Kong tourism as tourism is being the second largest foreign exchange earner and thus very important to Hong Kong nowadays. Understanding the community is far from homogeneous; therefore, research on finding out differing and prevailing social representations of Hong Kong tourism is worth pursuing.

6.6 Conclusions

Although the residents generally perceived the environmental changes associated with the development of Hong Kong Disneyland negatively and disliked those changes, they were still likely to support the development even three years after the announcement to proceed with the project had been made. It can be seen that Hong Kong residents still have confidence that the benefits will outweigh the costs brought by the development.

Four community clusters each representing differing social representations with Hong Kong Disneyland exist. The younger group (15 – 29 years) are more likely to form social representations with negative perceptions of the environmental impacts and positive perceptions of other three impacts while the older group (45 years or above) was more likely to form social representations with neutral perceptions on the environmental impacts and positive perceptions on other three aspects. No negative social representations of this project were found, which is encouraging. However, there was one group “*Environmental Ambivalents*” which did not show positive responses to the benefits of Hong Kong Disneyland, however, they acknowledged the negative impacts. Therefore, specific attention should be given to this particular group which was accounted for 26% of the sample.

On-going measurement of the residents’ perceptions towards this project must be taken in order to monitor their change of perceptions to ensure the ongoing success of the Hong Kong Disneyland project.

APPENDIX A - Telephone Survey (Methodology)

NOVEMBER / DECEMBER 2002 SURVEY

(1) Introduction

The Computer-Assisted Survey Team (CAST) was delegated by the HTM to conduct a Survey on "Hong Kong Disneyland". The data collection procedure was conducted in the telephone laboratory at GH301 of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

The CAST was responsible for setting questions into the computer system in Chinese and English, training of interviewers, administration of close-ended and open-ended questions, discarding of data files and materials after the survey, towards cleaning up the data, sending reports and data files to the contract buyer.

(2) Survey Period

The survey was conducted on November 27-29 and December 2-4, 2002 over six evenings between the hours of 6:00 and 10:00 pm.

(3) Sampling

The mode of data collection for the project was by telephone survey. We employed the modified random digit dialing (mRDD) strategy for generating the sample list of the residential telephone numbers. Thus the study population for the survey was the people whom could be accessible by the residential lines. They were further filtered by the criterion of 'Hong Kong residents aged 15 or above'.

The total valid sample size collected was 514 at the margin of error (sampling error) less than 4.3%. By tight monitoring, the non-sampling error should have been minimized to the least. The whole process of the sampling of the residential telephone lines included the following phases:

Phase 1: Randomly drawn an adequate large sample size (at least 600,000), say Sample Alpha, from the recently released residential telephone directory (English version) published by the PCCW in 2000.

Phase 2: According to the Sample Alpha, the last two digits of each telephone number were truncated and concatenated by two independent random digits so as to make the number to resume a normal telephone number currently used in Hong Kong, i.e., eight-digit format. Using the pseudo-random algorithm based on uniform distribution, it generated the random digits. The transformed telephone numbers comprised a sample called Sample Beta. The size of Sample Beta can be in principle as large as $100 \times 600,000 = 6 \times 10^7$ items.

Phase 3: The numbers in the Sample Beta would then be randomly allocated into the telephone interviewing computer program. The interviewers had to dial the numbers assigned automatically by the computer program. When the dialed telephone numbers had been verified as the target, thoroughly trained telephone interviewers would use the well-designed computer program based on the Kish-Grid idea to select one and

only one eligible respondent in each household dialed, if there were more than one eligible person.

Necessary steps such as ‘making appointments for the not-at-home sampled persons’ and re-dialing of the ‘no-answer’ calls were performed in order to minimize the total survey error.

(4) Language Used

Cantonese (98.8%) was the main language media conducted in the interviews. But if the eligible persons could only understand English, the interviewers would instruct the computer program to switch to the English version to complete the interview. There were 1.2% respondents who answered the survey in English. In addition, there were 0.37% (13 out of 3,478) respondents whom spoke in the dialects that we could not provide suitable interviewers to talk to them.

(5) The Dialing Results

The stopping rule was by the quota restricted by the required sample size and the total number of telephone lines dialed were 3,478. The composition of this figure was as follows:

Category	Frequency
Completed eligible interviews	514
Refused eligible units	211
Partial interviews	25
Non-eligible units	306
Non-contacted but known eligible units	176
Other non-interviews units: no answer, cut-at-once and problem lines	2,246
Total	3,478

The Cooperation Rate = $514 / (514 + 211 + 25) \times 100\% \sim 68.53\%$.

The average time spent for each call ~ 15 minutes.

JANUARY 2003 SURVEY – New Respondents

(1) Introduction

The Computer-Assisted Survey Team (CAST) was delegated by the HTM to conduct a Survey on “Hong Kong Disneyland”. The data collection procedure was totally conducted in the telephone laboratory at GH301 of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

The CAST was responsible for setting questions into the computer system in Chinese and English, training of interviewers, administration of close-ended and open-ended questions, discarding of data files and materials after the survey, towards cleaning up the data, sending reports and data files to the contract buyer.

(2) Survey Period

January 15-16, 2003 over two evenings between the hours of 6:00 and 10:00 pm.

(3) Sampling

The mode of data collection for the project was by telephone survey. We employed the modified random digit dialing (mRDD) strategy for generating the sample list of the residential telephone numbers. Thus the study population for the survey was the people whom could be accessible by the residential lines. They were further filtered by the criterion of qualified Hong Kong residents aged 15 or above.

The total valid sample size collected was 422 at the margin of error (sampling error) less than 4.8%. By tight monitoring, the non-sampling error should have been minimized to the least. The whole process of the sampling of the residential telephone lines included the following phases:

Phase 1: Randomly drawn an adequate large sample size (at least 600,000), say Sample Alpha, from the recently released residential telephone directory (English version) published by the PCCW in 2000.

Phase 2: According to the Sample Alpha, the last two digits of each telephone number were truncated and concatenated by two independent random digits so as to make the number to resume a normal telephone number currently used in Hong Kong, i.e., eight-digit format. Using the pseudo-random algorithm based on uniform distribution, it generated the random digits. The transformed telephone numbers comprised a sample called Sample Beta. The size of Sample Beta can be as large as 6×10^7 .

Phase 3: The numbers in the Sample Beta would then be randomly allocated into the telephone interviewing computer program. The interviewers had to dial the numbers assigned automatically by the computer program. When the dialed telephone numbers had been verified as the target, thoroughly trained telephone interviewers would use the well-designed computer program based on the Kish-Grid idea to select one and only one eligible respondent in each household dialed, if there were more than one eligible person.

Necessary steps such as ‘making appointments for the not-at-home sampled persons’ and re-dialing of the ‘no-answer’ calls were performed in order to minimize the total survey error.

(4) Language Used

Normally Cantonese (99.3%) was the main language media conducted in the interviews. But if the eligible persons could only understand English, the interviewers would instruct the computer program to switch to the English version to complete the interview. There were 0.7% respondents with whom the interview was conducted in English. However, there might have a very small percentage (approximately less than 3%) respondents whose daily-used language were other dialects (e.g., Hakka, Chiu chow etc.) or other languages, we would allocate suitable interviewers to handle the case as far as possible. Nevertheless, no such case for this sub-group was encountered during the survey.

(5) The Dialing Results

The stopping rule was by the quota restricted by the required sample size and the total number of telephone lines dialed was 2,619. The composition of this figure was as follows:

Category	Frequency
Completed eligible interviews	422
Refused eligible units	105
Partial interviews	14
Non-eligible units	739
Non-contacted but known eligible units	145
Other non-interviews units: no answer, cut-at-once and problem lines	1,194
Total	2,619

The Cooperation Rate = $422 / (422 + 14 + 105) \times 100\% \sim 78\%$.

The average time spent for each call ~ 10 minutes.

JANUARY 2003 SURVEY – Old Respondents

(1) Introduction

The Computer-Assisted Survey Team (CAST) was delegated by the HTM to conduct a Survey on “Hong Kong Disneyland”. The data collection procedure was totally conducted in the telephone laboratory at GH301 of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

The CAST was responsible for setting questions into the computer system in Chinese and English, training of interviewers, administration of close-ended and open-ended questions, discarding of data files and materials after the survey, towards cleaning up the data, sending reports and data files to the contract buyer.

(2) Survey Period

Conducted on January 16, 2003 between the hours of 6:00 and 10:00 p.m.

(3) Sampling

Since the target population was the previous collection of respondents in last November Disneyland survey, no sampling method was required.

There were 124 out of 352 possible respondents who replied to this round survey. On the other hand, 11 refused to co-operate and 217 respondents could not be approached in the data collection evening due to various reasons (e.g. lines no longer subscribed or the target respondent was not-at-home).

Although there was no sampling method employed, necessary step of re-dialing of the ‘no-answer’ calls was performed in order to minimize the ‘non-sampling error’.

(4) Language Used

All of the interviews were conducted in Cantonese (100%).

(5) The Dialing Results

The stopping rule was by dialing all the 352 lines in which each line had been confirmed valid or invalid before giving up. The breakdown of dialing is as follows:

Category	Frequency
Completed eligible interviews	124
Refused eligible units	11
Other non-interviews units: no answer, cut-at-once and problem lines	217
Total	352

The Cooperation Rate = $124/(124+11) \times 100\% \sim 91.85\%$.

The average time spent for each call ~ 6.5 minutes.

* Source: Computer-Assisted Survey Team, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

APPENDIX B - Survey Questionnaire (English Version)



School of Hotel & Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Hong Kong Disneyland Survey

The purpose of this survey is to assess your opinions towards the development of Hong Kong Disneyland. We appreciate if you could spare 6-8 minutes of your time to complete this questionnaire. All provided information is used solely for academic purposes and your individual responses will be kept confidential.

Part I - Respondents' Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

We would like to ask you some questions about your level of AGREEMENT towards the development of Hong Kong Disneyland. Please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements *where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Disagree nor Agree, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree.*

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT/ DISAGREEMENT

	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
I attach great importance to having Disneyland in Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5
* I believe the benefits of HK Disneyland will outweigh the costs.	1	2	3	4	5
* I support the development of Hong Kong Disneyland.	1	2	3	4	5
The \$13.6 billion contribution by the Government for land reclamation and infrastructure works for the HK Disneyland project was a fair deal to attract the Walt Disney Co. to HK.	1	2	3	4	5
I would rate HK Disneyland as something I like even though it would destroy the environment, such as wildlife, water quality, coastline and natural habitat of Penny's Bay.	1	2	3	4	5
The government should ensure that the outcomes (or benefits) from the Hong Kong Disneyland project are fairly distributed across the community.	1	2	3	4	5
The recent media reports that the Walt Disney Company is thinking of developing another Disney theme park in Shanghai before the HK Disneyland project is a worry.	1	2	3	4	5
It would be unfair to have another Disney theme park in Shanghai as it will divert mainland tourists from HK Disneyland.	1	2	3	4	5
In case there are any losses from the operation of HK Disneyland, it should be equally shared between the Walt Disney Company and the Government.	1	2	3	4	5
There is a lack of transparency in the HK Disneyland deal.	1	2	3	4	5
The Walt Disney Company has been concerned with social responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II - General Perceptions of the Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland

The next questions seek your opinions about some of the CHANGES that are likely to be associated with the development of Hong Kong Disneyland at Penny's Bay, Lantau Island. Please let us know the **level of change** and how much you **like** or **dislike** the changes that will take place for the following statements.

ITEM	LEVEL OF CHANGE				
	Large Decrease	Decrease	No Change	Increase	Large Increase
The LIKELY CHANGES brought about by the Hong Kong Disneyland in the:					
Number of jobs in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
Revenue generated in the local economy.	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	1	2	3	4	5
Water quality at Penny's Bay.	1	2	3	4	5
Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	1	2	3	4	5
Influence of American culture on Hong Kong society.	1	2	3	4	5
Vitality of Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5
Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
Community spirit among local residents.	1	2	3	4	5

ITEM	LEVEL OF DISLIKING/LIKING				
	Dislike	Somewhat Dislike	Neither like nor dislike	Somewhat like	Like
The LIKELY CHANGES brought about by the Hong Kong Disneyland in the:					
Number of jobs in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
Revenue generated in the local economy.	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding of different people and cultures by local residents.	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunities to learn about other people and cultures.	1	2	3	4	5
Water quality at Penny's Bay.	1	2	3	4	5
Natural habitat of the Chinese white dolphins in the Lantau Island area.	1	2	3	4	5
Influence of American culture on Hong Kong society.	1	2	3	4	5
Vitality of Hong Kong.	1	2	3	4	5
Positive attitudes of local residents towards tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
Community spirit among local residents.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, I would rate the likely changes associated with the development of HK Disneyland as something that I ---	1	2	3	4	5

Part III - Influence of Direct Experience

1. Have you previously visited Disney theme park?

Yes No

If No, Go to Part IV.

2. How satisfied were you with your last visit to the Disney theme park?

<i>Very dissatisfied</i>	<i>Dissatisfied</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Satisfied</i>	<i>Very satisfied</i>
1	2	3	4	5

3. How influential was this experience in shaping your opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland?

<i>Little or no Influence</i>	<i>Some Influence</i>	<i>Quite a bit of Influence</i>	<i>Great Influence</i>	<i>Very Great Influence</i>
1	2	3	4	5

Part IV - Media Influence

1. How do you find out that Hong Kong will have a Disneyland theme park located at Penny's Bay?

- Media
- Friends, colleagues or relatives
- Government brochures/ information sheets
- Others (please specify: _____)

2. In general, how do you rate the media coverage of Hong Kong Disneyland?

<i>Negative</i>	<i>Somewhat Negative</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Somewhat Positive</i>	<i>Positive</i>
1	2	3	4	5

3. How trustworthy is the media coverage on Hong Kong Disneyland?

<i>Untrustworthy</i>	<i>Somewhat untrustworthy</i>	<i>Neither untrustworthy nor trustworthy</i>	<i>Somewhat trustworthy</i>	<i>Trustworthy</i>
1	2	3	4	5

4. How influential is the media in shaping your opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland?

<i>Little or no influence</i>	<i>Some influence</i>	<i>Quite a bit of influence</i>	<i>Great influence</i>	<i>Very great influence</i>
1	2	3	4	5

Part V - Influence of Social Interaction

1. Have you ever discussed the project with your friends, relatives or colleagues?

Yes No

If **Yes**, Go to question 2. If **No**, Go to Part VI.

2. How influential was your discussion with your friends, relatives or colleagues in shaping your opinions towards Hong Kong Disneyland?

<i>Little or no influence</i>	<i>Some influence</i>	<i>Quite a bit of influence</i>	<i>Great influence</i>	<i>Very great influence</i>
1	2	3	4	5

3. Did your discussions result in helping you form a more positive or negative opinions of Hong Kong Disneyland?

More positive
 More negative
 No change

Part VI - General Information

This section of survey asks for some background information about you, just for statistical purposes.

1. Sex : Male Female

2. Age Group : 15-19 yrs 35-39 yrs 55-59 yrs
 20-24 yrs 40-44 yrs 60-64 yrs
 25-29 yrs 45-49 yrs 65 yrs
 30-34 yrs 50-54 yrs

3. Are you or any MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD employed in a TOURISM OR TOURISM-RELATED JOB?

Yes No

4. Are you involved in any of the tourism interest group or environmental group?

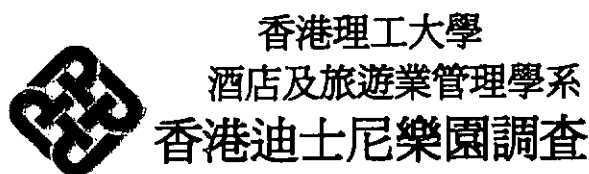
Yes No

If **No**, then end questionnaire.

5. Which group are you involved in? _____

Thank you very much!

APPENDIX C - Survey Questionnaire (Chinese Version)



為評估閣下對興建香港迪士尼樂園的意見，我們特此誠意邀請閣下進行以下的問卷調查。我們希望閣下能抽出六至八分鐘的時間去完成這份問卷。所得資料只供學術研究之用，並絕對保密。

第一部份 對香港迪士尼樂園的一般感覺

這部份我們想知道你對興建香港迪士尼樂園的同意程度；就以下各項，請指出你的同意或不同意程度：1=十分不同意，2=不同意，3=，4=同意，5=十分同意。

	同意 / 不同意程度				
	十分 不同意	不同意	普通	同意	十分 同意
我認為在香港興建迪士尼樂園是很重要的。	1	2	3	4	5
*我認為興建香港迪士尼樂園是利多於弊。	1	2	3	4	5
*我會支持香港迪士尼樂園的興建。	1	2	3	4	5
為了吸引迪士尼公司在港興建迪士尼樂園，香港政府提供一百三十六億元作為填海及基建的費用，這對香港市民來說是一個公平交易。	1	2	3	4	5
雖然香港迪士尼樂園會破壞環境，例如：野生世界、水質、海岸線及竹篙灣的自然棲息地，但我仍然喜歡它。	1	2	3	4	5
政府需要確保香港迪士尼樂園所帶來的結果或利益公平地分佈於整個社會各階層。	1	2	3	4	5
最近傳媒曾報導迪士尼公司正考慮在香港迪士尼樂園落成之前，在上海興建另一個迪士尼主題公園；對你來說，這是一個憂慮。	1	2	3	4	5
在上海興建另一個迪士尼主題公園是不公平的，因為這樣會把到香港迪士尼樂園的內地旅客轉移到上海。	1	2	3	4	5
如果香港迪士尼樂園在運作上有任何損失，這損失應該由迪士尼公司及香港特區政府合力承擔。	1	2	3	4	5
這項建設香港迪士尼樂園的交易欠缺透明度。	1	2	3	4	5
迪士尼公司過去一直有顧及到社會責任。	1	2	3	4	5

第二部份 對香港迪士尼樂園所帶來的影響的一般感覺

這部份我們想知道你對興建香港迪士尼樂園可能為大嶼山竹篙灣或整個香港所帶來的轉變的一些意見。就以下各項，請指出你對其改變及喜歡或不喜歡的程度的看法。

項目	改變程度				
	大大減少	減少	沒有改變	增加	大大增加
興建香港迪士尼樂園所帶來的轉變在於:					
香港的工作空缺數目	1	2	3	4	5
本港經濟的收益	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民對不同地方的人和文化的認識和了解	1	2	3	4	5
學習其他地方的人和文化的機會	1	2	3	4	5
竹篙灣的水質	1	2	3	4	5
大嶼山一帶水域的中華白海豚的自然棲息地	1	2	3	4	5
美國文化對香港社會的影響	1	2	3	4	5
香港的生命力	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民對遊客表示出正面的態度	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民的群體精神	1	2	3	4	5

項目	喜歡 / 不喜歡程度				
	不喜歡	頗不喜歡	沒有感覺	頗喜歡	喜歡
興建香港迪士尼樂園所帶來的轉變在於:					
香港的工作空缺數目	1	2	3	4	5
本港經濟的收益	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民對不同地方的人和文化的認識和了解	1	2	3	4	5
學習其他地方的人和文化的機會	1	2	3	4	5
竹篙灣的水質	1	2	3	4	5
大嶼山一帶水域的中華白海豚的自然棲息地	1	2	3	4	5
美國文化對香港社會的影響	1	2	3	4	5
香港的生命力	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民對遊客表示出正面的態度	1	2	3	4	5
本港居民的群體精神	1	2	3	4	5
總括來說，對於興建香港迪士尼樂園後所帶來的轉變，我表示—	1	2	3	4	5

第三部份 正面體驗的影響

1. 你有沒有曾經遊覽迪士尼主題公園？

有

沒有

(跳到第四部份)

2. 你對於上次的遊覽有多滿意呢？

非常不滿意

不滿意

沒有感覺

滿意

非常滿意

1

2

3

4

5

3. 你上次遊覽迪士尼主題公園的經驗對於你對香港迪士尼樂園的看法有多影響？

原全沒有或
少許影響

有些影響

有影響

很大影響

極大影響

1

2

3

4

5

第四部份 傳媒的影響

1. 你是從何得知香港將會有一個位於大嶼山竹篙灣的迪士尼主題公園？

傳媒

親戚、朋友或同事

政府刊物

其他 (請註明：_____)

2. 整體而言，你怎樣評價關於香港迪士尼樂園的傳媒報導？

負面

少許負面

中立

少許正面

正面

1

2

3

4

5

3. 你對於那些傳媒報導有多信任？

不信任

少許不信任

沒有感覺

少許信任

信任

1

2

3

4

5

4. 傳媒的報導對於你對香港迪士尼樂園的看法有多影響？

原全沒有或
少許影響

有些影響

有影響

很大影響

極大影響

1

2

3

4

5

第五部份 社會交際的影響

1. 你有沒有與你的朋友曾經談論此計劃？
 有 (跳到問題 2) 沒有 (跳到第六部份)

2. 你們的談論對於你對香港迪士尼樂園的看法有多影響？

原全沒有或 少許影響	有些影響	有影響	很大影響	極大影響
1	2	3	4	5

3. 你們的談論有沒有正面或負面的影響你對香港迪士尼樂園的看法？

- 較正面
 較負面
 沒有改變

第六部份 一般資料

這部份是向閣下查詢關於閣下的一些資料，你所提供的任何資料只作統計用途。

1. 性別： 男 女

2. 年齡類別： 15-19 歲 35-39 歲 55-59 歲
 20-24 歲 40-44 歲 60-64 歲
 25-29 歲 45-49 歲 65 或以上
 30-34 歲 50-54 歲

3. 你或你的家庭成員有沒有從事旅遊業/有關旅遊業的工作？
 有 沒有

4. 你有沒有參與任何有關旅遊或環保的自願團體或組織？
 有 沒有 (問卷完)

5. 團體/組織的名稱？_____

感謝你的幫忙!

APPENDIX D - T-Test Results of Variables Showing No Significance

Table a. Independent Sample T-test Results: Had Visited Disney theme park Vs. Had not Visited on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

	Group	N	Mean [^]	t-value	df	P
1. Support for the development	Visited	356	3.9	0.707	900	0.480
	Non-Visited	546	3.8			
2. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	Visited	348	3.8	1.286	871	0.199
	Non-Visited	525	3.7			
3. Economic Impacts	Visited	322	4.0	1.279	819	0.201
	Non-Visited	499	3.9			
4. Socio-cultural Impacts	Visited	323	3.7	-1.776	801	0.076
	Non-Visited	480	3.8			
5. Community Attitude	Visited	258	3.6	-0.264	647	0.792
	Non-Visited	391	3.6			
6. Environmental Impacts	Visited	285	2.0	0.893	700	0.372
	Non-Visited	417	1.9			
7. Overall Impacts	Visited	349	3.8	-0.070	887	0.944
	Non-Visited	540	3.8			

[^] Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Dislike to 5=Like.

Table b. Independent Sample T-test Results: Satisfied with their visit Vs. Dissatisfied with their visit on Perceptions towards Hong Kong Disneyland

	Group	N	Mean [^]	t-value	df	P
1. Support for the development	Satisfied	291	3.9	-1.421	304	0.156
	Dissatisfied	15	3.6			
2. Benefits of the project outweigh costs	Satisfied	282	3.8	-1.083	295	0.280
	Dissatisfied	15	3.5			
3. Economic Impacts	Satisfied	261	4.0	-0.159	273	0.874
	Dissatisfied	14	4.0			
4. Socio-cultural Impacts	Satisfied	263	3.8	0.101	274	0.920
	Dissatisfied	13	3.8			
5. Community Attitude	Satisfied	212	3.7	-0.109	219	0.913
	Dissatisfied	9	3.7			
6. Environmental Impacts	Satisfied	229	2.0	-0.101	239	0.920
	Dissatisfied	12	2.0			
7. Overall Impacts	Satisfied	288	3.6	-1.090	300	0.277
	Dissatisfied	14	3.8			

[^] Based on a 5-point scale where 1=Dislike to 5=Like.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed, S. A. (1986). Understanding Residents' Reactions to Tourism Marketing Strategies. *Journal of Travel Research*, 25(2), 13-18.
- Agence France-Presse. (2003, August 28). *Hot News: HK's PCCW Returns to Profit despite Drop in Local Market Share* [on-line]. Available: http://quickstart.clari.net/qs_se/webnews/wed/ct/Qhongkong-telecom-pccw.Rvu5_DaS.html
- Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' Attitudes to Tourism Development: The Case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 481-494.
- Aldenderfer, M. S., & Blashfield, R. K. (1984). *Cluster Analysis*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Allen, L. R., Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Kieselbach, S. (1988). The Impact of Tourism Development on Residents' Perceptions of Community Life. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(1), 16-21.
- Allen, L. R., Hafer, H. R., Long, P. T., & Perdue, R. R. (1993). Rural Residents' Attitudes towards Recreation and Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 27-33.
- Ap, J. (1990). Residents' Perceptions Research on the Social Impacts of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 610-616.
- Ap, J. (1992). Residents' Perceptions on Tourism Impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 665-690.
- Ap, J. (2000a, July). *Hong Kong Disneyland – Community Reactions and its Impacts on Tourism in the Pearl River Delta Region*. Paper presented at the Leisure and Entertainment Asia 2000, Hong Kong.

- Ap, J. (2000b, June). Understanding the Asian Respondent when Conducting Tourism Research: Some Challenges, Pitfalls and Tips. In N. Nickerson, R. Moisey, & K. Andereck (Eds.), *The 31st Annual Conference Proceedings of Travel and Tourism Research Association* (pp. 282-290). Boise, ID: Travel and Tourism Research Association.
- Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1993). Residents' Strategies for Responding to Tourism Impacts. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(1), 47-50.
- Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1998). Developing and Testing a Tourism Impact Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 120-130.
- Bastias-Perez, P., & Var, T. (1995). Perceived Impacts of Tourism by Residents. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 208-210.
- Belisle, F. J., & Hoy, D. R. (1980). The Perceived Impacts of Tourism by Residents: A Case Study in Santa Marta, Colombia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7(1), 83-101.
- Brayley, R., Var, T., & Sheldon, P. (1990). Perceived Influence of Tourism on Social Issues. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(2), 285-289.
- Breakwell, G. M. (1993). Integrating Paradigms, Methodological Implications. In G. M. Breakwell, & D. V. Canter (Eds.), *Empirical Approaches to Social Representations* (pp. 180-204). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Brougham, J. E., & Butler, R. W. (1981). A Segmentation Analysis of Resident Attitudes to the Social Impact of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(4), 569-590.
- Brunt, P., & Courtney, P. (1999). Host Perceptions of Socio-cultural Impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), 493-515.

- Bryden, J. (1973). *Tourism and Development: A Case of the Commonwealth Caribbean*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Butler, R. W. (1974). Social Implications of Tourist Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 2(2), 100-111.
- Bystrzanowski, J. (1989). *Tourism as a Factor of Change: A Socio-Cultural Study*. Vienna: European Co-ordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences.
- Caneday, L., & Zeiger, J. (1991). The Social, Economic, and Environmental Costs of Tourism to a Gaming Community as Perceived by its Residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 45-49.
- Census & Statistics Department of HKSAR. (2002a). *Hong Kong Statistics: National Income and Balance of Payments* [on-line]. Available: http://www.info.gov.hk/censtatd/eng/hkstat/hkinf/nat_account/nat_account_index.html
- Census & Statistics Department of HKSAR. (2002b). *Hong Kong Statistics: Mid-year Population Census* [on-line]. Available: http://www.info.gov.hk/censtatd/eng/hkstat/hkinf/population/population_index.html
- Chan, A. H. (2000). *Residents' Perceptions of the Economic, Social and Environmental Impacts of Hong Kong Disneyland, Lantau Island*. Unpublished Bachelor's Thesis, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR.
- Chesney-Lind, M., & Lind, I. Y. (1986). Visitors as Victim. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 167-191.

- Dann, H. (1992). Subjective Theories and Their Social Foundation in Education. In M. Von Cranach, W. Doise, & G. Mugny (Eds.), *Social Representations and the Social Bases of Knowledge* (pp. 161-168). Lewiston: Hogrefe and Huber.
- Davis, D., Allen, J., & Cosenza, R. M. (1988). Segmenting Local Residents by their Attitudes, Interests, and Opinions towards Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(2), 2-8.
- Department of Psychology of Monash University. (2003). Research Design and Analysis (RDA): Outliers [on-line]. Available: <http://www.med.monash.edu.au/psych/research/rda/Outliers.htm>
- de Rosa, A. S. (1992). Thematic Perspectives and Epistemic Principles in Developmental Social Cognition and Social Representation. In M. Von Cranach, W. Doise & G. Mugny (Eds.), *Social Representations and the Social Bases of Knowledge* (pp.120-143). Lewiston: Hogrefe and Huber.
- de Kadt, E. (1979). *Tourism: Passport to Development?* Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dogan, H. Z. (1989). Forms of Adjustment: Socio-cultural Impacts of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 216-36.
- Doise, W. (1993). Debating Social Representations. In G. Breakwell, & D. Canter (Eds.), *Empirical Approaches to Social Representations* (pp. 157-170). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Doise, W., Clemence, A., & Lorenzi-Cioldi, F. (1993). *The Quantitative Analysis of Social Representations*. New York: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

- Dougherty, K. C., Eisenhart, M., & Webley, P. (1992). The Role of Social Representations and National Identities in the Development of Territorial Knowledge: A Study of Political Socialization in Argentina and England. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29, 809-835.
- Duffield, B. S., & Long, J. (1981). Tourism in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland Rewards and Conflicts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(3), 403-431.
- Echabe, A. E., & Rovira, D. P. (1989). Social Representations and Memory. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 19, 543-551.
- Everitt, B. S. (1980). *Cluster Analysis*. New York: Halsted.
- Everitt, B. S., Landau, S., & Leese, M. (2001). *Cluster Analysis* (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fox, M. (1977). The Social Impact of Tourism: A Challenge to Researchers and Planners. In B. R. Finney, & K. A. Watson (Eds.), *A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific* (pp. 28-35). Santa Cruz: Centre for South Pacific Studies.
- Faulkner, B., & Tideswell, C. (1997). A Framework for Monitoring Community Impacts of Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5(1), 3-28.
- Fredline, E. (2000). *Host Community Reactions to Major Sporting Events: The Gold Coast Indy and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix in Melbourne*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Griffith University, Australia.
- Fredline, E., & Faulkner, B. (2000). Host Community Reactions: A Cluster Analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3), 763-784.
- Garland, R. (1984). *New Zealand Hosts and Guests: A Study on the Social Impact of Tourism*. Palmerston North: Market Research Centre, Massey University.

- Gamson, W. A., Croteau, D., Hoynes, W., & Sasson, T. (1992). Media Images and the Social Construction of Reality. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 18, 373-393.
- Gee, C., Makens, J., & Choy, D. (1989). *The Travel Industry* (2nd ed.). Melbourne: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Getz, D. (1982). *The Impact of Tourism in Badenoch and Strathspey*. Edinburgh: Highlands and Islands Development Board.
- Getz, D. (1994). Residents' Attitudes Towards Tourism: A Longitudinal Study in Spey Valley, Scotland. *Tourism Management*, 15(4), 247-258.
- Glasson, J. (1994). Oxford: A Heritage City Under Pressure. *Tourism Management*, 15(2), 137-144.
- Government Information Centre of HKSAR. (2002). *Hong Kong Disneyland: Background Information* [on-line]. Available: <http://www.info.gov.hk/disneyland/bi-e.htm>
- Gursoy, D., Chen, J. S., & Yoon, Y. (2000, June). Using Structural Equation Modeling to Assess the Affects of Tourism Impact Factors and Local Residents Support for Tourism Development. In N. Nickerson, R. Moisey, & K. Andereck (Eds.), *The 31st Annual Conference Proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association* (pp. 243-250). Boise, ID: Travel and Tourism Research Association.
- Gursoy, D., Jurowski, C., & Uysal, M. (2002). Resident Attitudes: A Structural Modeling Approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 79-105.
- Gunn, C. A. (1988). *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions* (2nd ed.). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

- Halfacree, K. H. (1993). Locality and Social Representation: Space, Discourse and the Alternative Definitions of the Rural. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 9, 23-37.
- Hall, C. M. (1994). Gender and Economic Interests in Tourism Prostitution: The Nature, Development and Implications of Sex Tourism in South-East Asia. In V. Kinnaird, & D. Hall (Eds.), *Tourism: A Gender Analysis* (pp. 142-163). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Haralambopoulos, N., & Pizam, A. (1996). Perceive Impacts of Tourism: The Case of Samos. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 503-526.
- Harrison, D. (1992). *Tourism in Less Developed Countries: The Social Consequences in Tourism and Less Developed Countries*. London: Bellhaven.
- Haywood, K. M. (1988). Responsible and Responsive Tourism Planning in the Community. *Tourism Management*, 9(2), 105-118.
- Hernandez, S. A., Cohen, J., & Garcia, H. L. (1996). Residents' Attitudes towards An Instant Resort Enclave. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(4), 755-779.
- Hong Kong Tourism Board. (2001). *A Statistical Review of Hong Kong Tourism 2000*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Tourism Board.
- Hong Kong Tourism Board. (2002). *Tourism Receipts: January to December 2001*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Tourism Board.
- Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Government. (1999). *Hong Kong Disneyland (press release)*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Government Information Service.
- Husbands, W. (1989). Social Status and Perception of Tourism in Zambia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 237-253.
- Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

- Jahoda, G. (1988). Critical Notes and Reflections on "Social Representations". *European Journal of Social Psychology, 18*, 195-209.
- Jaspars, J., & Fraser, C. (1984). Attitudes and Social Representations. In R. M. Farr, & S. Moscovici (Eds.), *Social Representations* (pp. 101-123). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, J. D., Snepenger, D. J., & Akis, S. (1994). Residents' Perceptions of Tourism Development. *Annals of Tourism Research, 21*(3), 629-642.
- Jolliffe, I. (1972). Discarding Variables in a Principal Component Analysis. *Applied Statistics, 21*, 160-173.
- Jolliffe, I. (1986). *Principal Component Analysis*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Joppe, M. (1996). Sustainable Community Tourism Revisited. *Tourism Management, 17*(7), 475-479.
- Jud, G. D. (1975). Tourism and Crime in Mexico. *Social Science Quarterly, 56*(2), 324-330.
- Jurowski, C. (1994). *The Interplay of Elements Affecting Host Community Resident Attitudes toward Tourism: A Path Analytic Approach*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg.
- Jurowski, C. (1998). A Study of Community Sentiments in relation to Attitudes Towards Tourism Development. *Tourism Analysis, 3*(1), 17-24.
- Jurowski, C., Uysal, M., & Williams, D. R. (1997). A Theoretical Analysis of Host Community Resident Reactions to Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 36*(2), 3-11.

- Keogh, B. (1989). Social Impacts. In G. Wall (Ed.), *Outdoor Recreation in Canada* (pp. 233-275). Toronto: John Wiley and Sons.
- Keogh, B. (1990). Resident Recreationists' Perceptions and Attitudes with respect to Tourism Development. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 15(2), 71-83.
- King, B., Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Social Impacts of Tourism: Host Perceptions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 650-665
- Ko, D. W., & Stewart, W. P. (2002). A Structural Equation Model of Residents' Attitudes for Tourism Development. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 521-530.
- Korca, P. (1996). Resident Attitudes towards Tourism Impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(3), 695-697.
- Korca, P. (1998). Resident Perceptions of Tourism in a Resort Town. *Leisure Sciences*, 20, 193-212.
- Lankford, S. V. (1994). Attitudes and Perceptions towards Tourism and Rural Regional Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(4), 35-43.
- Lankford, S. V., & Howard, D. R. (1994). Developing a Tourism Impact Attitude Scale. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 121-139.
- Lawson, R. W., Williams, J., Young, T., & Cossens, J. (1998). A Comparison of Residents' Attitudes towards Tourism in 10 New Zealand Destinations. *Tourism Management*, 19(3), 247-256.
- Lin, V. L., & Loeb, P. D. (1977). Tourism and Crime in Mexico: Some Comments. *Social Science Quarterly*, 58, 164-67.
- Lindberg, K., & Johnson, R. L. (1997). The Economic Values of Tourism's Social Impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 90-116.

- Liu, J. C., & Var, T. (1986). Resident Attitudes toward Tourism Impacts in Hawaii. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 193-214.
- Liu, J. C., Sheldon, P. J. & Var, T. (1987). Resident Perceptions of the Environmental Impacts of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 17-37.
- Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural Resident Tourism Perceptions and Attitudes by Community Level of Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 3-9.
- Madrigal, R. (1993). A Tale of Two Cities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(2), 336-353.
- Madrigal, R. (1995). Resident's Perceptions and the Role of Government. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 86-102.
- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). Group-Differentiated Perceptions of Social Impacts Related to Tourism Development. *Professional Geographer*, 44(4), 377-392.
- Murray, D. (1999, November 3). Chimney View to be Blocked, *Hong Kong Standard*.
- Martin, S. R. (1995). Montanans' Attitudes and Behavioral Intentions toward Tourism: Implications for Sustainability. In S. F. McCool, & A. E. Watson (Eds.), *Linking Tourism, the Environment, and Sustainability* (USDA Technical Report INT-GTR-323, pp. 69-76). Ogden, UT: US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station.
- Mason, P., & Cheyne, J. (2000). Residents' Attitudes to Proposed Tourism Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), 391-411.
- Mathieson, A. & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. New York: Longman.

- McCool, S. F., & Martin, S. R. (1994). Community Attachment and Attitudes towards Tourism Development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(3), 29-34.
- McGuire, W. J. (1986). The Vicissitudes of Attitudes and Similar Representational Constructs in Twentieth Century Psychology. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 16, 89-130.
- McIntosh, R. W., & Goeldner, C. R. (1990). *Tourism Principles, Practices, Philosophies*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1988). Social Impacts of Tourism on Central Florida. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(2), 191-204.
- Moscovici, S. (1973). Foreword. In C. Herzlich (Ed.) & D. Graham (Trans.), *Health and Illness* (pp. ix-xiv). London: Academic Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1981). On Social Representations. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), *Social Cognition: Perspectives on Everyday Understanding* (pp. 181-209). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1982). The Coming Era of Social Representations. In J. P. Codol, & J. P. Leyens (Eds.), *Cognitive Approaches to Social Behavior* (pp. 115-150). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1984). The Phenomenon of Social Representations. In R. M. Farr, & S. Moscovici (Eds.), *Social Representation* (pp. 3-69). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moscovici, S. (1988). Notes Towards a Description of Social Representations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 18, 211-250.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and Sustainability: New Tourism in the Third World*. London: Routledge.

- Murphy, P. E. (1983). Perceptions and Attitudes of Decision-Making Groups in Tourism Centres. *Journal of Travel Research*, 21(3), 8-12.
- Murphy, P. E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Routledge.
- Myers, J. H. (1996). *Segmentation and Positioning for Strategic Marketing Decisions*. Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Neuman, W. R. (1990). The Threshold of Public Attention. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 54, 159-176.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (1980). *The Impact of Tourism on the Environment*. Paris: OECD.
- Pearce, D. G. (1989). *Tourism Development* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.
- Pearce, J. A. (1980). Host Community Acceptance of Foreign Tourists: Strategic Considerations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7(2), 224-233.
- Pearce, P. L. (1982). *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behavior*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Pearce, P. L., Moscardo, G., Ross, G. F. (1991). Tourism Impact and Community Perception: An Equity-Social Representational Perspective. *Australian Psychologist*, 26(3), 147-152.
- Pearce, P. L., Moscardo, G., & Ross, G. F. (1996). *Tourism Community Relationships*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science.
- Perdue, R. R, Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1987). Rural Resident Tourism Perceptions and Attitudes. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(3), 420-429.
- Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1990). Resident Support for Tourism Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 586-599.

- Pizam, A. (1978). Tourism's Impacts: The Social Costs to the Destination Community as Perceived by its Residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(4), 8-12.
- Pizam, A. (1982). Tourism and Crime: Is There a Relationship? *Journal of Travel Research*, 20(Winter), 7-10.
- Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1986). The Social Impacts of Tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 11, 29-33.
- Preister, K. (1989). The Theory and Management of Tourism Impacts. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 14(1), 15-22.
- Punj, G. & Stewart, D. W. (1983). Cluster Analysis in Marketing Research: Review and Suggestions for Application. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20 (May), 134-148.
- Purkhardt, S. C. (1993). *Transforming Social Representations: A Social Psychology of Common Sense and Science*. London: Routledge.
- Ritchie, J. R. B. (1988). Consensus Policy Formulation in Tourism: Measuring Resident Views via Survey Research. *Tourism Management*, 9(3), 199-212.
- Robertson, C., & Crotts, J. C. (1992). Information Effects on Residents' Perception of Tourism Development. *Visions of Leisure and Business*, 11, 32-39.
- Ross, G. F. (1992). Resident Perceptions of the Impact of Tourism on an Australian City. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(3), 13-17.
- Rothman, R. A. (1978). Residents and Transients: Community Reaction to Seasonal Visitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(3), 8-13.

- Ryan, C., & Montgomery, D. (1994). The Attitudes of Bakewell Residents to Tourism and Issues in Community Responsive Tourism. *Tourism Management, 15*(5), 358-369.
- Saunders, J. (1994). Cluster Analysis. *Journal of Marketing Management, 10*, 13-28.
- Schroeder, T. (1992). Host Community Perceptions of Tourism's Impacts: A Cluster Analysis. *Visions in Leisure and Business, 10*(4), 43-48.
- Seid, S. B. (1994). *The Perceptions of Residents of Monroe County on the Impact of Tourism in Monroe County, PA*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University, Philadelphia.
- Sethna, R. J., & Richmond, B. O. (1978). U.S. Virgin Islanders' Perceptions of Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research, 17*(1), 30-31.
- Sharma, S. (1996). *Applied Multivariate Techniques*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sheldon, P. J., & Var, T. (1984). Resident Attitudes to Tourism in North Wales. *Tourism Management, 5*(1), 40-47.
- Sirakaya, E., Teye, V., & Sonmez, S. (2002). Understanding Residents' Support for Tourism Development in the Central Region of Ghana. *Journal of Travel Research, 41*(1), 57-67.
- Soutar, G. N., & McLeod, P. B. (1993). Residents' Perceptions on Impact of the America's Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research, 20*(3), 571-582.
- Stokowski, P. A. (1996). Crime Patterns and Gaming Development in Rural Colorado. *Journal of Travel Research, 34* (Winter), 63-69.
- Thomason, P., Crompton, J. L., & Kamp, B. D. (1979). A Study of the Attitudes of Impacted Groups within a Host Community Toward Prolonged Stay Tourist Visitors. *Journal of Travel Research, 17*(3), 2-6.

Tosun, C. (2002). Host Perceptions of Impacts: A Comparative Tourism Study. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 231-253.

Tourism Commission of HKSAR. (2002, October 25). Message from the Commissioner for Tourism [on-line]. Available: <http://www.info.gov.hk/tc/message/index.htm>

Tyrrell, T. J., & Spaulding, I. A. (1984). A Survey of Attitudes Toward Tourism Growth in Rhode Island. *Hospitality Education and Research Journal*, 8(2), 22-33.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1987). Measuring Resident's Attachment Levels in a Host Community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 25(3), 27-29.

van Doorn, J. W. M. (1989). A Critical Assessment of Socio-Cultural Impact Studies of Tourism in the Third World. In T. V. Singh, H. L. Theuns, & F. M. Go (Eds.), *Towards Appropriate Tourism: The Case of Developing Countries* (pp. 71-91). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Var, T., Kendall, K. W., & Tarakcioglu, E. (1985). Resident Attitudes Towards Tourists in a Turkish Resort Town. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 652-658.

Walmsley, D. J., Boskovic, R. M., & Pigram, J. J. (1983). Tourism and Crime: An Australian Perspective. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 13(2), 136-155.

Weaver, B. D., & Lawton, L. J. (2001). Resident Perceptions in the Urban-Rural Fringe. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(2), 439-458.

Williams, J., & Lawson, R. (2001). Community Issues and Resident Opinions of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(2), 269-290.