

THE ENVIRONMENT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

— A Systems Study

Zhen-Hua LIU

Submitted in fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Strathclyde

The Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde

May 1994

Copyright © 1994 Z. H. Liu

The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by University of Strathclyde Regulation 3.49. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.

IN MEMORY OF
MY MOTHER
WITH LOVE

ABSTRACT

Tourism is an open system. Tourism development is conducted in an ever-changing environment. The central task of development is to maintain a dynamic fit between the development opportunities determined by its external environment and industrial capabilities conditioned by its internal one.

This dissertation aimed to study the environment of tourism development at national level with a global perspective. By adopting the systems approach and inter-disciplinary methods, the nature, functioning, evolution and spatial distribution of the tourism system were first analysed in Chapter 2. The environment of tourism was partitioned into three distinct but interlocking levels: the internal environment, the operating environment, and the macro environment.

The study then focused on the examination of the macro environment, which was divided into five dimensions: economic, political, socio-cultural, geographical and technological. These interrelated dimensions were analysed respectively in Chapters 3 to 7 in the following fashion: first, the main variables in the special dimension were identified and categorised; secondly, the causes and extents of their influences on tourism were interpreted; thirdly, the patterns of environmental change and their future trends were

contemplated and predicted; and finally, the consequent implications for tourism development were highlighted.

Chapter 8 provided a comparative analysis of the various environmental factors and a holistic view about the interrelations between the tourism system and its environments. In Chapter 9, the key ideas and main findings of the study were reiterated and further developed into an integrated discussion of the principles of tourism development.

The study found that a pro-active approach to environmental management is essential in successful tourism development. Among the important issues to be researched in the future are: the codification and quantification of environmental variables, the reliable forecasting of environmental changes, and the dynamic interaction between the three levels of environment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The decision of embarking on the environment of tourism development as my dissertation topic was made in spring 1991 because two years' extensive reading revealed that this was (and still is) the most understudied issue in tourism research. The main investigatory work was carried out during the following year while the writing was completed in summer 1993. Certain changes were made to the dissertation after the viva voce on 1st December 1993. Now, before it is finally deposited in the University Library, I would like to acknowledge my gratitude to the many individuals and organisations without whose help I could not have accomplished such a complicated research project.

First of all, I must thank my supervisor Professor Carson L. Jenkins for his excellent guidance and effective supervision throughout the whole process.

I wish to thank all the staff and fellow research students at the Scottish Hotel School for their friendship. I would also like to thank the staff at the libraries of the University of Strathclyde, University of Glasgow, University of Wales, the Information and Document Centre at the World Tourism Organisation, and the British Library Document Supply Centre for their support in the supply of hundreds of books, papers, reports and government documents.

I am especially grateful to the State Education Commission of China, the British Council, and Sir Y. K. Pao Foundation in Hong Kong who jointly sponsored my doctoral study in the UK under the Sino-British Friendship Scholarship Scheme.

My gratitude goes also to the following people for their special support of various kinds: Mr. Yi Liu, Chairman of the National Tourism Administration of China; Professor Minglun He, former President of the Beijing Institute of Business; Mr. Dongcang He, former Minister of Education of China; Mr. Ping Hu, former Minister of Commerce of China; Mr. Lishen He, Director and General Editor of China Tourism News; Mr. Patrice Tedjini, Chief of Information and Documentation Section, the World Tourism Organisation; and Dr. Jafar Jafari, Editor-in-Chief, *Annals of Tourism Research*.

I wish to acknowledge my debt to the numerous authors in tourism and related fields from whom I have not only learned the fundamentals of tourism research but also drawn inspiration and material. My debt to them is only hinted at by references in the text. I am responsible, however, for the judgements made and for any errors of facts that may have escaped detection in my own checks.

Finally but above all, I wish to thank my wife Jie for all her love, understanding and encouragement which have made my life enjoyable and my study promising.

CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i	
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii	
LIST OF FIGURES	xi	
LIST OF TABLES	xiv	
Chapter 1	INTRODUCTION	
1.1	The Formulation of the Research Topic	2
	An overview of the tourist literature	2
	Major deficiencies in tourism studies	3
	Directions for improvement	7
	The formulation of the research issues	9
1.2	The Nature and Objectives of the Study	11
	The nature of the study	11
	The hypotheses of the study	14
	The objectives of the study	15
1.3	The Methodology of the Study	16
	The systems approach	16
	An Interdisciplinary method	20
	Causation and comparative analysis	21
	Qualitative and quantitative studies	22
	The presentations of the environmental analysis	23
	Desk research versus field work	27
	The selection of research material	28
	Limitations of the research methodology	29
1.4	The Organisation of the Study	31
Chapter 2	THE TOURISM SYSTEM	
2.1	The Tourism System	34
	The concept of tourism	35
	A systems model of tourism	36
	The features of tourism	38
2.2	The Functioning of the Tourism System	41

	Tourism demand	42
	Tourism supply	45
	Competition in tourism	50
	The performance of the tourism system	52
2.3	The Spatial Structure of the Tourism System	53
	The spatial distribution of world tourism	54
	The main international tourist flows	59
	The global centre-periphery structure	61
2.4	The Evolution of the Tourism System	62
	A brief history of tourism	63
	The growth of world international tourism	66
	Major factors conditioning tourism development	68
2.5	The Environment of the Tourism System	69
	The internal environment	72
	The operating environment	73
	The macro environment	74
Chapter 3	THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT	
3.1	Economic Level and Tourism Demand and Supply	76
	Economic development level	77
	Economic level and tourism demand	78
	Economic level and tourism resources	86
3.2	Economic Level and Tourism Management and Impacts	91
	Economic level and the nature of tourism development	91
	Economic level and government involvement in tourism	92
	Economic level and foreign involvement in tourism	93
	Economic level and tourism impacts	95
3.3	Economic System and Tourism Development	105
	Economic system and tourism development	105
	Economic development strategy and tourism	108
	Economic policy and tourism	111
3.4	Current Economic Situation and Tourism Development	116
	Economic cycle and tourism	116
	Inflation and tourism	118
	Economic structure and tourism	121
	Trade balance and tourism	123
	Exchange rates and tourism	124
	Energy supply and tourism	126
3.5	Future Trends in the Economic Environment	127

	The prospects of world economic growth	127
	Trends of other economic variables	130
3.6	Strategic Implications for Tourism Development	133
Chapter 4	THE POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT	
4.1	Political Structure and Tourism Development	139
	Political system and ideology and tourism	140
	Nationalism and tourism development	142
	Political structure and tourism development	144
4.2	Political Climate and Tourism Development	149
	Political instability and tourism development	150
	Changes in government	152
	Wars and political upheavals	153
	Terrorist activities	157
4.3	Legislation and Regulation and Tourism Development	159
	Legislation affecting all industries	160
	Legislation specific to the tourism industry	163
	Legislation specific to consumer and tourist protection	166
4.4	International Relations and Tourism Development	168
	Tourism in international politics	169
	International agreements and international tourism	171
	International organisations and tourism development	174
4.5	Future Trends in the Political Environment	176
	Trends in political ideology and situation	177
	Trends in legislation and regulation	180
	Trends in international relations	183
4.6	Strategic Implications for Tourism Development	185
Chapter 5	THE SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT	
5.1	Social Conditions and Tourism Development	191
	Social structure and tourism development	192
	Social mobility and tourism demand	194
	Hospitality resources and social events	196
	Social movements and tourism	198
	Leisure and recreation and tourism	199
	Lifestyles and fashion and tourism	202
5.2	Culture and Tourism Development	207
	The concept of culture	207
	National identity and ideology and tourism	208

	Attitudes toward consumption, work and recreation	210
	Morality and ethics and tourism	211
	Religion and tourism development	212
	Other cultural factors and tourism	214
5.3	Historical Background and Tourism Development	217
	The forms of history	218
	Heritage as tourist attractions	220
	Historical relations with other countries	221
5.4	Demographic Factors and Tourism Development	224
	Population size and tourism development	224
	Population structure and tourism development	225
5.5	Future Trends in the Socio-cultural Environment	237
	Social trends	237
	Cultural trends	242
	Demographic trends	243
5.6	Strategic Implications for Tourism Development	247
Chapter 6	THE GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT	
6.1	The Physical Settings and Tourism Development	253
	The natural environment and tourism development	253
	Topography and tourism development	255
	Scenery and touristic landscape	258
	Flora and fauna as tourist attractions	261
6.2	Climate and Tourism Development	263
	Climate and tourist attractions	264
	Climate and tourism seasonality	266
	Natural hazards and tourism development	267
6.3	Country Location and Tourism Development	269
	Location and accessibility in tourism	269
	Geographical situation and tourism	272
	Distance to main tourist generating regions	274
	Situation in the global transport network	277
6.4	Country Size and Tourism Development	279
	The measurement of country size	280
	Country size and national socio-economic background	281
	Country size and tourism resources	284
	Country size and tourism demand	286
	Country size and the importance of tourism in the economy	289
	Country size and the impacts of tourism	291

6.5	Future Trends in the Geographical Environment	301
	Changes in physical features	301
	Changes in global climate	305
	Changes in the relative location of countries	308
	Changes in the size of states	312
6.6	Strategic Implications for Tourism Development	312
Chapter 7	THE TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT	
7.1	Technology and Socio-Economic Life	318
	Technology and the economy	318
	Technology and everyday life	322
7.2	Technology and Tourist Attractions and Amenities	325
	Technology and tourist attractions	325
	Technology and tourist amenities	329
7.3	Technology and Tourist Access	331
	Technology and physical accessibility	331
	Technology and the time and cost of access	333
	Technology and the modes and patterns of travel	336
	Technology and access to information	337
7.4	Technology and Tourism Management	342
	Information technology and tourism management	343
	Technology and airlines	345
	Technology and tour operation	347
	Technology and travel retailing	349
	Technology and the hospitality sector	350
7.5	Future Trends in the Technological Environment	352
	The nature and patterns of technology development	353
	Future trends in technology development	355
7.6	Strategic Implications for Tourism Development	363
Chapter 8	SYSTEM AND ENVIRONMENT: THE INTERACTION	
8.1	The Tourism Environment: A Re-examination	371
	A checklist of the main macro-environmental variables	372
	A comparative analysis of the environmental factors	376
8.2	A Typology of Tourism Development Environment	381
	Classifications of environment	382
	A typology of the environment of tourism development	383
8.3	The Interaction Between Tourism and Its Environment	388
	A holistic view of the tourism-environment interrelation	388

	The dynamics of tourism-environment interaction	391
	A model of tourism development	395
8.4	The Management of Tourism Environment	398
	Attitudes toward environmental changes	398
	A pro-active approach for environment management	400
Chapter 9	CONCLUSIONS	
9.1	Strategic Issues in Tourism Environment	405
	Main opportunities and threats to tourism development	406
	The emergence of “New Tourism”	411
9.2	Fundamental Considerations in Tourism Development	413
	The role of tourism development	413
	The types of tourism developed	415
	The patterns of development	417
	The scale of development	418
	The pace and rate of development	419
9.3	General Guidelines for Tourism Development	421
	Development should be directed by effective policy and planning	421
	Development should balance all the related interests	423
	Government should play an active role in tourism	424
	Tourism development requires effective marketing	426
	Development should exploit the full potential of technology	428
	Tourism development requires human resource development	431
9.4	Further Research Directions	433
	An assessment of the current study	433
	A wider recognition of systems approach	434
	Three important issues for further research	435
	REFERENCES	438-505

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	System and its environment	6
Figure 2	The structure of the dissertation	32
Figure 3	A model of the tourism system	37
Figure 4	The spatial distribution of world international tourism	55
Figure 5	Shares of world tourism of major regions 1990	56
Figure 6	International tourist arrivals by region (1960-90)	57
Figure 7	International tourism receipts by region (1960-90)	57
Figure 8	Regional shares in world tourist arrivals	58
Figure 9	Regional shares in world tourism receipts	59
Figure 10	The growth of world international tourism	67
Figure 11	Annuals growth rates of world tourist arrivals and receipts	67
Figure 12	The environment of the tourism system	72
Figure 13	Holiday departure rate by annual household income	82
Figure 14	GNP per capita and holiday departure rate in Europe	82
Figure 15	Income level and tourism expenditure level	83
Figure 16	GNP per capita and tourism expenditure per capita	84
Figure 17	Share of foreign holidays in total holiday taking in Europe	86
Figure 18	GNP per capita and access to telephone and safe water	89
Figure 19	GNP per capita and hotel rooms/population ratio	90
Figure 20	GNP per capita and international tourism receipts	96
Figure 21	GNP per capita and tourism receipts per capita	96
Figure 22	GNP per capita and the share of tourism receipts in GNP	97
Figure 23	GNP per capita and the tourist trade balance	98
Figure 24	Economic development level and hotel employment	100
Figure 25	Indices of consumer prices and tourist prices	120

Figure 26	Indices of retail prices and hotel prices	120
Figure 27	The structural theory of hotel demand	122
Figure 28	Changes of GNP per capita of developing countries	129
Figure 29	Changes in the terms of trade (1974-92)	132
Figure 30	A hypothetical tourism life cycle	135
Figure 31	The effect of the 1989 political event on China's tourism	156
Figure 32	Response of tourist markets to the 1989 event in China	157
Figure 33	Potential wars in the world in coming decades	181
Figure 34	The sixteen Eurostyles in Europe	204
Figure 35	Lifestyles and travel motives and market segments	205
Figure 36	Historical ties and tourist movements between countries	223
Figure 37	The age distribution of world population by region	227
Figure 38	Holiday departure rate by age group	228
Figure 39	Holiday departure rate by place of residence in France	230
Figure 40	Changes in the UK household size (1961-91)	233
Figure 41	Changes in the main types of UK household	234
Figure 42	Percentage for taking at least one holiday by occupation	236
Figure 43	Holiday behaviour by occupation group in the UK	237
Figure 44	World population growth rate by region	244
Figure 45	The regional distribution of world population	245
Figure 46	Changes in the age structure of the UK population	246
Figure 47	The features of the "new tourists"	249
Figure 48	The share of wilderness areas of total land-area	261
Figure 49	The average size of large, medium and small countries	282
Figure 50	Country size and tourism expenditure per capita	289
Figure 51	Population size and the share of tourism receipts in GNP	290
Figure 52	Population size and tourism receipts per capita	293
Figure 53	Population size and the average tourist-host ratio	297
Figure 54	Territory size and the tourist density	299

Figure 55	Regions urgently needing protected areas	304
Figure 56	Road travel time between London and Edinburgh	334
Figure 57	Indices of average air fares in major tourist market	335
Figure 58	The role of information technology in hotels	351
Figure 59	The projected high-speed rail network in Europe	358
Figure 60	An example of a telecommunications service taxonomy	361
Figure 61	The relationship between tourism and its environment	390
Figure 62	The features and driving forces of “old” and “new” tourism	412

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Significant events by leisure and travel eras	70
Table 2	Holiday making patterns in the European Community	81
Table 3	Common tourism policy objectives and instruments	115
Table 4	The GDP structure by country groups	121
Table 5	Growth of GDP and per capita GDP by country groups	128
Table 6	The distribution of countries by population, area and GNP size	281
Table 7	Country size and the relative importance of domestic tourism	287
Table 8	Foreign travel participation rate in selected countries	288
Table 9	Estimated tourism income multipliers	294
Table 10	Country size and the size of the tourism industry	301
Table 11	Country size and the relative importance of tourism	302
Table 12	Trend-setting firsts in the hotel industry	330
Table 13	Features of travel products listed on CRSs and DISs	366
Table 14	A brief check-list of main macro-environmental variables	374
Table 15	The relationship between the environment factors and tourism	375

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Tourism development is a dynamic process which strives to match the industrial capabilities with the development opportunities. As the tourism industry is an open system, its capabilities and opportunities are determined by its internal and external environment respectively. A good understanding of its environment is essential in the successful development of the industry. However, tourism environment remains to be an unduly neglected area in tourism studies as there has no comprehensive research in this respect been published though there were scattered attempts in exploring its various aspects. An exploratory effort is made here to fill this gap. By adopting the systems approach and inter-disciplinary method, the study aims to examine the nature of the tourism environment and the mechanism of the interactions between the environment and the tourism system.

This introductory chapter identifies the research topic and the main issues of concern; discusses the significance and desirability of the study; formulates the hypotheses, aims and objectives of the dissertation; examines the nature, approaches and methods of the research; and outlines the organisation and structure of the study.

1.1 THE FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH TOPIC

It is sensible and logical for any research to start with the identification of a research topic and the formulation of research problems. It has been said that “the formulation of a problem is far more often essential than its solution” (Einstein & Infeld, cited in Pizam 1987:65). The general topic of a study may be suggested by some practical concern or by some scientific or intellectual interest. As no study starts from scratch, but rests on earlier ones and provides a basis for future ones, a review of the relevant literature is indispensable.

An Overview of the Tourism Literature

A review of the literature helps identify research problems and refine research ideas as well as possible hypotheses. It is commonly part of the ground-cleaning and preparatory work undertaken in the initial stages of research. A researcher “must be able to assess his ideas in the context of others and to replicate, extend, or modify them in terms of established thinking” (Adams & Schvaneveldt 1985:50). “Researchers that build their studies upon work that has already been done have a better chance of contributing to knowledge than those who start anew. The more links that can be established between a given study and other studies on a body of theory, the greater the scientific contribution” (Pizam 1987:65). Good research reviews are multi-disciplinary, in that relevant studies

from any social science discipline are covered, although some questions attract greater attention within particular discipline (Hakim 1987:18).

The development of tourism studies as a field of social science is something that has appeared in the last few decades. Despite their initial reluctance to consider the phenomenon of tourism (see, e.g., Cohen 1984; Matthews 1983; Mitchell 1979; Richter 1983), social scientists have now well appreciated the significance of tourism and embarked on the study of tourism. The increasingly greater interests in tourism research have been primarily stimulated by the rapid growth of global tourism since the Second World War and its consequent economic, social and environmental impacts. Jafar Jafari (1990) has identified four stages in the evolution of tourism study: the advocacy platform, the cautionary platform, the adaptancy platform, and the knowledge-based platform. Although it is impossible to offer an authoritative judgement on the achievement of tourism studies as the field is too vast and intricate to be easily summarised, an attempt is made here to identify some of the deficiencies in the field.

Major Deficiencies in Tourism Studies

Tourism studies are far from being a mature scientific branch. It is not yet underpinned by a strong conceptual and theoretical base. There is a shortage of theoretical, systematic and multi-disciplinary research and a neglect of environmental studies in

the field. More specifically, the following deficiencies in tourism studies may be identified:

(i) Case studies with insufficient generalisation and theoretical insight. Much research is descriptive in nature and many are simply field studies lacking in theoretical orientation (Cohen 1984). Most tourism research “is still confined to case studies and examples with little attempt to generalise” (Cooper 1991:xii) and “descriptive essays which assemble a collection of impressionistic and anecdotal material; and data analyses devoid of theoretical content” (Dann et al 1988:4).

(ii) Narrow focus with little comparative perspective. “Much of contemporary tourism research has brought a narrow focus to specific problems” (Romsa 1984:607). “Too many studies lack a comparative dimension, not only between countries but often between tourism and other sectors in an economy” (Jenkins 1991:276). As a result, the findings of these studies are too often problem and/or location specific without much theoretical contribution to the understanding of the common causes and effects of tourism development and much practical value in the wide application across industries and countries.

(iii) Lack of multidisciplinary studies. Tourism is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and a multidisciplinary field of interest (Travis 1982) but most research is conducted firmly within the social science disciplines with an unfortunate tendency to gloss over questions of theory and method and a concomitant failure to acknowledge their interrelationship. As

a result, "Too many studies are based on a single discipline" (Jenkins 1991:276-7) and "there has been little effort to integrate the work of researchers in different fields" (Matthews 1978:87). The present scarcity of interdisciplinary studies has been regarded as the basic methodological weakness in tourism (Towner 1988:56).

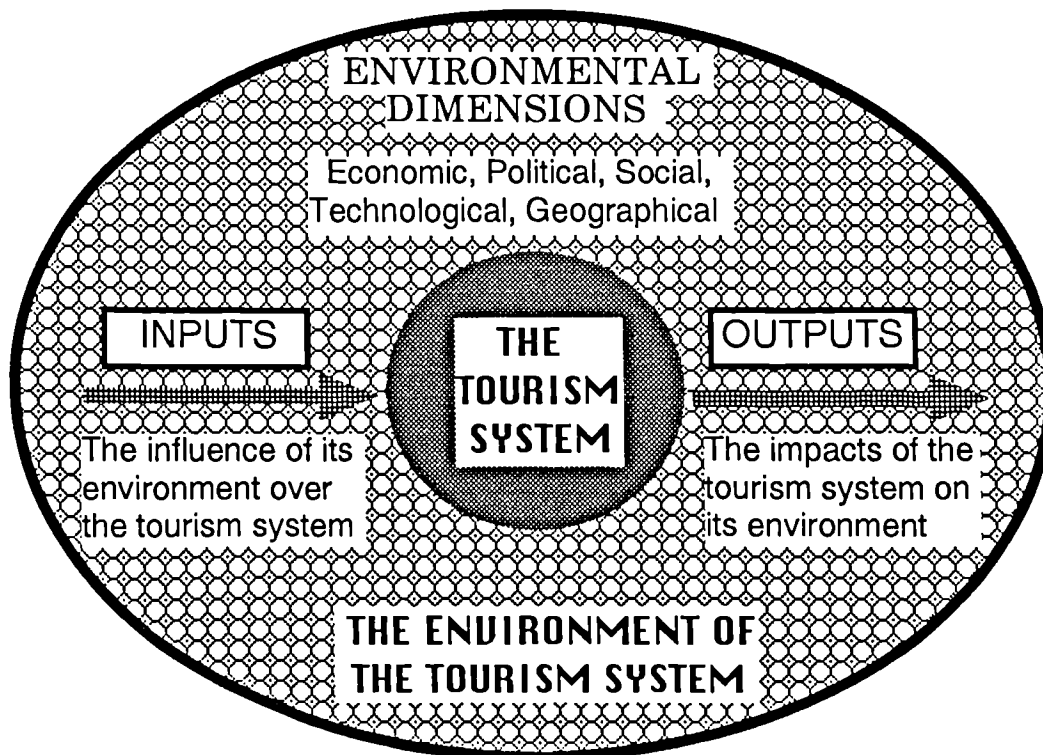
(iv) Independent piecemeal study. Most studies in tourism relate primarily to specific industry sectors and to the particular problems within the sector (Ritchie 1975:1). They have been conducted for special purposes and used narrow operational definitions to suit particular needs of researchers without encompassing a systems approach (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990:4). Some "models appear to have been developed independently of one another, with little or no recognition of or attempt to build on previous efforts" (Pearce 1987:5). Mitchell argues that this "proclivity to 'selectively mine' pristine tourism topics and to neglect the 'mass mining' of more normal or mundane subjects or areas" has led to the consequence that "the stock pile of research findings do not advance systematically but rather progress spasmodically and in a seemingly random fashion" (1984:6).

(v) Lack of standard definition and statistics. It has been pointed out that the existing body of literature largely consists of individual isolated studies utilising different definitions that were set up only to solve the immediate problem at hand and the lack of standard or precise definitions has hampered the development of travel research (Leiper 1979; Chadwick 1987;

Hunt & Layne 1991). Data collection or measurement has also been considered as one particular area of weakness of travel research (Ritchie 1975:1).

(vi) Lack of comprehensive environmental study. Most studies are focused on either the operation or impacts of tourism with little effort devoted to the study of the causes, condition and process of tourism development. Figure 1 briefly indicates the relationship between the tourism system and its environment. Clearly, any changes in the environment may affect the inputs, the process, and the output of the tourism system. The surprising neglect of the environmental issue in tourism development is one of the most serious deficiencies in the field.

Figure 1 The tourism system and its environment



Some of the “gaps” in the literature to date may be attributed to the complex nature of the tourism industry which is by nature diversified and complex in both demand and supply and the construction of a general theory of tourism is very difficult. It can also be attributed to the fact that modern tourism is a discipline that has only recently attracted the attention of scholars from related fields.

Directions for Improvement

It has been said that it is much more difficult for academic observers to suggest possible corrective measures than to identify weaknesses (Beaman & Meis 1987:35) and “there has been virtually no consensus on the direction research should take towards developing a unified and general theoretical structure” (Stabler 1991:16). Nevertheless, some general options (which are logically related to the deficiencies indicated above) may be considered in improving the quality of tourism studies. Generally speaking, there should be an emphasis in tourism research on a systems perspective, a theoretical orientation and trans-disciplinary approach.

(i) Towards more theoretical study. Theory is that body of logically interconnected propositions which provides an interpretative basis for understanding phenomena. Theory is clearly essential to any mature research as a healthy science is engaged in discovery, verification, comparison and generalisation. Empirical inquiry, even if it is organised by a high powered research methodology, is not in itself sufficient

for a scientific study of tourism. There is a need to look for general explanations or “rules” about the ways and process of tourism development (Lea 1988:10; Nash 1981:467). A better understanding of theoretical foundations can also lead to better empirical work. Indeed, modern social science itself is the culmination of a tradition that attempts to develop general laws for all times and places.

(ii) Towards more systematic analysis. The field of tourism study as a whole remains essentially fragmented and disjointed. “What is really needed for studying tourism is a systems approach” (McIntosh & Goeldner 1986:14). A systematic study of tourism will require a holistic examination of the various components and the environment of the tourism system and their dynamic interactions. This need has also been stressed by many writers in the circle, such as P. Pearce (1982), Husbands (1986), and especially Cohen (1979b:7) who calls for “systematic comparative studies which are specifically designed to examine the differential dynamics and impact of different types of tourism under different sets of condition”.

(iii) Towards wider use of multi- and trans-disciplinary approach. It has been argued that much of the most interesting and productive research work occurs at and across the frontiers between different disciplines (Barracough 1979:90-91). “What does appear to be evident is that there is a need to conduct further research and to employ a wider array of research methods” (Olsen 1991:229). The complexity of tourism study suggests that more than one disciplinary

viewpoint is required to conduct the necessary research. This should lead to calls for interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary research in which the problem rather than disciplinary orientation or boundaries is the overriding concern.

The Formulation of the Research Issues

After an extensive search of tourism literature, the author decided to embark on the environment of tourism development as the topic of the dissertation. This is certainly one of the most complex and understudied issues in the field of tourism studies, meanwhile it is such an important, useful and feasible topic that deserves systematic and comprehensive research. The merits of this topic are fourfold:

First of all, it is theoretically significant. The environment study of tourism is important because it examines the causes, conditions, opportunities and constraints of tourism development, and analyses the nature and mechanism of the interactions between the tourism system and its environment.

Secondly, it is practically beneficial. Tourism is an open system and tourism development is conducted in an ever-changing environment, a blend of economic, political, cultural, technological and geographical realities and events. The central task of development and business is to keep a dynamic fit between the development opportunities and industrial capabilities and that both the opportunities and capabilities of an industry are determined by its external and internal

environment respectively. Nowhere has the tourism industry lack of control and understanding been more apparent than in the domain of trends and events in its external environment. Environment analysis is an integral part of strategic management. A correct and accurate environmental study could contribute to an improved understanding and awareness of environmental changes and their implications to tourism development. It could also facilitate tourism practitioners and policy-makers in adopting a proactive approach in the monitoring and management of the environment.

Thirdly, it is understudied. Despite the importance of the issue, a comprehensive literature review discloses that virtually no serious attention has been given to the systematic study of the environment of tourism development since no single comprehensive research in this regard has been published yet. It is the author's belief that a relatively unbeaten track such as this offers wide research opportunities for accomplishing original findings and making significant contributions to the stock of knowledge.

Finally, it is feasible. While quite demanding and formidable, a study of tourism development environment is possible to accomplish with reasonable achievements since most aspects of the issue have been discussed by many writers from a variety of disciplines. Everything of importance has been said before by somebody who did not discover it. The main task here is to adopt a systems approach and study it holistically and transdisciplinarily by establishing a logical framework and

integrating the relevant research outcomes from different branches of social science as well as providing original theoretical reasoning and empirical evidence. Needless to say that this idea of organising a certain type of methodology which assimilates suggestions originating from related, but not strictly connected disciplines can be a daunting task.

1.2 THE NATURE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This is a systems study of the environment of tourism development. It is concerned primarily with the causal processes of tourism development and the main aim is to contribute to a better understanding of the mechanism of tourism development.

The Nature of the Study

This exploratory study is carried out with a strategic perspective and is concerned with the fundamental, long-term, overall issues in tourism development at the national level.

Strategy is a perspective, an ingrained way of perceiving the world. "A strategy is the pattern or plan that integrates an organisation's major goals, policies, and action sequences into a cohesive whole" (Quinn 1980:5). It is said to produce "principal" policies and plans (Christensen et al 1982) and to determine the "basic" long-term goals and key objectives

(Chandler 1962). Strategy is the “fundamental” pattern of resource deployment (Hofer & Schendel 1978). A well-formulated strategy helps to marshal and allocate an organization’s resources into a unique and viable posture based on an assessment of the organisation’s internal capabilities and shortcomings and external opportunities and threats from the environment (Mintzberg & Quinn 1991).

A recourse to strategy becomes essential when rapid and discontinuous changes occur in the environment of the organisation (Ansoff 1987). Strategic thinking involves intuition, creativity and synthesis. Strategic perspective enables a researcher to have a holistic view about and examine the most important issues in studying the environment of tourism development. It gives one an integrated outlook but not-too-precisely articulated vision of direction. It could prevent one from both fruitlessly attempting to investigate all and every factor related to tourism and lopsidedly and isolatedly tackle a few obvious but not always important variables.

The study is a macroscopic analysis of the environment of tourism development which is concerned with the macro-scale factors, relations and changes. It examines primarily tourism and its environment at the national level (with certain comparison with global and regional levels) and looks at its development as a whole industry rather than analysing specific issues encountered by various tourist enterprises. That is, tourism is here regarded as a system and the author’s focus is on the relationship between the system and its environment.

The internal elements of the system and their functioning are normally seen as a “black box”. For example, although competition between tour operators, travel agencies, hotels and airlines, is of critical importance in the management of these enterprises, it is out of the interest of the current environmental study.

The study is comprehensive in that it encompasses all the environmental dimensions in tourism development with a holistic and systematic analysis of their nature, trends and implications for tourism development. As the first comprehensive study in this regard, it is a piece of exploratory work since it is designed to be neither exhaustive nor conclusive, but rather suggestive and stimulating. The author attempts to establish a systems framework in analysing the environment of tourism development through which the different pieces of knowledge about the environment studied separately by different sciences or different branches of a science in different ways can be re-interpreted and integrated logically and applicably while retaining an overall unity of approach.

It should be stated from the outset that for the lack of accurate and complete data, of time to assess and assemble those available, and of space to present them, some statements are necessarily illustrative or speculative rather than conclusive and fully validated, specially the environment model formulated which is still at its early stage of development. Therefore, continuing and detailed research is indispensable to

confirm, elaborate and modify the findings and propositions presented in this study in order to develop them into a well-tested and sound theory of tourism development.

The Hypotheses of the Study

For a study such as this, it appears inappropriate to present a full set of specified hypotheses. Rather the following general premises have been introduced:

- As an open system, tourism is a composite part of the larger socio-economic system while itself is composed of many sub-systems. All the inputs and outputs of tourism are from and to its environment.
- All the opportunities and threats to tourism development are derived from the external environment while the internal environment determines the effectiveness and efficiency of the capitalisation and exploitation of the opportunities.
- The successful development of tourism requires to achieve and maintain an optimum fit between the development opportunity and the industrial capability.
- The situation and changes of the environment of tourism can to certain extents be scanned, measured, monitored, predicted and adapted to. A proactive perspective and strategic approach to environmental management is of paramount significance and beneficial in tourism

development.

The Objectives of the Study

This study attempts to identify the major external environmental factors influencing tourism development and explore the causes, forms and extent of these influences. It has also been carried out with an ambitious desire to discover some of the “laws” governing the interaction between the tourism system and its environment, by which is meant a statistical pattern that holds in a wide variety of places and circumstances. More specifically, the objectives of the study are as follows:

- To identify the major external elements which determine and affect tourism development (what).
- To discuss the relationships between the tourism system and its environment and explain the causes of the influences exercised by these environmental factors on tourism by theoretical reasoning (why).
- To describe and clarify the patterns and processes of the environmental impacts on tourism with empirical evidence (how).
- To construct an environmental analytical model with further quantitative measurement for academic research and a check-list for tourism practitioners to facilitate the

environment scanning and monitoring (to what extent).

- To analyse the historical trends and forecast the future changes of these environmental forces and identify the strategic implications for tourism development (what next).
- To suggest general principles to adapt to the dynamic environment and recommend relevant policies to maximise the opportunities and minimise the costs arising from these changes (what should be done).

1.3 THE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The scientific method is nothing more than thinking according to a set of rules. Research methods are important in the framing, designing and performing of research activities (Adams & Schvaneveldt 1985; Hakin 1987). Tourism research is commonly approached through a variety of methods and there is no clear superiority of one method over another. There is also no ready-made methodology universally acknowledged to be appropriate for a study of this kind, and there are many possible approaches reflecting differing aims and circumstances. The following methods have been adopted here as they are well suited to the purpose of the study.

Systems Approach

There are many factors affecting the development of the tourism industry and many complex interactions between them. The environment of tourism development has been, up to now, mainly approached by taking it to pieces and analysing them by different disciplines in isolation. This process is useful and necessary in the development of the field as a branch of science. However, in order to establish a more academic and theory based discipline, all the pieces need to be put back together to the environment totality, i.e. we need turn from analysis to synthesis. It is a formidable task as the selected pieces have been looked at in different ways, with different degrees of rigour, and different terminologies have been developed, so we may no longer recognise the pieces as being part of the original whole. Also, some of the pieces may have been overlooked in the process of analysis, because none of the specialist sciences regarded them as their concern. The real problem, therefore, is the lack of any true integration (White; Mottershead & Harrison 1984).

A fragmental and piecemeal approach is at best unsatisfactory and could not accomplish this task. What is needed to create a truly comprehensive and clear picture of the environment of tourism development is some sort of model or framework to show how the different pieces of environment can be reassembled so that the results of analysis of numerous authors could be incorporated in an integrated synthesis. Such a framework is provided by the concept of the system.

Broadly defined, a system is a set of interrelated parts. A system has elements or components which are interrelated and organised in some way. Each system element has a set of properties or states, each of which is termed a state variable. Any changes in one variable will finally affect the other variables in the same system. In that way a system functions as a whole. The state of a system is defined by the values of the state variables at a particular point in time. So the state of the tourism system in a country may be given by listing the values of variables such as tourist numbers, tourism receipts, the capacity of attractions, amenities and transportation, and so on, at a particular time. Changes in the state of the system between any two points of time reveal its dynamic function. The understanding of the level and process of development of a system can be achieved by knowing the initial and final states of the system and the sequence of intermediate states in order.

A system at any level is linked to both its component sub-systems and its larger, super-system, of which the system itself is but a component part. Therefore, the tourism system is composed by many sub-systems such as that of attraction, accommodation, transportation, tour operations, etc. and itself is a sub-system of the larger social, economic and natural system of the world. The boundary of a system separates it from the rest of the universe. State variables outside the system are exogenous variables, those inside the system are endogenous variables; they are commonly known as variables in the external and internal environments of the system. Most economic, social, and natural systems are open systems in

which both inputs and outputs can cross the boundary of the system and be exchanged with the external environment.

As all systems have a hierarchical structure in so far as they can be broken down into sub-systems, each of which in turn may be further subdivided into smaller sub-systems. Thus by discriminating system parts of sub-systems at different levels of resolution, a complex system is simplified in a logical and realistic way which avoids the bewildering bulk of information at microscopic levels. The process involves viewing the system through a “macroscope” which, instead of focusing on detail as a microscope would, has its maximum resolving power on the general structure of the whole system and can also zoom in and scan intermediary system parts (sub-systems) at intermediary levels of interest (Huggett 1980).

It is no surprising therefore that the systems approach emerged as the most appropriate and appealing method to the author for this study as it is holistic, general, and dynamic (Broclawik 1988; Jafari 1987; Sessa 1988). “The systems approach in general and particularly the concept of open, dynamic systems have the big advantage that they take a broader view rather than single-sided and isolated considerations. The concept represents an ordering concept that makes it possible to analyse, describe and synthesise different viewpoints from an overall perspective” (Kaspar 1989:443). It is not a new approach, however, for from its origin in physics it had already been assimilated by most of the natural sciences and many of the social sciences; there have

also been attempts in tourism studies to apply this approach in research (see, e.g., Leiper 1990; Mill & Morrison 1985).

By adopting the systems approach, the researcher examines the development of tourism as a dynamic process of interaction between the internal and external environments of the industry. Both the internal and external environment are the entirety of many components which can be analysed individually and as a whole.

As systems thinking is said to be integral, process-oriented, interdisciplinary, analytic and synthetic, and pragmatic, other complementary methods are also used in this study to accomplish its aims and objectives.

Interdisciplinary Methods

It has been claimed that the recent hue and cry for “interdisciplinary research” is a response to the collective unconscious realization that human knowledge does not come in pieces: to understand an aspect of nature is to see it through “all” the ways of imagery (Churchman 1971:198). Tourism is a multidimensional phenomenon that can be looked at from a number of points of view. The complexity of tourism development requires the adoption of an interdisciplinary approach by which theories and techniques are drawn from a variety of social science disciplines, including economics, politics, geography, sociology, history, behavioural studies, and others. However, the use and identification of these various

disciplines is not to underestimate the methodological difficulties in achieving a coherent approach as an indiscriminate use of different disciplines will almost certainly fail to accomplish the study. This study also presents an integrative approach that merges into a single model the many strands of tourism environmental theory that have accumulated over the years.

Causation and Comparative Analysis

There is, of course, no clear-cut and tidy division between two discrete categories, causes and effects: almost all the subjects we are dealing with can be considered as both causes and effects, interacting with the others in highly complex ways. In this systems study of tourism development, cause and effect, rather than being seen as merely a direct link between two variables, have been viewed as a web of complete and subtle interaction in which tampering with one cause-and-effect link may lead to unexpected effects in other parts of the system. Even so, some may be regarded as mainly “causes” in the sense that their future is sufficiently autonomous to be usefully predicted independently; while others may be regarded as mainly “effects” in the sense that their future can best be predicted as the consequence of changes in the “causes”. The establishment of significant findings and causal connections has been emphasised by some writers (Dann et al 1983). The current author has, therefore, as far as practicable, considered earlier the environmental factors which are more “causal”,

and used the results to help make forecasts later in the tourism sector which are more “consequential”.

There are numerous studies which drew attention to the emergence of the tourism industry and its development patterns but it is easier to acknowledge the existence of such patterns than to identify the causal factors which might provide an explanation of the phenomena. In identifying common determinants of tourism development, cross-nation and cross-time comparisons are useful and factor analysis indispensable. It is based on the assumption that there are causal factors upon which relationships between the variables cluster. Any development of tourism in any nation is only possible under certain conditions and its scale, structure, pattern, and performance are affected by a host of determinants which can only be clearly examined by a comparative approach.

Qualitative and Quantitative Studies

Although many cases and examples are introduced in the study, the intention here is not to catalogue the experience of nations world-wide, but to present empirical studies to support the theoretical arguments. The research aims to establish a logical framework of environmental analysis for tourism development with theoretical insights and qualitative analysis. Although qualitative analysis has not been given due attention, much of the best work in some social science has been carried out using qualitative methods and without statistical tests

(Collins 1984: 340). There have been calls for more qualitative research in tourism studies in recent years (Chacko & Nebel 1990; Peterson 1987).

It is also clearly desirable, wherever possible, to use figures to show relative orders of magnitude and differing degrees of probability. However, it would not have been fruitful to attempt to construct some grand model which would work out a numerical value for every variable at once. There are many areas in which there are few firm data available and there are many more where the relationships between the main variables are not reliably established. Hence the construction of a comprehensive mathematical model would have been a very considerable exercise and one which could not realistically have been contemplated within the framework of the present project. It was therefore necessary to concentrate on getting broad figures for the main variables and to see the relationships between them in terms of an informal model rather than a precisely calibrated one. It seemed better to put more emphasis on clear thinking than on elaborate calculation to ensure the validity of the findings.

The Presentation of the Environmental Analysis

The discussion on the five categories of the external environmental variables of tourism development — economic, socio-cultural, political, geographical and technological environments — are presented in the following fashion:

(i) Description. The first stage is to establish a vocabulary, definitions and categories of variables covering the key factors of the special sphere of tourism environment. Without definitions, accurate measurement and comparison are impossible to make. Empirical description is an important element in the study because it was felt that a factual foundation is an essential basis for exploring the characteristics of tourism and its environment. Successful tourism research requires for its foundation a detailed, comprehensive, and cohesive description of the current state of the system, how it operates, whom and what it affects and is affected by, and how.

It also involves the placing of bounds on the particular dimension of environment of interest which requires the separation of the one environmental dimension from the others. As the subject of this study is so wide it is not surprising that there are a large number of ways in which the boundaries of different environmental dimensions could have been drawn thus the definitions of the boundaries are necessarily arbitrary. The divisions adopted are, the author believes, valid and useful, though of course they are not the only definitions possible and, as with any attempt at classification of such a variety of complex and interrelated variables, they produce some difficulties.

(ii) Explanation. In the second stage, the relations between the tourism system and the main components of its external environment are discussed, which may take the form of theoretical equations, or simply correlation coefficients, or

basic logical reasoning. The questions of “why”, “how” and “to what extent” are answered, i.e., the causes, patterns and extents of environmental influences on tourism development are analysed. The explanation of the causal relationship between the tourism system and its environment is, nevertheless, often impossible to accomplish without the measurement of the changes of the variable itself and its effects on tourism. In particular, if the hypothesis is to be tested empirically with reference to factual data, the research variables should be somehow measurable.

The area of measurement has been identified as one of the major deficiencies in tourism research (Ritchie 1975). Indeed, “at present we do not even know what elements to combine in order to make a sensible measurement” (Harrigan 1974:23) and few have attempted to design an index or seem to have thought of operationalising and measuring variables. Since the ‘level’ of measurement (nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio) will very much depend on the type of data at hand. The lack of data and measurability of many of the environmental factors and their impacts on tourism development have also inevitably hampered much of the analysis here.

(iii) Prediction. Forecasting future developments on the basis of patterns, trends, and underlying factors that can be observed in the present situation is vitally important as an input to the strategic planning process for tourism development. Reliable tourism forecasts are not only essential for efficient operation

by tourist enterprises but are of great interest to governments in origin and destination countries (Witt 1980).

Prediction is also regarded as one of the criteria for evaluating the theoretical contribution of research. The theoretical awareness of a piece of research can be assessed in terms of the criteria of understanding, prediction, and falsifiability. "A theory that does not predict is one which fails to identify the strength and direction of relationships within a framework of probability propositions" (Dann et al 1983:10-11).

Prediction and forecasting is a difficult art because there are so many factors, many of them outside of the control of the industry itself, affecting the way the tourism industry will develop in the future and our understanding of the factors at work and their interrelationships is so limited. It is therefore wise and important to limit the coverage, simplify the complexities, assess the probabilities and highlight the key issues, so as to make analysis manageable, the study intelligent and the findings useful. This approach of tourism prediction has been widely used in a steady flow of studies on tourism forecasting by a variety of writers (see, e.g., Lickorish 1987; A Edwards 1988 & 1991; Bodlender 1990; WTO 1990; Hiemstra 1991; Schwaninger 1989; van Doorn 1991).

(iv) Prescription. Forecasts in themselves are of little purpose unless used for recommendation to management in determining development strategies and establishing policies of use. However, as the formulation of strategy and establishment

of policies require a series of normative judgements which are often influenced by political and cultural values, it is not possible for the author to recommend a set of universally optimum strategy for tourism development in all and every country. Accordingly, at the end of each environment analysis chapter, a discussion of the key implications of the predicted future changes for tourism development is presented instead to provide some significant strategic considerations for tourism policy makers.

In Chapter 9, some of the common policy recommendations are made in the hope of facilitating the policy-makers in capitalising opportunities and avoiding threats arising from environmental changes. The study is, however, primarily a objective rather than normative analysis since it tries to explain the mechanism of tourism development and its interaction with the external environment as they are, rather than as someone thinks they are supposed to be.

Desk Research versus Field Work

It would not have been practicable to undertake major new research in each of the different subject areas and the approach has therefore been to rely mainly on the information already available, i.e., the study is primarily based on desk research rather than on field work. Desk research, the analysis of available published data on various aspects of tourism environment proves to be appropriate for the study as its main information source and time- and cost-effective, though

questionnaires to seek “expert” opinion were also at one stage considered as necessary and beneficial. Whenever possible, the researcher tries to locate and make use of data already available. Although secondary research does not always supply all the necessary information to complete the project, it provides insight into the “information gaps” that must be closed through primary research efforts.

The Selection of Topics and Material

The researcher has been seeking and gathering extensively information relevant to tourism development during the last three years. However, since the space constraints forbade any attempt to provide an encyclopaedic account of the environment; since the tourism system is so complex in the sense that, if analysis is carried out down to microscopic levels, the system components are countless and the interaction between them enormously rich; no realistic researcher in tourism interested in the development of tourism at the national and global levels can hope to consider the behaviour and interaction of each and every tourist and tourist enterprise in the system. It has therefore been necessary to be rigorously selective in the range of areas covered, giving most attention to the key areas which are of particular interest, either because of their importance in their own right, or because of their influence on other areas; while other areas which seem less important have had to be treated more cursorily or even ignored altogether. However, the author hopes to rectify some of these unavoidable omissions in the course of further work.

Limitations of the Research Methodology

The systems approach used in this study is believed to be most appropriate for the task. It is, however, not without weaknesses and limitations. The main disadvantages of the approach in the context of this research appear to include the following:

First of all, the sheer complexity and structural richness of the tourism system and its environments are a formidable task to research on, which has been so far generally avoided by scholars in the field. Any serious attempt to research the tourism environment holistically will need to keep a delicate balance between breadth and depth in analysis. Without careful design, a researcher using systems approach may be easily trapped in superficiality.

Secondly, systems analysis usually involves the formulation of a model of a complex system which requires both the specification of real-world variables and statement of hypothetical relations among these variables. As any real system is characterised by an infinity of variables and different observers with different, or perhaps even the same, aims may make an infinity of selections (Ashby 1966), the detection of a system is up to the researcher and is thus subjective (Chadwick 1971). The grouping of the numerous environmental factors of tourism development into different categories is also a problem as they are extremely intricate and highly interconnected. Therefore, the definition of the boundary of the tourism system

and the classification of its environments are somewhat, even necessarily, arbitrary.

Thirdly, “while systems provide a useful framework within which to work, they are all too frequently intangible things that with maddening regularity retreat from the researcher—just as the bag of gold at the rainbow's end eludes the seeker after riches” (Chisholm 1975:36). As a research method, systems analysis should have both theoretical and empirical facets and for both theoretical models and field measurements and testing. It requires not only a framework for thought and the conveyance of explanation, but also quantitative mathematical models for prediction. In reality, however, especially in tourism studies, this is extremely difficult to achieve since many environmental variables and their interrelationships are not always possible to identify, clarify and quantify with accuracy at the current level of human knowledge.

Nevertheless, despite the above limitations, the systems approach is the best research method available for the current author in completing this study. No other approach could provide the feasibility of studying a tremendously complicated system like that of tourism in its totality and with a dynamic perspective. Both the frame of mind induced and the research prospects held out by the systems approach are richly rewarding. It must be seriously explored as the major methodological effort of tourism studies during the next few years.

1.4 THE ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

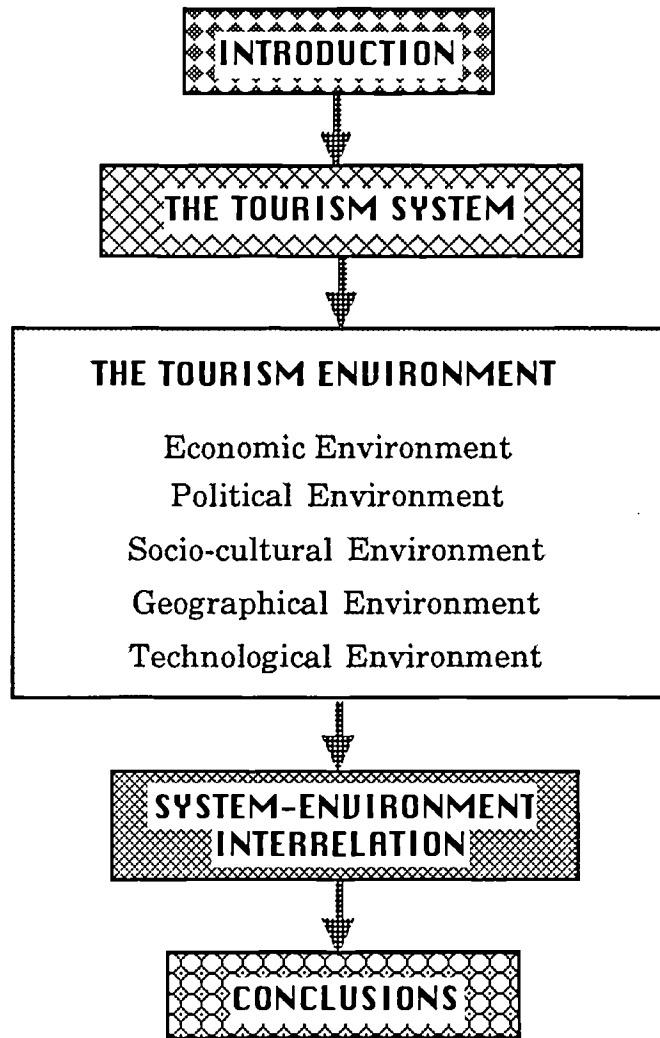
This dissertation is composed of nine chapters which can be grouped into five sections (as indicated in Figure 2). Part I is the introductory chapter which sets out the key features of the study. It deals with the research topic formulation, the objectives of the study, the research methods, and the presentation of the study.

Part II, Chapter 2, lays down the theoretical base of the study by constructing a model of the tourism system; discussing the composition and function of the system, in particular the nature and determination of tourism demand and supply and the interaction between them; analysing the spatial distribution and the historical development of the tourism system; and providing a preliminary discussion of the environments of tourism system.

Part III, consisting of Chapters 3 to 7, is the central and largest part of the dissertation in which all the major environmental factors are discussed under the headings of economic, political, socio-cultural, geographical, and technological environment. Each chapter is proceeded in the following fashion: first, the main variables in the special dimension of the tourism environment are identified and categorised; secondly, the causes and extents of their influences on tourism development are examined; thirdly, the patterns of environmental trends and their possible changes in the future are speculated and

forecasted; and finally, the strategic implications of environmental changes for tourism development are highlighted.

Figure 2 The structure of the study



Part IV, Chapter 8, provides a more integrated discussion of the interactions between the tourism system and its external environment. Beginning with a comparative analysis of the various environmental factors, the chapter introduces a new typology of tourism environment with reference to the diverse prospects of tourism development in various countries and

looks holistically at the dynamic interrelationship between tourism development and environmental changes. It also explores the approaches and techniques of the scanning, monitoring and management of tourism environment.

Part V is the concluding chapter in which the key ideas and main findings of the study are reiterated and further developed into a general discourse of the strategic considerations in and common guidelines of tourism development. It also indicates the directions of future research in order to gain an improved understanding of the dynamic relationship between the tourism system and its environment.

CHAPTER TWO

THE TOURISM SYSTEM

This chapter aims to provide the theoretical and conceptual base and general framework for examining the tourism development environment in subsequent chapters. It is divided into five main parts. First, a tourism system model was constructed, followed by an analysis of the industrial sectors and market behaviour of tourism. This leads to an analysis of the spatial characteristics of the global tourism system. Particular attention is also paid to the evolution and development of the tourism industry in the world. Finally, the environments of tourism development are identified and previewed.

2.1 THE TOURISM SYSTEM

Tourism is now the largest industry in the world, but there is still a lack of uniformity in both defining industry terminology and reporting comparable data partly due to the diversity and fragmentation of the industry itself. In tourism research, various definitions and concepts of tourism arise also from the multidisciplinary nature of the topic. "The use of the term tourism has led to a range of complex meanings which have

become associated with: the movement of people; a sector of the economy; an identifiable industry; services which need to be provided for travellers” (Gilbert 1990:5).

The Concept of Tourism

Different writers in the field appear to have different perceptions of tourism, thus there are very diverse definitions of tourism. “Tourism denotes the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during their stay at these destinations” (Burkart and Medlik 1981:319). “Tourism is the entire world industry of travel, hotels, transportation, and all other components, including promotion, that serves needs and wants of travellers” (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990:4). The tourist industry consists of all those firms, organisations and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists (Leiper 1979).

Nash (1981) sees tourism as a complex process that includes not only a host situation where tourists and their hosts come together, but also a home situation where visitors are generated and drawn to particular destinations. Wahab (1971) views this complex combination as a system that relates to the sociosphere and interrelated industries; others consider tourism as being “both an industry and a response to a social need: society’s adoption of travel as part of a lifestyle. The industry does not have a discrete image like other industry

sectors, partly because of its heterogeneity” (Powell 1978, cited in Chadwick 1987:55).

Tourism is here defined as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, governments, and host communities in the process of generating, attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors.

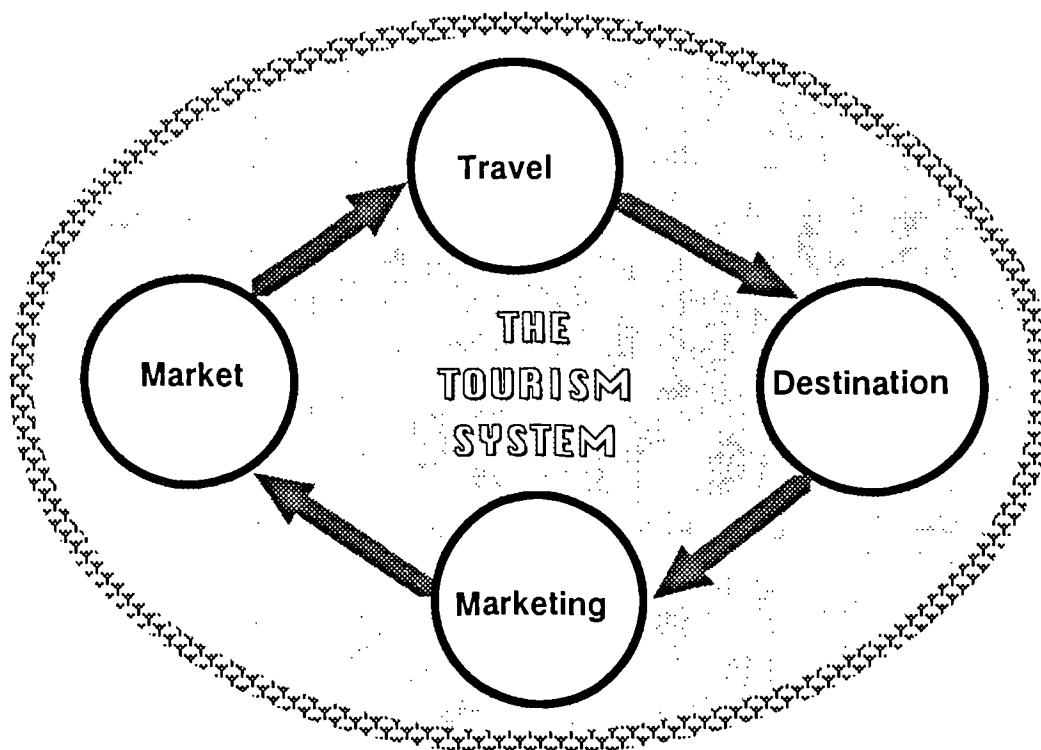
A Systems Model of Tourism

Tourism has often been argued as an activity or market rather than an industry, although tourism gives rise to a variety of industries (e.g., Kaul 1985; Mill 1990; SLJ Smith 1989; Plog 1991). Other writers choose to describe tourism as a system (e.g., Hudman & Hawkins 1989; Inskeep 1991; Leiper 1990; Mill & Morrison 1985; Wahab 1971).

The current author believes that it is beneficial to consider tourism as a system and a combination of activities, markets and industries. There is little doubt that tourism is a dynamic open system consisting of many interrelated sectors and firms which serve the tourist market. Whatever the terms used to describe it, tourism is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon; many varied but interdependent activities each make their own separate and individual contribution to a comprehensive service to tourists.

At its fundamental level, every industrial system consists of demand and supply, its two basic components. Many scholars in the field have also examined the tourism system from both demand and supply sides (e.g., Gee et al 1989; Gunn 1988; Murphy 1985).

Figure 3 A model of the tourism system



It is held that the tourism system is composed of four elements—the tourists of the generating regions, the transit routes, the destination regions, and the industry—which are interwoven in functional and spatial relationships (Leiper 1979; Mill & Morrison 1985). These elements have also been classified into demand, supply, linking and functional four components (Hudman & Hawkins 1989). Figure 3 is a brief

model of the tourism system which shows its four elements and the functioning process.

“The system is like a spider’s web—touch one part of it and reverberations will be felt throughout” (Mill & Morrison 1985:xix). Changes in demand, supply, access or marketing will inevitably affect the whole tourism system and successful tourism development requires that all the components function in harmony.

The Features of Tourism

Among the features of tourism, the following are some of the significant ones which can be readily identified:

(i) Perishability and intangibility (product). The tourist products are perishable in the sense that they cannot be stored for use at a later date. Without the ability to stockpile and achieve the flexibility to fluctuating demand that physical goods allow, the tourist industry is more seriously affected by seasonal and other fluctuations in demand. Intangibility implies that a tourist service is experienced, it is rendered, physical ownership cannot occur (Edgett & Parkinson 1993). The heterogeneity of tourist services and the potential for high variability in the performance also makes it difficult to standardise.

(ii) Inseparability (consumption). Tourist services are inseparable from the source that provides it in that the spatial

immobility of the attraction requires that the tourist travel to the destination to consume it, and that for many tourist services the consumption process occurs simultaneously with the production process. Moreover, the consumption of one tourist service is often inseparable from the consumption of another, i.e., there is no single identifiable form of consumption but a demand for a wide variety of goods and services and every tourist buys a package of tourist products.

(iii) Sensitivity, seasonality and transferability (demand). Tourist demand is highly seasonal and demand is influenced by a host of variables in tourist generating and receiving regions. Changes in disposable income, leisure time, currency exchange rates, political stability, fashion, even changes in the weather can affect demand. The wide selection of tourist products and the easy shifts of demand between destinations make competition intensive in the tourist market.

(iv) Diverse and fragmentary (sub-sectors). The tourism industry is seen as “fragmented” or as “an unorganised industry” (SLJ Smith 1989:12). It is a collection of separate industries, as de Kadt pointed out that “tourists purchase goods and services from a variety of industries... there is no such thing as a tourism industry analogous to industries as normally understood” (de Kadt 1979:x).

(v) Partially-industrialised (organisation). The tourism industry represents only a portion of the organisational resources used, and consequently, responsible for only a portion

of the impacts of tourism (Leiper 1990). For example, independent travellers often buy no service from tour operators; automobile travellers usually use no commercial transport services; VFR tourists normally consume little commercial accommodation services; and not all tourist attractions are commercially organised and promoted.

(vi) Small business dominance (industry structure). The tourist industry is exceptionally heterogeneous and combines large numbers of small businesses or self-employed persons (partly dependent on tourism) with large-scale companies though over time the industry has been subject to two major tendencies: internationalisation and concentration. The diversity and small size of many units make the formulation of any national plan by voluntary means impracticable and therefore uneconomic.

(vii) Wide involvement (participants). Tourism development requires the participation and co-operation of not only tourists and the various sub-sectors within the industry, but also that of government, local community and other industries. It also needs the involvement and co-ordination of all the above elements in tourist originating, transit and destinations areas.

(Viii) Multiple consequences (impacts). Tourism activities generate not only national income, foreign exchange and employment opportunities but give rise to wide repercussions on the social, cultural, political and physical environment, both directly and indirectly and both positively and negatively.

The above features of tourism require the industry to keep a sound and dynamic balance between demand and supply both spatially and temporally; between the different components of supply; and between the economic and non-economic benefits. To achieve this, the effective and efficient co-ordination and co-operation among the stakeholders and sub-sectors of the industry is indispensable.

2.2 THE FUNCTIONING OF THE TOURISM SYSTEM

An understanding of the functioning of the tourism system, that is, the interaction between demand and supply, is significant in the analysis of tourism development environment. Tourism demand in a society is determined by its population's ability to and the desire for travel and the social sanction of travel. The supply of tourism products is conditioned by the provision and marketing of tourism attractions, amenities and transport facilities. "Tourism development is a problem of matching naturally or historically given resources to the demands and preferences of actual or potential tourists" (Piperoglou, cited in D Pearce 1989:158). The interaction between demand and supply is complicated by the forces of competition from other destinations and other consumption items. The overall performance of the tourism system may be measured in terms of its economic, socio-cultural, and ecological impacts.

Tourism Demand

Demand can be defined and measured in a variety of ways and at a range of scales. In standard economic terms, demand is generally taken to mean the quantity of a good or service that consumers, in this case tourists, are willing and able to buy at a specific price in a given period at a particular place.

Demand in terms of the total level and preference is largely determined by generating countries' factors while the spatial distribution of demand will be most influenced by those in host destinations. Therefore, while general demand determines the size of markets, it is the choice or preference of demand related to products that conditions the structure and distribution of markets. The change in one destination's environmental factor will normally have little effect on the global level of tourism demand, but will certainly affect the demand to that particular destination.

Tourism demand is subject to numerous economic, social, demographic, political, technological and natural constraints, such as income level and distribution, relative prices, leisure time availability, lifestyle and fashion, population size and its age, occupation and spatial structure, government facilitation, political stability, changes in transportation means and networks, the location, size and the physical features of the country, etc. The magnitude of the effects of each factor is not identifiable. They influence the generation and distribution of

tourism demand in an amalgam. However, the economic factors especially income and prices are the dominant determinant of tourist demand (McIntosh & Goeldner 1986; Sauran 1978; Wahab 1975). The close association between changes in income and prices and tourism demand is well known and may be measured by the coefficient of income and price elasticities of tourism demand (Hollander 1982; Witt & Martin 1987, Martin & Witt 1988,1989; Wahab 1975). The significance of different economic determinants will of course vary depending on the markets, destinations and types of demand being considered (see, e.g., Guitart 1982; Gunadi & Boey 1986; Loeb 1982).

However, there is a dearth of reliable estimates of the precise nature and strength of the elasticity of demand for tourism. It is also suggested that any attempts to explain determinants of tourism demand without reference to motivations can only yield at best incomplete results (PL Pearce 1982; Mayo & Jarvis 1981). This is because the generation of tourism demand needs not only the ability to travel, but also the interest to do so.

Motivation is an inner state which energises channels and sustains human behaviour to achieve goals (Pizam et al 1979). Amongst the motivations identified are the following: the escape motivation, relaxation, play, strengthening family bonds, prestige, social interaction, sexual opportunity, educational opportunity, self-fulfilment, wish fulfilment, and shopping (Cohen & Taylor 1976; Crompton 1979; Mathieson & Wall 1982; Ross 1993). "The importance of motivation in

tourism is quite obvious. It acts as a trigger that sets off all the events involved in travel. In other words, it represents the whys and the wherefores of travel in general, or of a specific choice in particular” (Parrinello 1993:233).

The generation and realisation of tourism demand also depends on the supply of tourist services by the industry and the facilitation by governments. In many cases, the demand for travel generated by increased time and disposable income is tempered by a wide variety of obstacles which may act as barriers to individual travel or limit the aspirations of tourist developers. The obstacles to travel include the friction of distance, government restrictive measures, lack of access, political instability, health, information availability, family stage, lack of interest, fear of safety, and so on.

Demand and development are inextricably linked, though in a variety of ways. In general, the process of tourist development marks a continuing adjustment between supply and demand. The provision of tourist facilities and services may arise as a response to growing demand or aim to stimulate demand. Whatever the initial impetus, successful development in the medium and long term necessitates a matching of supply and demand in terms of range, quality, quantity and price. An evolution on one side of the demand-supply equation will usually be accompanied by changes in the other, whether this represents growth, stagnation, decline or some qualitative change. Moreover, the nature and extent of the demand and the associated facilities and services provided will also directly

influence the broader aspects of development (D Pearce 1989:108).

Tourism Supply

The various demand determinants push a tourist into a holiday decision while the supply variables pull the tourist towards a particular holiday destination. Tourism development is partly supply-led. "Tourism supply includes all that the tourist destination has to offer to its actual and potential tourists" (Wahab 1975:77). The creation of a viable, long term, sustainable tourist industry requires supply-side analysis and planning (Sadler 1983). However, "the economics of tourism supply has received little attention relative to tourism demand" (Sinclair 1991: 6).

As tourism is such a multi-dimensional phenomenon, it involves so wide range of activities that the boundaries or parameters of tourism, therefore, cannot be precisely marked out. Consequently, there has been a lack of an international, acceptable classification of the supply components of tourism, as indicated in the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) of all economic activities.

There is also no standard categorisation of tourism supply in the field of tourism research though various attempts have been made to identify those industrial segments applicable to tourism. For example, Gunn grouped tourism supply into transportation, attractions, services, and information/

promotion four components (1988:69); Middleton classified it into accommodation, attraction, transport, travel organisation, and destination organisation five sectors (1988:8); and Jafari approached it as a market basket of goods and services which includes accommodations, food services, transportation, travel agencies, recreation and entertainment, and other travel services (Jafari 1979:2). The United Nations identified seven industrial areas which could be regarded as belonging in different degrees to the tourist sector. These were accommodation, travel agents and tour operators, restaurants, passenger transport enterprises, manufacturers of handicrafts and souvenirs designed for visitors and related outlets, establishments providing facilities for recreation and entertainment of visitors, and government agencies concerned with tourism (UNCTAD 1971).

Tourism supply is here conveniently considered as consisting of the following “6As”— attraction, amenity, access, agents (tour operator and travel agency), advertising (marketing), and administration (management, development and control).

(i) Attraction. Attraction is the *raison d'être* of tourism which draws tourists to a given destination. Dean MacCannell defined “a tourist attraction as an empirical relationship between a tourist, a sight and a marker” (1976:41). In essence, tourist attractions consist of all those elements of a non-home place that draw discretionary travellers away from their homes. The elements of attractions may be grouped into three general categories: natural resources, man-made resources,

and social-cultural resources (Jafari 1979). "Attractions may also be defined in terms of the distance from which they are able to draw people. Attractions may be locally, state-wide, regionally, nationally, or internationally significant" (Mill & Morrison 1985:205). It is also worthwhile to emphasise that sometimes natural and historical features have intrinsic attracting power but for tourism, they are not truly functioning as attractions unless designed, developed and managed to do so.

(ii) Amenity (superstructure). This refers to all the facilities involved in servicing tourists in a destination including accommodation establishments (hotels, motels, holiday villages, camping areas, youth hostels, etc.); catering establishments (restaurants, taverns, self-service, etc.); and recreation, sports and shopping facilities. Although amenities are usually not the factors attracting tourists to a destination, the absence or inadequacy of amenities will deter tourists from travelling there.

(iii) Access (infrastructure). Access is here regarded as transportation, communication and all other components of general infrastructure. All types of development, require infrastructure and facilities which Burkart and Medlik (1981:23) refer to as "various forms of physical development which make an area accessible to tourists as well as to particular installations which provide for requirements of tourists in the area". These include the following: water systems; communication networks; health care facilities;

transportation terminals; power sources; sewage/drainage areas; streets/highways; security systems, and so on. Of particular importance is transportation which is considered as “the vital link in tourism” (D Robinson 1990). The attractions and facilities of a destination are not accessible to visitors until a basic infrastructure exists and the improvement in transportation means and networks has stimulated tourism since the early civilisation.

(iv) Agency (business organisations). This includes tour operators, travel agents, rent-a-car, excursions and sightseeing agents, special events celebration committees. The role of travel agent and tour operator in the development and promotion of tourism is well-recognised (see, e.g., Buck 1988; Burkart 1975). The tour operator’s main functions are primarily to reduce information and transaction costs for the consumer and to reduce promotional expenditures for suppliers. “The current mass package holiday market is based on travel agent distribution; in fact 94 per cent of overseas package holidays supplied by tour operators are booked through travel agents” (Foster 1990:149).

(v) Advertising (marketing). This includes all the major marketing functions including product development and packaging, pricing, distribution and promotion. In international tourism, effective overseas advertising and promotion are the key to inform the availability of tourist products in, create a favourable image of and stimulate travel flow to, a destination.

(vi) Administration. In this category, all the other supply factors are included. Some of the important elements here are the political commitment of government in, the financial incentives to, and the regulation, control and co-ordination of tourism development. As the tourist product is a “place” product, that is, the destinations itself, successful tourism development needs co-ordinated development of all the sub-sectors and the functions. Obviously, only effective and efficiency administration could bring tourism development in a destination to harmony.

All the components are interrelated with attraction as the core. Such interdependence implies a need for co-operative effort and common policies. A co-ordinated and balanced development of all sub-sectors is critical because the capacity of the tourism industry is determined by the capacity of the weakest components (the bottleneck). Therefore, the success of tourism development depends in large part on maintaining an adequate mix, both within and between these sectors. The balance between sectors can be expressed in terms of quality and quantity. Some typically unbalanced situations in tourism are as follows: (a) low level of tourism resources mobilisation and attraction development which is often associated with underdeveloped tourist destinations; (b) oversupply of accommodation and other tourist facilities which leads to low occupancy rates and is often related to overdeveloped and stagnant destinations; (c) inadequate access and amenities which is normally found in newly opened and rapidly growing

destinations; (d) poor marketing and the consequent poor image and inadequate information provision which is often common in the early stages of tourism development; and (e) mismanagement and administration which often results in unbalanced development and poor performance and is normally found in destinations lacking the involvement of a committed and capable government.

Competition in Tourism

Although the travelling public may regard holidays as a near essential part of consumer expenditure, tourist destinations cannot take business for granted due to increasing competition both directly from newly developed destinations and indirectly from other leisure products, and consumer durables. This is underlined by the fact that while the income elasticity of demand for tourism may be strongly positive in the long term, in the short term total demand is (almost) fixed. Therefore, the task of each destination is competing with each other to get a larger share in the global tourist market at others' expense.

The nature and situation of competition in the tourism market has not been given due attention in tourism studies though there are a few attempts in this regard (see, e.g., CEC 1985; Hurdle et al 1990; Reichel 1986; Tse & Crawford-Welch 1989). Michael Porter (1980) views competition within an industry as including the following five forces: threat of new entry, rivalry among competitors, pressure of substitutes, bargaining power of buyers, and bargaining power of suppliers. In the

global tourism market, competition is also multi-dimensional which consists of the competition between destinations, between tourist enterprises, between substitute industries, between tourist firms and tourists, between tourist firms and their inputs suppliers.

The nature and intensity of competition depend primarily upon the structure of the market, i.e., whether the industry is a perfectly competitive, imperfectly competitive, oligopolistic, or monopolistic one. The examination of competition in the travel trade, has clearly shown the domination in the tour operating sector, which is not yet present to the same degree in the travel retail sector, by the “few” companies (Eadington & Redman 1991; Sheldon 1986:349). The implications of an oligopolistic tour operating sector is that the larger companies can dictate prices offered and product quality, and in that sense control the industry.

The means through which the components interact within markets is through the price mechanism. Without pricing neither the producer nor the consumer can pursue their various optimisation strategies. Without pricing there is no competitive market and no exchange principle can operate. Although price is normally seen as the key in competition manipulation, market segmentation and product differentiation are also be very effective and viable means in global competition. Indeed, competition through creating a unique image and providing products tailor-made for the target market is often more effective than that relying solely

on price reduction to promote undifferentiated travel products (Rosensweig 1988).

The Performance of the Tourism System

The performance of the tourism system may be examined by its output-input transformation ratios, such as profit rates, labour productivity and resource use efficiency. However, it is most often studied in a wider sense by measuring its direct, indirect and induced impacts on the economic, social, and natural environments.

Tourism impacts have attracted most attention from tourism researchers, and the “impact” literature is now reasonably well established (Johnson & Thomas 1992:11). It is well known that tourism generates national income, foreign exchange, employment opportunities and contributes to regional development directly and through its multiplier effects (Archer 1977; Baretje 1982; CTRC 1984; Fleming & Toepper 1990; Frechtling 1987; Mathieson & Wall 1982; WTO 1983a).

As to the social and cultural impacts of tourism, most findings indicate that tourism contributed to the preservation and restoration of cultural heritage but also give rise to changes in social values, strong demonstration effects, and the commercialisation of culture (Bystrzanowski 1989; UNESCO 1976; McElroy & Alburqueque 1986; Furnham 1984; Gormsen 1985; D Harrison 1992; Jafari 1989; Wood 1980). There have also widely reported ecological impacts, both positive and

negative, of tourism (Green & Hunter 1992; Holder 1991; OECD 1981; WTO/UNEP 1983).

Internationally, tourism contributes to the understanding, integration and co-operation between countries (Curry 1978; Knelman 1990; Mings 1988) and often leads to increasing dependency of less developed destinations on developed generating countries (Francisco 1983; Wellings & Crush 1983).

2.3 THE SPATIAL STRUCTURE OF TOURISM

Spatial and locational factors play a large part in the development of any industries. It is especially true in tourism which involves the movement of people across the surface of the earth to and from destinations. Studies of the flows of tourists in the world is an interesting problem in its own right and also is a possible means for gaining insights into the global patterns of tourism development as well as tourist origination and distribution. There have been some attempts to examine the international tourist movements by a geographic approach (Barrier 1989; Britton 1991; Hudman 1979; Leiper 1989; Matley 1976; Mitchell 1987; D Pearce 1987; Williams & Zelinsky 1970). This section deals with the general pattern of the global distribution of tourism development and identifies and explains briefly the causes and implications of the uneven development of tourism in the world.

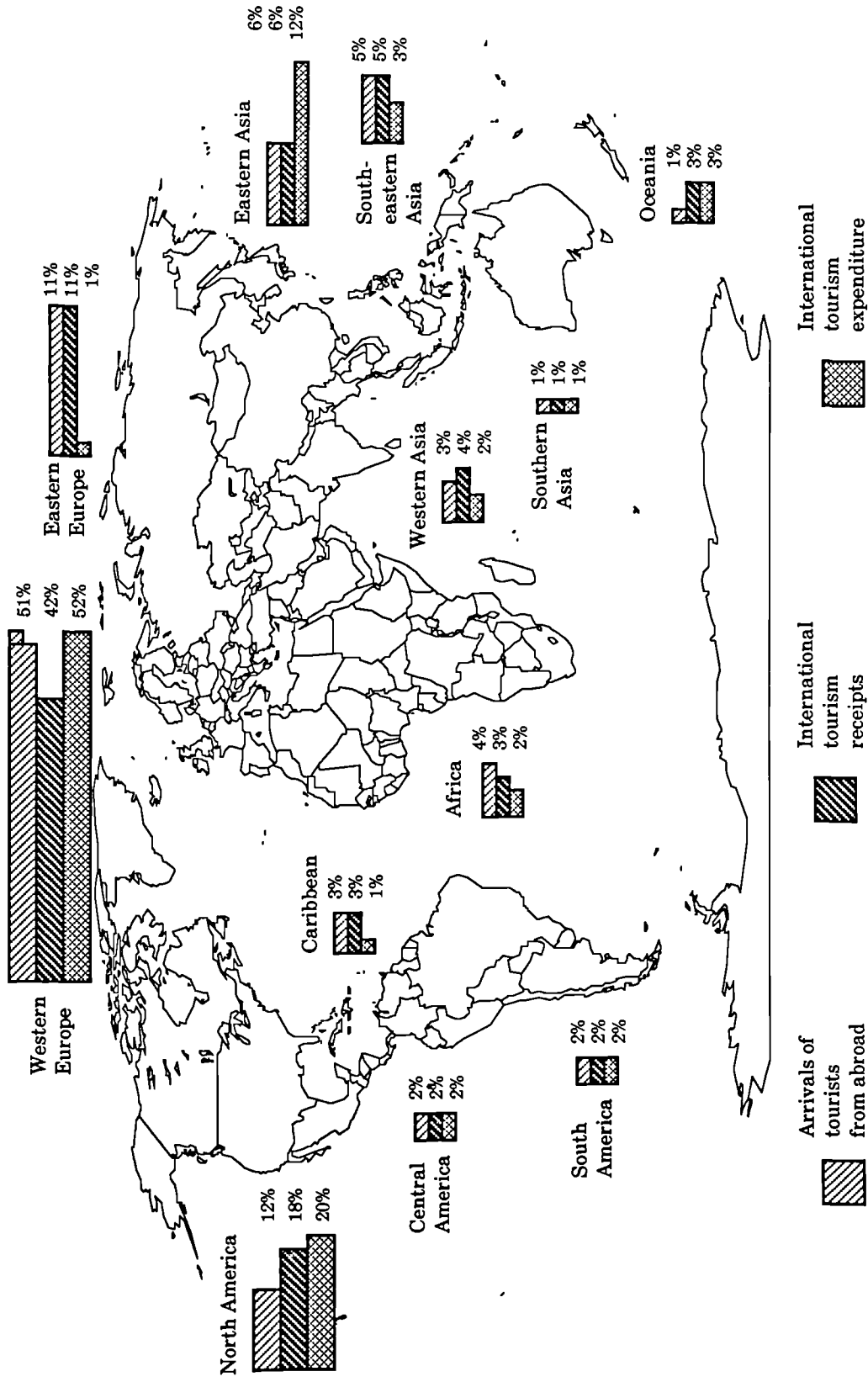
The Spatial Distribution of World Tourism

There is quite obviously an uneven spatial distribution of international tourist activities. Tourism demand is correlated with affluence across space and time. After decades' rapid growth and democratisation, travel participation has been extended from a few affluent individuals to a few affluent nations. Therefore, while travel is still a discretionary or luxury goods in the developing world, it has been a mass consumption item in most developed countries.

The global concentration of tourist activities could be demonstrated by the facts that Europe and North America represented about 74 percent of all international arrivals, 71 percent of receipts, and 72 percent of expenditures in 1990 (see Figure 4). Whereas the other regions, with vast land area and large population, accounted for some a quarter of the global tourism activities and output. Figure 5 shows the share of the five continents in the global tourism market in 1990.

A time series analysis reveals, however, that the dominant role of Europe and North America in the world tourism market has been declining. In terms of international tourist arrivals, for instance, its share of the world total has been reduced from 93 percent in 1960 to the 74 percent in 1990. The developing countries and regions, on the other hand, have shown a higher rate of growth and gained slightly over the period in both absolute and relative terms. Because of the lower base, however, the percentage increase in relation to global totals has

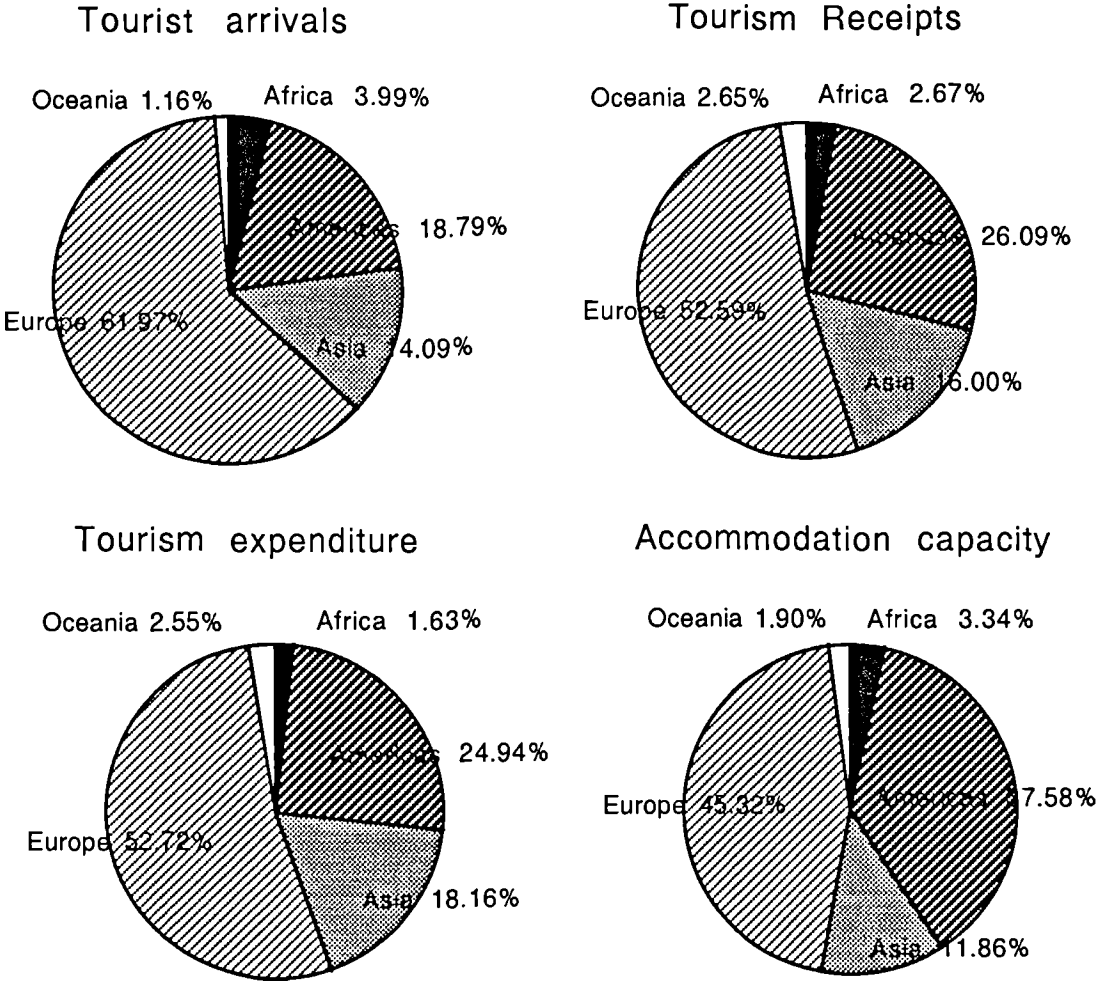
Figure 4 The spatial distribution of world international tourism (1990)



Source: data from WTO (1992).

been somewhat marginal and the vast majority of world tourism is still received by industrial market economies.

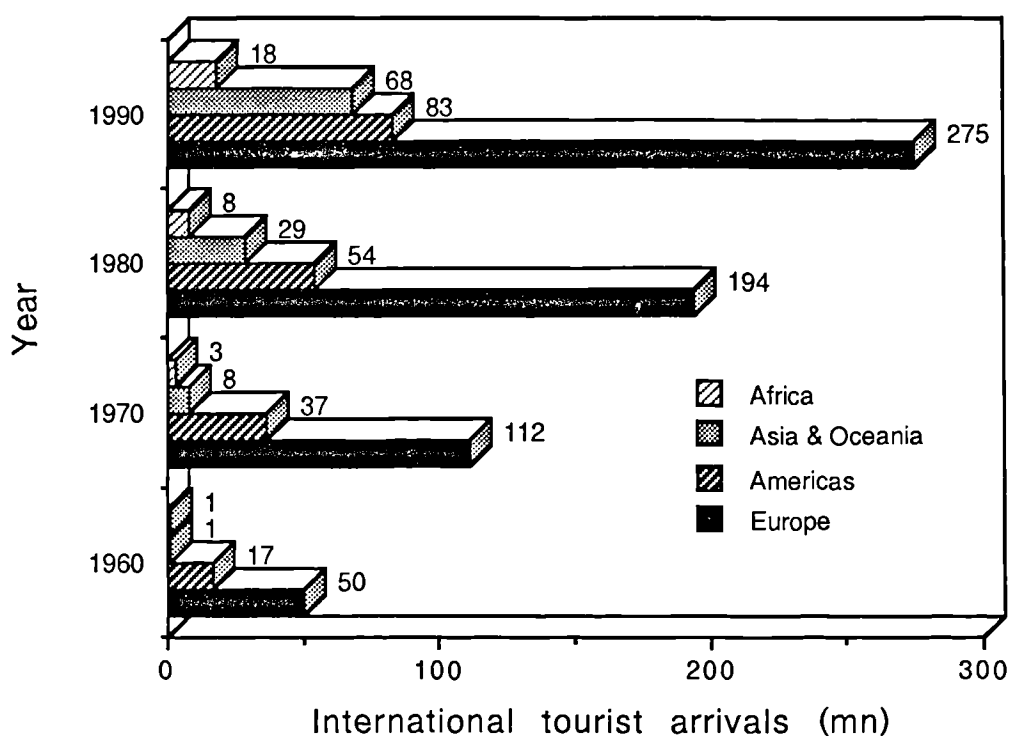
Figure 5 Share of world tourism by region (1990)



Source: data from WTO (1992).

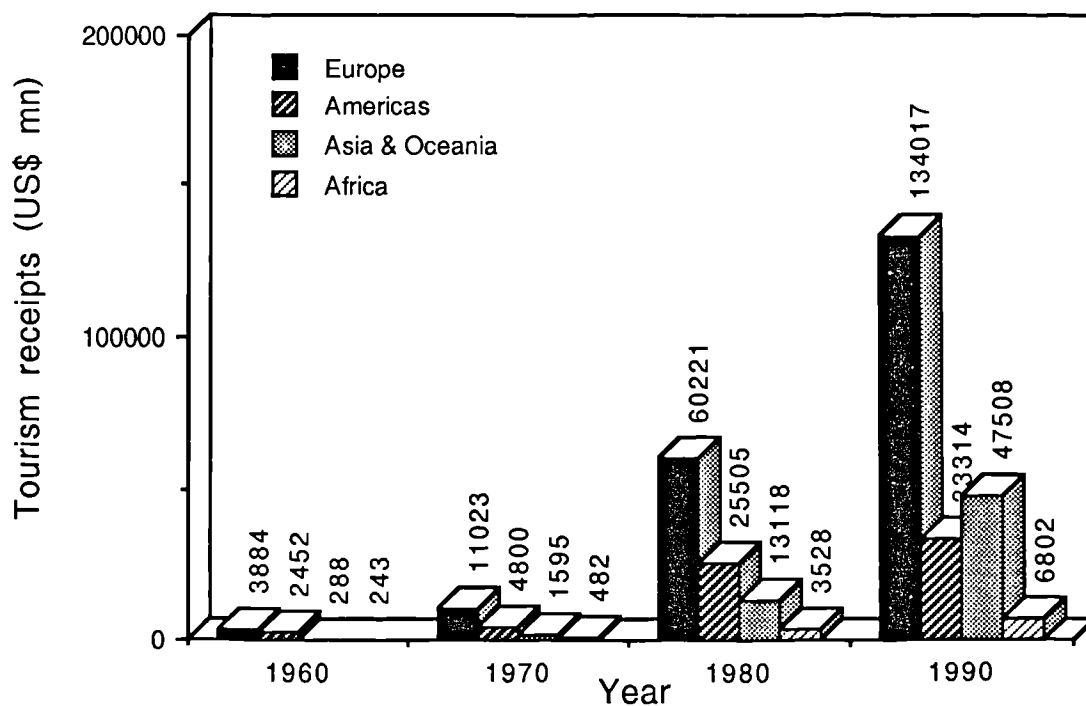
A close comparison between the developing regions indicates that between 1960 and 1990, the share of the world tourist arrivals from abroad in Africa increased from 1.49 to 3.99 percent, in Latin America, from 3.90 to 6.39 percent, and in Asia and Oceania increased rapidly from 2.08 to 15.25 percent. In terms of the share of global tourism receipts, only Asia and

Figure 6 International tourist arrivals by region (1960-1990)



Source: data from WTO (1992).

Figure 7 International tourism receipts by region (1960-90)

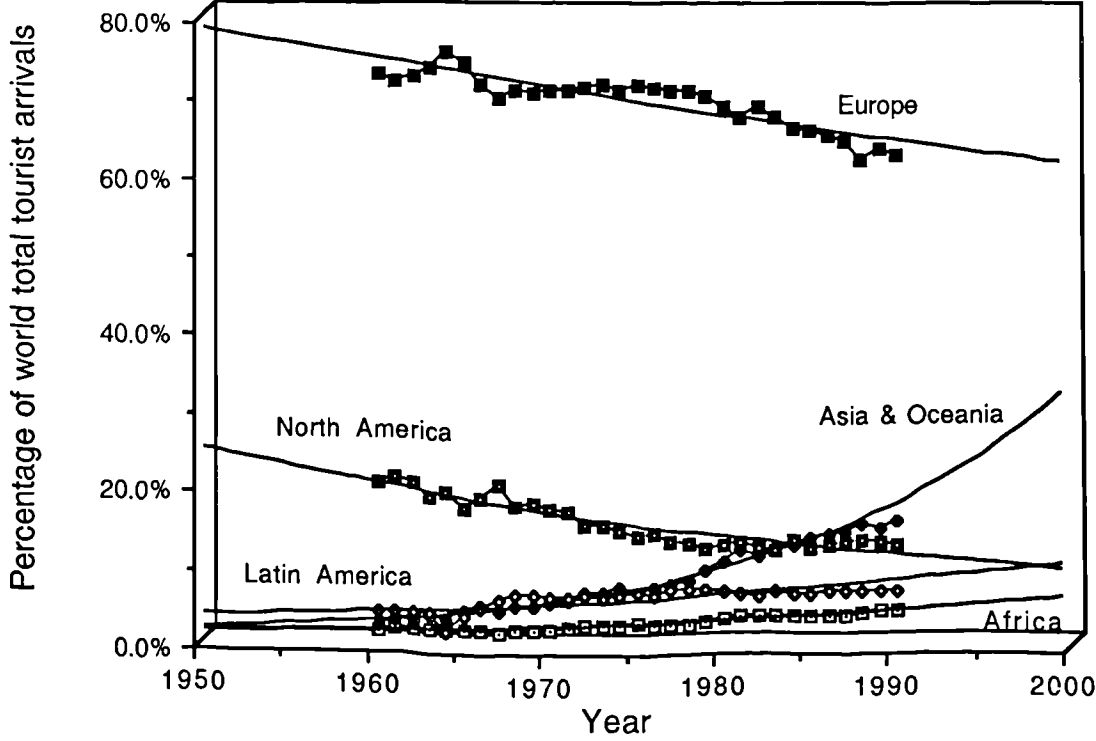


Source: data from WTO (1992).

Oceania achieved an increase from 4.19 to 18.64 percent while in Africa it decreased from 3.54 to 2.67 percent and Latin America from 15.49 to 7.67 percent. Figure 6 and 7 exhibit the changes in the number of international tourist arrivals and tourism receipts since 1960 in major regions.

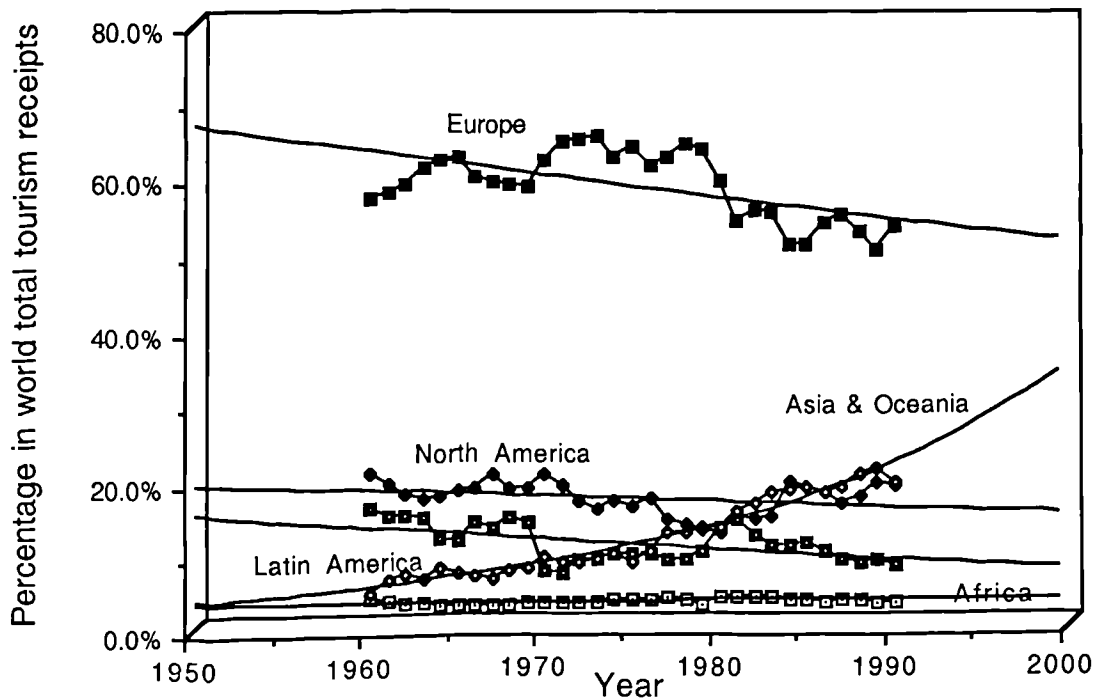
It can be seen from Figures 8 and 9 that the process towards a more even distribution of global tourism activities is never smooth though a clear long-term trend exhibits that the shares of Europe and North America in the world tourism market in terms of both tourist arrival and tourism receipts are continuously declining while those of Asia and Oceania is steadily increasing.

Figure 8 Share of world total tourist arrivals by region



Source: data from WTO (1992).

Figure 9 Share of the world total tourism receipts by region



Source: data from WTO (1992).

The Main International Tourist Flows

Two major patterns of international tourism flows have been evident, both in relation to generating and receiving countries. First, there continues to be a dominant flow of tourists between the developed regions but limited flows between the developed and the developing world. Second, in the main regions, the flows are predominantly intra-regional in character. The former is largely explained by the spatial disparity of development level thus the generation of tourism demand and the latter could be attributable to the fact that most international tourists travel short distance to nearby destinations.

It has been estimated that about 80 percent of international tourism took place between developed countries (Europe, North America and Japan), about 5 percent was between developing countries, a further 5 percent from developed to developing countries and a final 10 percent in the opposite direction (Hoivik & Heiberg 1980). It is clear from this pattern of tourist movement that the size of the international tourism market for the developing world is limited though it tends to grow in the long term.

International travel is also basically intra-regional tourism in that in the main region Europe, for example, European countries constitute the main markets and destinations for other European countries. It is estimated that about 80 percent of total international tourism originates in countries of the same region. Intra-regional tourism as a percentage of total arrivals varies among the regions of the world; from approximately 80 percent in Europe and North America to only 38 percent in South Asia and 25 percent in Africa. Within intra-regional tourism, the largest number of arrivals are between neighbouring countries, with the volumes decreasing as the distance between the countries of origin and destination increases (Bailie 1989). This leads to the conclusion that the location of a tourist destination is an essential factor conditioning its tourism development. The countries situated in and near the main tourist generating regions enjoy great locational advantages while those remote destinations may

benefit from improvements in transport conditions and in the living standards of their neighbouring countries.

Researchers have attempted to explain past travel-flow patterns and their unevenness by developing and using causality models. The hypothesis put forward by Williams and Zelinsky (1970) is that travel flows are not random but have distinctive patterns that can be explained by several identifiable factors. They suggest that these factors include: spatial distance; presence or absence of connectivity; reciprocity of travel flows; attractiveness of one country for another; known or presumed cost of travel; influence of intervening opportunities; impact of specific events; the national character of originating countries; and the image of destination countries. Any changes in these and other tourism environmental factors will affect the relative attractiveness of tourism destinations and influence the spatial pattern of global tourist flows.

The Global Centre-Periphery Structure

The uneven geographic pattern of tourism development can be structured in a particular manner into two major components: a dominant centre or core and a dependent pleasure periphery which is best conceived geographically as the tourist belt which surrounds the great industrialised zones of the world and normally lies some two to four hour's flying distance from the big urban centres (Turner & Ash 1975).

Centre and periphery are functionally related to each other in a dynamic sense. According to John Friedman (1973:67), “Core regions are defined as territorially organised subsystems of society which have a high capacity for generating and absorbing innovative change; peripheral regions are subsystems whose development path is determined chiefly by core region institutions with respect to which they stand in a relation of substantial dependency. Core and periphery together constitute a complete spatial systems”. There is general agreement that at any single point in time, the centre tends to dominate the periphery. But there is basic disagreement about the nature of the centre-periphery relationship over time. The present author believes that as long as the wide gap in the income levels of the developed and developing countries remains, this spatial relationship of tourism is likely to continue. A gradual change in the general pattern of tourism world-wide is at the same time perceptible, inasmuch as there is considerable increase in long-haul travel and in intra-regional tourism in Asia.

Nevertheless, while at the global level, tourism activities have been concentrated in the “centre”— developed countries, at the regional and national levels, tourism is often located in the “periphery”— less urbanised areas (Peters 1969:11). Tourism development tends to be polarised spatially, along the coastline, in a few cities or in some of the more picturesque inland areas.

2.4 THE EVOLUTION OF THE TOURISM SYSTEM

Systems are said to have three facets: being, or structure; behaviour, or function; and becoming, which subsumes development and evolution. "Perhaps the biggest problem in systems analysis is to integrate system structure and function with system evolution" (Huggett 1980:192). The relation between the structure, function, and evolution of the tourism system has never been resolved. Changes in system structure, function and evolution, occur simultaneously; they are all an expression of a system's dynamical behaviour. The evolution process of a system could be traced by examining changes in the initial, final and any intermediate states of the system and their pathways in a period of time.

"To understand tourism's growth and development requires analysis of its past, for the seeds of change can be used not only to explain the present but as pointers to the future" (Murphy 1985:17). There is a need for a historical focus as longitudinal studies show how patterns and processes have evolved or developed through time which will have obvious current implications and be essential to the development of forecast of future change in tourism (Burkart & Medlik 1990; Butler & Wall 1985).

A Brief History of Tourism

Travel is as old as civilisation, but much of travel in the beginning was largely unconscious and rather a simple affair. The traveller of the past was a merchant, a pilgrim, a scholar in search of ancient texts, and even a wayfarer looking

forward to new and exciting experiences. Although in Imperial Rome, a fairly extensive pattern of travel for pleasure and culture existed for the elite, trade and commerce was, however, the strongest force in the ancient past; it made people travel to distant lands in order to seek fortunes. As civilisation developed, conscious travel in order to explore and see the world began facilitated by the invention of money and the protection of road and building of rest houses at various places. Travel was considered to be hard and not a thing of pleasure. The land migrations were done on foot and by horseback, and river craft.

Travel for religious purposes assumed a significant importance during the Middle Ages. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries pilgrimages had become a widespread phenomenon “practicable and systematized, served by a growing industry of networks of charitable hospices and mass-produced indulgence handbooks” (Feifer 1985:29). Such pilgrimages often included a mixture of religious devotion and culture and pleasure.

The development of the Grand Tour followed a shift in the focus of culture and of economic and political power. The eighteenth century is conventionally considered the golden age of the Grand Tour. The Grand Tour was originally an aristocratic preserve but later invaded by the bourgeoisie. The Grand tourists paved the way for the popular tourism of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries (Bates 1911; Mead 1972; Towner 1985; Trease 1967).

The industrial revolution brought about major changes in the scale and type of tourism development. The increases in productivity and growing urbanisation gave more people the motivation and opportunity to go on holiday. Introduction of railways, in the nineteenth century was yet another crucial landmark in the travel history. Spas and seaside resorts which developed during this period open the path to the modern pleasure travel all over the world where millions of people visited various seaside resorts each year (Walton 1983). The first Cook's tour in 1841 marked the beginning of tour operating industry (Swinglehurst 1982). Indeed, the concept of modern tourism came into being in the second half of the nineteenth century hand in hand with the development of the industrialised societies of Western Europe and North America.

The concept of mass tourism emerged along with the introduction of holiday with pay in the 1930s in many Western countries. The second World War marked a watershed. Post-War era not only saw a rise in the standard of living of the working and the middle classes in America and Western European countries, but witnessed rapid development in transport technology, especially in air transport which revolutionised long distance and international travel just as the motor changed the habit for both short and medium range travel. The advent of the jet airplane in 1958 and the subsequent charter flights and inclusive tours contributed mostly to the phenomenal growth of global tourism. Travel is now no longer the preserve of elites, but a mass consumption

item in the developed world and is said to be a maker of status and necessary to health.

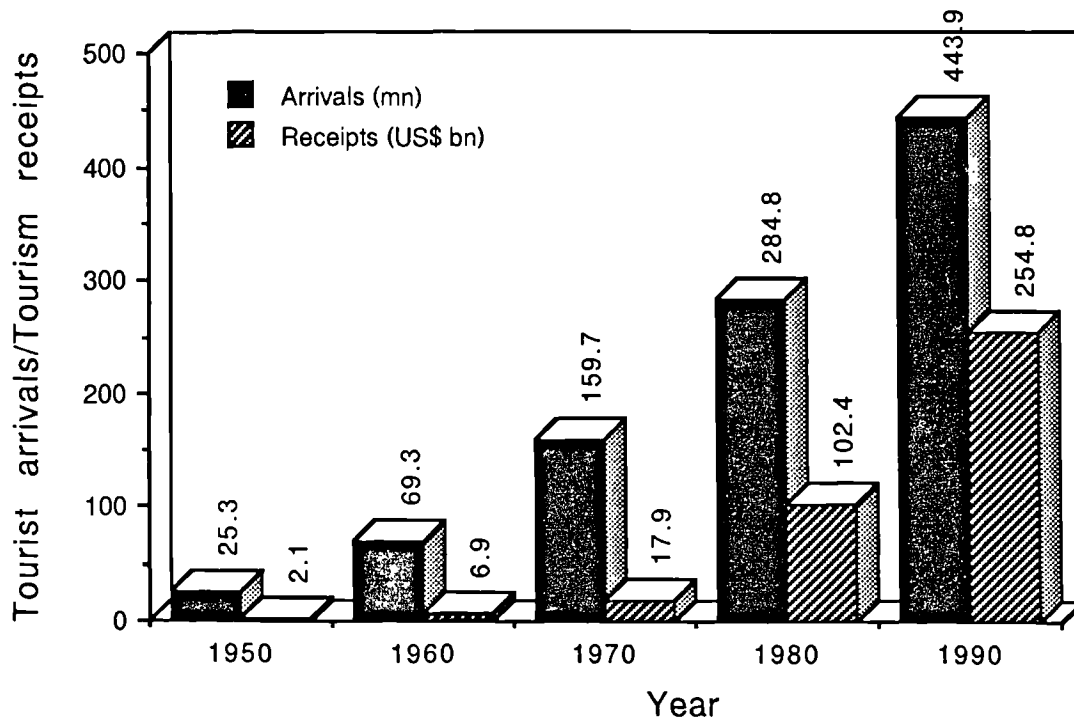
The Growth of World Tourism Since 1950

The rapid growth of tourism during the last half century has made it the largest industry in the world on virtually any economic measure including: gross output, value added, capital investment, employment, and tax contributions. In 1992, the industry generated an estimated \$3.5 trillion revenue and created almost 130 million jobs, attracted over \$422 billion capital investment, and contributed \$400 billion in taxes (WTTC 1992).

From 1950 to 1990, international tourist arrivals increased from 25 million to 444 million while international tourism receipts jumped from 2 billion to 255 billion dollars (see Figure 10). Comprehensive statistics are not available on domestic tourist arrivals and receipts but these are considered to account for 90 per cent of the total, which places the international numbers in perspective.

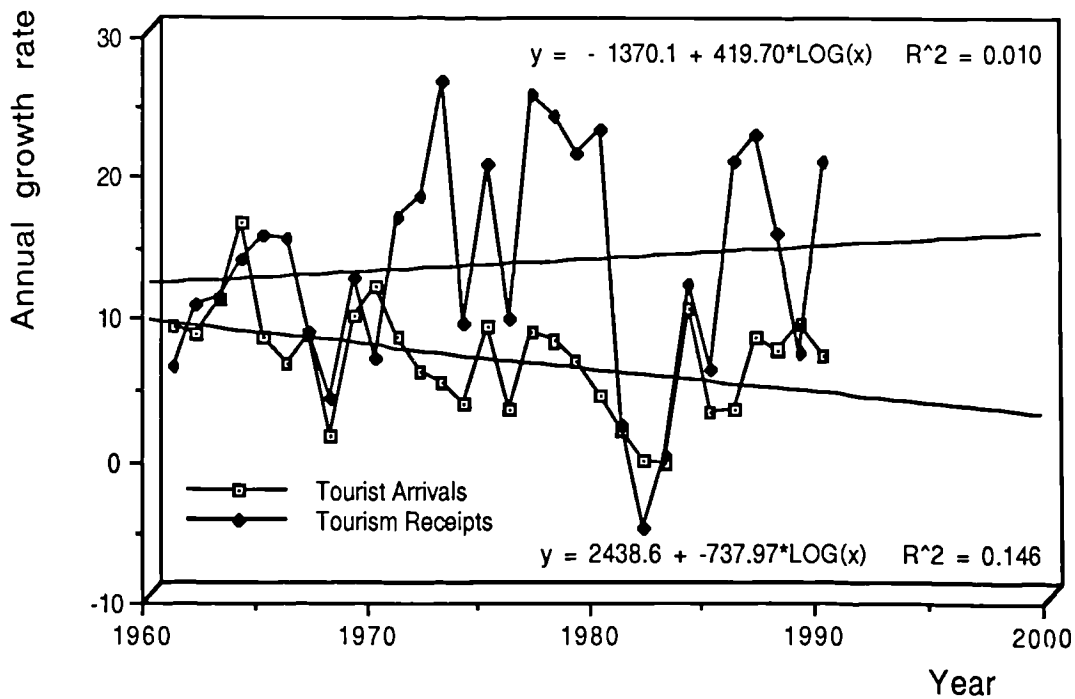
The growth of the world tourism industry, however, has not been constant throughout the post-war period and can be disaggregated into three distinctive elements (see Figure 11). Although there are cyclical movements and short-term erratics the long-term growth trends show that a major expansion of international mass tourism occurred in the 1950s and 1960s. A levelling off in demand occurred in the mid-1970s

Figure 10 The growth of world international tourism



Source: data from WTO (1992).

Figure 11 Annual growth rates of tourist arrivals and receipts



Source: data from WTO (1992).

as national economies and individuals adjusted to the consequences of the energy crisis which led to a low growth rate of 3.8 percent per annum in the period 1975-1982. In 1982 arrivals are estimated to have declined by 0.7 percent and receipts decreased by 5.4 percent over the previous year, the first absolute decrease recorded over the period shown. An upturn has been experienced since 1984 which recorded growth rates in arrivals between 3 to 10 percent (the growth rate of tourism receipts tends to be misleading as it is often exaggerated by high inflation rates). Despite this slowing in the relative rates of increase, total arrivals are estimated to have been doubled over the last fifteen years, and total receipts doubled in five years. Global tourism has clearly proved its vitality and resistance to inflationary and currency pressures, political instability, unemployment and limitations on purchasing power.

Factors Conditioning Tourism Development

It is a common error to attempt a historical survey of tourism without drawing any conclusions (Dave 1983). Having briefly presented the main stages of tourism evolution, it is necessary to draw some conclusions of tourism development. Why did travel, an ancient phenomenon, not become mass tourism until the 1950s? Why has the world tourism industry expanded so rapidly since the end of the Second World War? Why is the growth of global tourism not a smooth process? The answers to

these questions can only be found in the changes in the environment of tourism.

The changes in the size, structure and characteristics of the global travel flows and tourism industry have been responding to the changes in its environment. There has been a constant expansion in not only the number of participants of travel and the number of tourist attractions, facilities, destinations, but also in the variety of motivations and modes of travel. Factors accounted for this expansion of the world tourism industry include population growth, rising disposable income and leisure time, increasing education and urbanisation level, technological progress, and extensive and ambitious tourist development programmes in many countries by both the public and private sectors. In contrast, economic recessions, wars, political upheavals, natural disasters and energy crises have often interrupted and fluctuated the growth of world tourism. Table 1 provides a historical perspective of the development of the tourism environment by presenting an analytical summary of some significant events in the tourism environment since 1860.

2.5 THE ENVIRONMENT OF THE TOURISM SYSTEM

A system's environment encompasses all factors both inside and outside the system that can influence progress toward the attainment of its objectives. According to general systems

Table 1 Significant events by leisure and travel eras

Variable	High Society 1860-1920	Mass Recreation 1920-1958	Mass Mobility-Transience 1958-1974	Post-Mobility Adjustment 1974-
Population Characteristics	Rural N.E.-Midwest 50 million people	Rural-urban Suburbia West Coast 130 million	Urban-nucleated city SunBelt growth 200 million	Central city, small town growth, rural 242 million (1990)
Person and Societal Philosophy	Nuclear large family Puritanical work ethic Self-denial	Smaller family Leisure recreation emergent A privilege to enjoy leisure	Single-parent family; Self-gratification, "me" generation; Minority actions; Changing role of women, ERA	Leisure and recreation is a right Individual awareness; Self-actualization; Self-improvement
Time	60-hour workweek Sunday free	50-hour workweek Saturday free Paid vacation	40-hour workweek 3-day weekends	38-hour workweek Moonlighting Do-it-yourself home repairs
Income Money	Hourly wages	Salaries	High disposable income; Era of credit; 2-income families	Inflation; Zero growth; Cost consciousness; Electronic money
Activities and Equipment	Church-centred Bicycle, golf, tennis	Family-centred; Improved equipment; Boats, camping equipment, etc.	Social group; Specialised activity equipment; ORVs; Back to nature movement	Electronic games; Human energy; Physical fitness; High-risk sports
Political Action	Conservation/preservation Leadership-management of natural resources	Environment management Public use	Reactionary leadership; Environmental awareness, ecological ethics, park congestion	Public involvement leadership Localised congestion
Public and Private Organisation	Professional sports; Public recreation movement; City-national parks; Amusement parks	Amateur sports State parks TVA-C of E Regional parks	Disneyland-theme parks Mission 66 Individualised travel	Airline deregulation Tourism caucus Package tours
Technology and Communication	Photography; Movies-wireless; Mass production; Literature	Radio-television; Plastics-super alloys; air conditioning; Computers-electronics	Instant photography; Satellite communication; Computer management	Videophone Cottage electronics
Mobility	Coal and steam Railroad, ship, mass transportation	Automobile; Airplane, small group transportation	Interstate highways RV, sub-sonic aircraft	Supersonic travel? Mass transit?
Facilities and Services	Luxury hotel/resorts Second homes-wealthy Overseas travel	Motels Second homes-middle class	Private campgrounds, lodging Franchises, fast foods Full service campgrounds	Family camping, time-sharing, cruise ships, one-stop vacations, reservations to enter parks

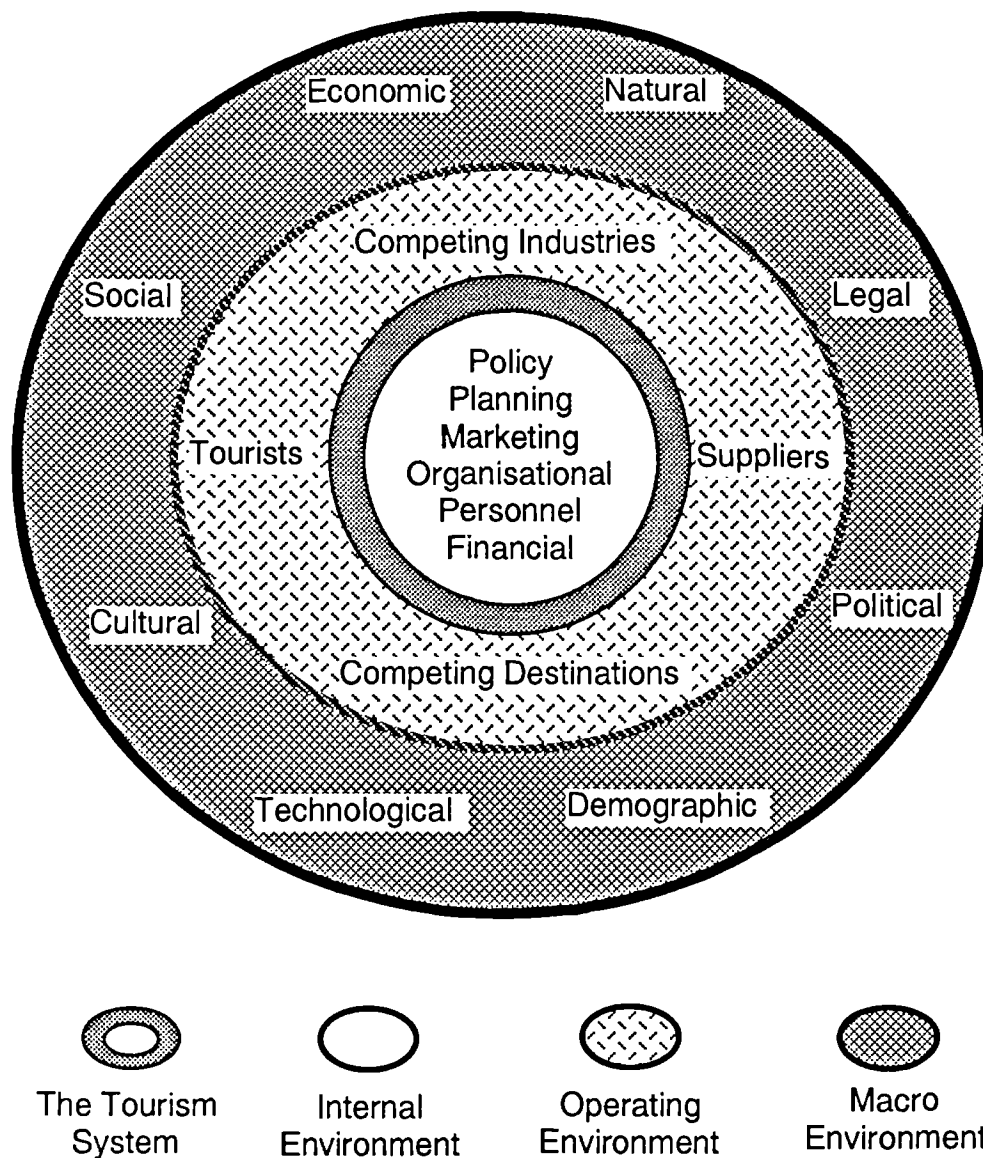
Source: adapted from Van Doren (1981:4).

theory, modern organisations are open, rather than closed, systems. That is, modern organisations are influenced by and are constantly interacting with the environments. Because the tourism industry is an open system, environmental factors inevitably influence it, and it is up to the management to ensure that this influence is channelled in a positive direction and contributes to the industry's success.

The environment at any given time is a result of the interplay of many complex and continually changing forces including the economic, social, cultural, demographic, political, legislative, technological and natural ones. The direction and strength of these forces vary significantly from time to time and from country to country. The pace and volatility of changes in these environmental factors have increased markedly in recent decades. These forces have hardly been studied systematically and often interpreted in unduly different ways which offer a partial understanding of a complex picture. This study attempts to fill this gap by exploring the environment of tourism development holistically and comprehensively.

The environment of the tourism industry, for analytical purposes, may be conveniently partitioned into three distinct but interlocking levels: the internal environment, the operating environment, and the macro environment. Figure 12 depicts the relations between the tourism system and its environments.

Figure 12 The environments of the tourism system



The Internal Environment

The internal environment of the tourism system (in this study, the tourism industry in a country) is the level of environment which exists inside the system and normally has immediate and specific implications for managing the tourism industry. The main components of the internal environment may include the following aspects: policy (development objectives,

policy making procedures, co-ordination and implementation of policies); planning (development strategy and programme formulation, planning agencies, planning process, the role of national and regional plans in the industry); marketing (domestic and overseas tourist market segmentation, market positioning, product, pricing, promotion and distribution strategies); organisational (industrial structures in terms of sector, scale, spatial and ownership, communication network, public and private sector tourism relationships, competence of management); financial (profitability, capital formation, investment opportunities in tourism); and human (labour relations, recruitment practices, training programmes, incentive systems).

The internal environmental variables, their scale, quality and structure, determine the competence and capacity of the tourism system in adapting to its external environment and maximising the benefits and minimising the costs arising from external changes.

The Operating Environment

The operating environment is that level of the tourism system's external environment made up of components that normally have relatively specific and immediate implications for the operation and development of the system. The basic elements of the operating environment of a national tourism industry may include the domestic and foreign tourists; the suppliers of the inputs—capital, labour, land, technology,

materials and power, etc.—required by the industry; the competition from other leisure sectors and consumer durables; and internationally, the competition from other destinations and transnational tourism corporations. These factors decide the immediate opportunities and threats to tourism development in a country. As external environmental variables, the national tourism sector has no control over them, however, to some extent it could influence them. For example, tourism development and promotion can stimulate the demand or alter the preference of tourists and a destination can reduce international competition by developing unique and differentiated tourist products.

The above two types of environments of tourism are extremely important to tourism development, the current researcher's effort is, nevertheless, concentrated on the discussion of the macro-environment. For the convenience of narration, macro-environment is here normally termed as environment unless otherwise stated.

The Macro-Environment

The macro-environment is that level of the tourism system's external environment made up of variables that are normally broad in scope and usually have less immediate effects on tourism and often influence tourism development through affecting its operating environment. For example, changes in economic conditions such as the rates of GDP growth, inflation, interest and unemployment will affect significantly the level

and structure of tourist demand; changes in social trends, currency exchange rates, domestic political situation, and international relations will inevitably influence the relative advantages and attractiveness of a tourist destination.

The macro-environmental factors have here been categorised into economic, socio-cultural, political, geographical and technological five groups. These five macro-environmental dimensions, their composition, nature and implications to tourism development, will be examined in the following five chapters respectively.

CHAPTER THREE

ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

Tourism is, first of all an economic activity and economic sector. The relevance of economic variables to tourism is self-evident. This chapter aims to identify and discuss the influences of all the major economic variables on tourism development. The first two sections are devoted to an analysis of the relationship between economic development levels and the characteristics of tourism demand, supply, management and impacts. The third section examines the effects of economic systems, strategies and policies on tourism. In the fourth section, all the other, usually more dynamic, economic factors are discussed including the economic cycle, inflation, exchange rates, energy price and supply. Finally, in sections five and six, some of the global economic trends are explored, and the strategic implications for the future development of tourism are discussed.

3.1 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT LEVEL AND TOURISM DEMAND AND SUPPLY

Tourism development in a country is both a manifestation of its economic development level and a means to promote further

development. The following two sections examine the relations between general economic levels and tourism development, especially exploring the influences of economic development level to the demand, supply, management and impacts of tourism. Inevitably, the arguments are generalised and may not correspond to the conditions in particular countries.

It is, in fact, a comparative study of tourism development in developed and developing countries which is an important issue since “tourism cannot be considered outside the context of the different stages of development countries have reached” (van Doorn, cited in D Pearce 1989:12). It is also an understudied area as Pearce has observed rightly: “there have been few attempts to highlight systematically differences between developed and developing countries” (1989:87). Moreover, little attention has been paid to exploring differences between and within the wide range of developing countries which are to be found throughout the world though there is an increasingly interest in the study of tourism in developing countries in general (see, e.g., Erbes 1973; Turner & Ash 1975; Finney & Watson 1977; Britton & Clarke 1987; Lea 1988; Singh et al 1989; Harrison 1992).

Economic Development Level

There is a mass of literature on the nature, strategy, pattern and process of economic development (see e.g., Chenery & Srinivasan 1989; Foster-Carter 1976; Griffin 1989; Harrison 1988; Lau & Klein 1990; Ranis & Schultz 1988; Rostow 1960;

Stern 1989). Nevertheless, there is still a lack of a universal accepted single criterion measuring the level of economic development of a country as development always has its economic, social, political and human dimensions.

The most widely-used comparative measure of economic development level is GNP per capita in US dollar terms, though it can not fully reflect the overall economic level and is not an accurate measure of income as there could be distortions in price level, income distribution and other areas. The search for uniform features of development almost inevitably leads to a division of countries into more homogeneous groups. The most commonly accepted division is between the developed countries and the less developed.

The economic development level, as will be discussed in the following sections, affects virtually all aspects of tourism development, including the size and features of tourism demand, the availability and adequacy of tourism resources, the objectives and significance of tourism development, the organisation and management of the industry, and the impacts of tourism development.

Economic Level and Tourism Demand

“A society’s level of economic development is a major determinant of the magnitude of tourist demand because the economy influences so many critical, and inter-related, factors” (Boniface & Cooper 1987:9). Schlenke and Stewing

associate Rostow's five stages of economic development with the evolution of domestic tourism. They suggest that the participation of the population in tourism is closely related to the industrial development of the whole country. In the stage of a "traditional society" (Rostow's first stage) only the country's elite has enough spare time and finances to afford leisure travel. In the process of economic development, the number of social classes participating in domestic tourism progressively increases. It is not until the final stage of "high mass consumption" that all social classes can afford holiday travel (cited in Oppermann 1993:537). This is also the case of international tourism demand. It is no surprise, therefore, that the major origin regions of international tourists are the same regions where most of the developed countries are clustered—Western Europe and North America.

The close link between income and tourism demand can be expressed in the income elasticity of tourism demand though it is difficult to calculate as no reliable complete data is available. Besides the theoretical reasoning of relating it to luxury goods which has a positive elasticity larger than 1, tourism demand could also be analysed by the following three ways:

(i) Time-series analysis of travel intensity of a country. The income elasticity of tourism demand has been recognised by many writers but there is still a shortage of comprehensive studies to reveal the value of the elasticity. Anthony Edwards (1988:4) estimated that a 1 percent growth in private consumption leads to a 0 percent growth in tourism; but a 2.5

percent increase leads to 4 percent more tourism, while a 5 percent figure adds up to a 10 percent growth. Tourism statistics also indicate that holiday participation rate in a country will rise along with increases in per capita income. For example, holiday departure rate in Italy had risen from 13 percent in 1959 to 57 percent in 1986; in Portugal, from 19 percent in 1978 to 28 percent in 1986; in West Germany, from 42 percent in 1970 to 67 percent in 1989, and in the UK, from 56 percent in 1966 to 61 percent in 1989 (TPR 1991:4.4). It is worthwhile to note that many of the mature markets of Europe, such as the UK and Switzerland, the departure rate has reached a plateau, with the growth largely in the numbers of holidays taken (i.e. in second, third holidays) rather than in an expansion of the population base taking a holiday. However, mainly due to social and natural factors, the points at which these plateaux are reached differ from country to country. Thus the plateau level for the UK and France has been around the 60 percent departure rate; for Switzerland and Scandinavia the level has stabilised at the 70-80 percent level.

(ii) Comparison between income-groups within a country. A comparison of holiday participation rates between different income-groups also shows the positive relationship between income and travel demand. Findings from the EC Omnibus survey show that in general the higher the level of income, the greater the propensity to take a holiday. For instance, in the Community while 75 percent people of the wealthiest group took at least one holiday in 1985, 64 percent of the poorest group took no holiday at all in that year (see Table 2).

Table 2 Holiday participation rate in the EC (%)

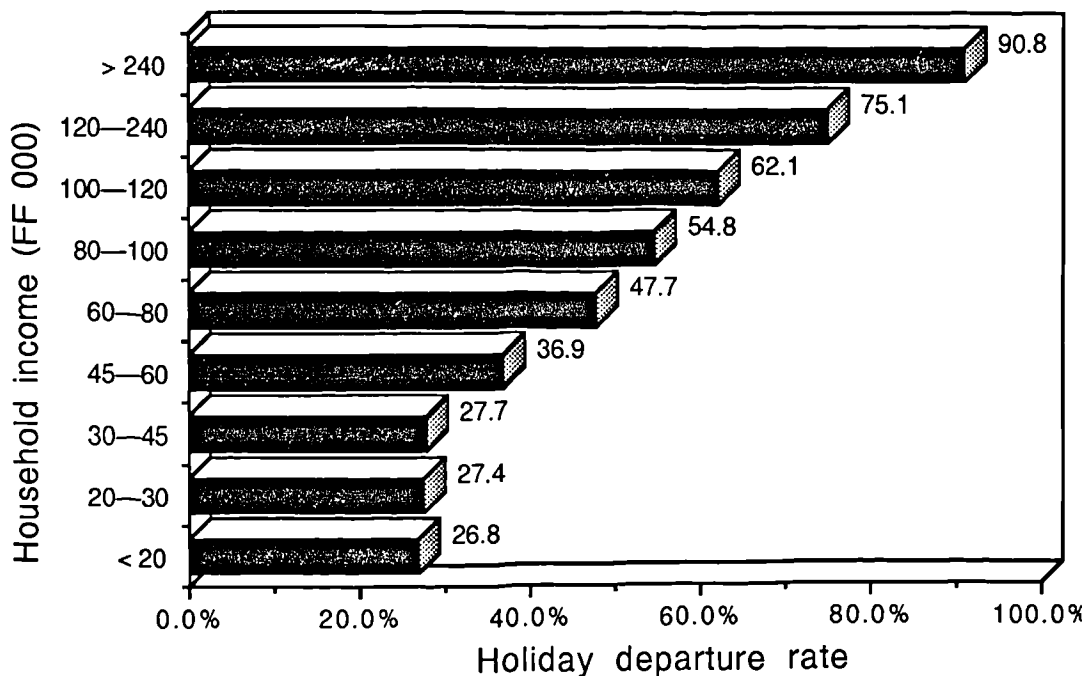
Income group	Did not go away in 1985			Went away in 1985		
	Total	Don't usually go away	Others	Once	Several times	Total
High R++	25	7	18	43	32	75
R+	40	15	25	39	21	60
R-	51	27	24	37	12	49
Low R-	64	41	23	27	9	36

Source: European Omnibus Survey 1986.

In France, fewer than 30 percent of families where the annual income is under 45,000 francs go on holiday whereas, for those earning more than 240,000 francs, the corresponding rate is over 90 percent (see Figure 13). These basic characteristics have remained remarkably consistent over time, but certain changes can still be detected. Over the last twenty years, the growth in holiday-making has been greater amongst the less well-off than amongst the more affluent, suggesting some success for the efforts to develop low-cost or subsidised (social) tourism and the ceiling effects on the high income groups.

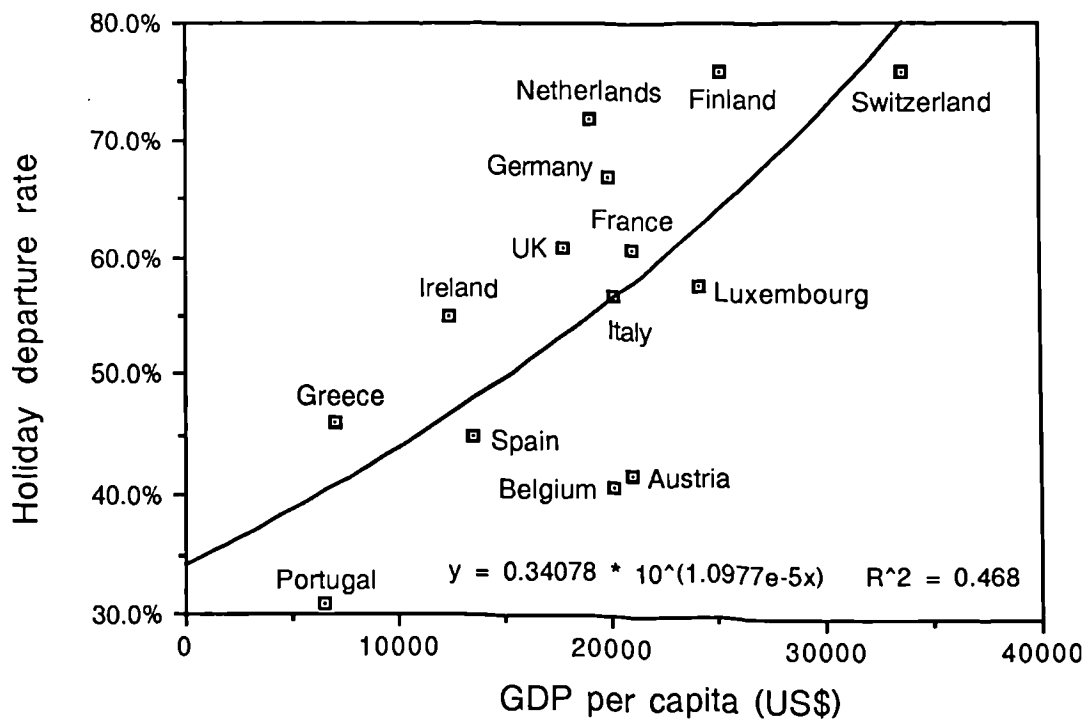
(iii) Cross-nation study at different income levels. The relationship between tourism demand and per capita income is well illustrated in the two figures below. Figure 14 shows the close association between income level and holiday departure rate in key Western European countries. The overall pattern of correlation between income level and tourism expenditure is shown in Figure 15.

Figure 13 Holiday departure rate by annual household income (France 1988)



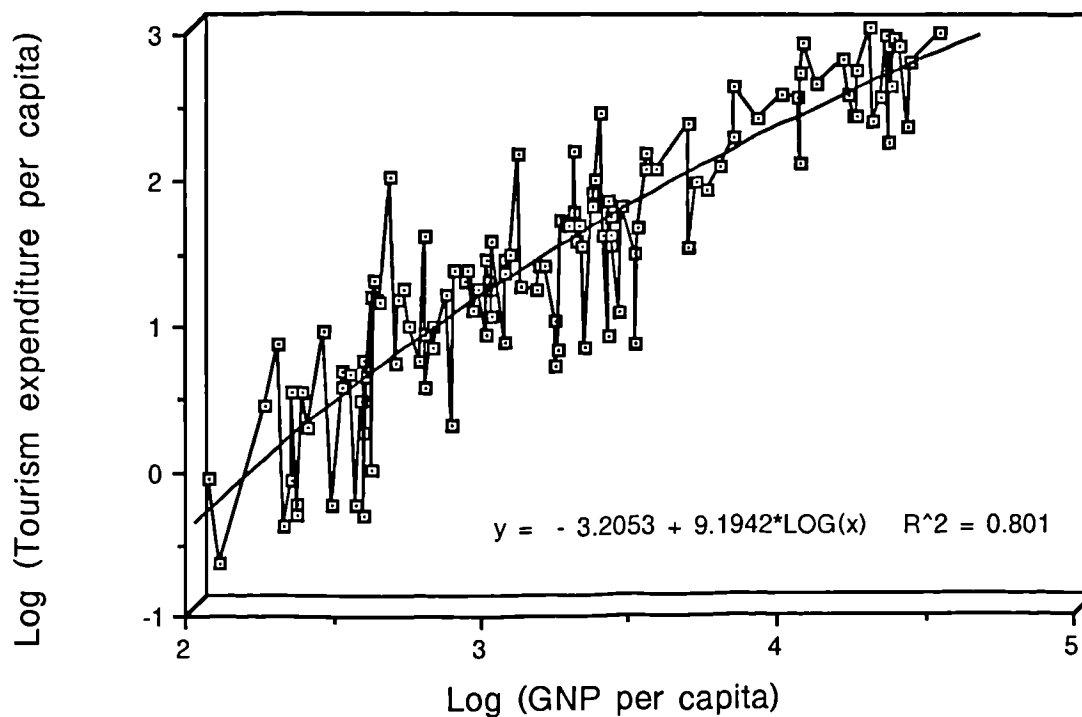
Source: data from TPR (1991).

Figure 14 GNP per capita and holiday departure rate (1989)



Source: TPR (1991) & the World Bank (1992).

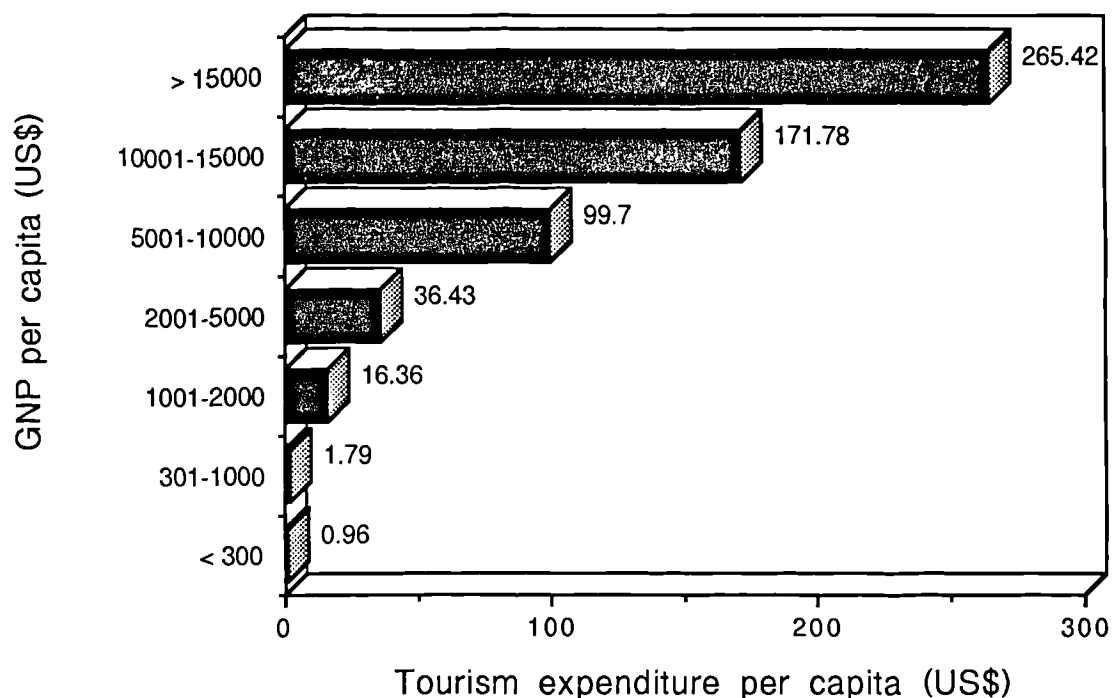
Figure 15 GNP per capita and tourism expenditure per capita



Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

Figure 16 indicates the average per capita expenditure on international tourism in countries of different income groups. The citizens in the poorest countries in average spent less than 1 dollar on travel abroad while those in the richest nations spent over 265 dollars. International tourism expenditure is not only higher in higher income countries in absolute terms, it is also higher in relative terms, that is, the share of tourism expenditure in total income is also positively linked to the income per capita of a country. It appears that the threshold of international travel demand in GNP per capita terms was about \$ 5,000 in 1990. Any income level below that would normally not generate substantial outbound travel flows. Certainly, this threshold varies across time and countries.

Figure 16 Per capita GNP and per capita tourism expenditure



Sources: data from WTO (1992) & the World Bank (1992).

Nevertheless, the relations between travel demand and income is not simply a matter of income per capita, it also includes other related factors such as the distribution of income among population, the accumulated wealth — how long the country has enjoyed a certain level of prosperity and on the degree of participation in tourism among different social classes.

Tourism demand is also determined by the conditions of tourism supply. As a “pull force” supply creates and stimulates demand through effective producing, distributing, promoting and selling tourism products. Tourism supply determines the size and structure of the holiday “opportunity sets” which “are the holiday opportunities which exist at any given point in

time, and a total opportunity set comprises all possible holidays, both commercial and non-commercial, which are available” (Stabler 1991:21). The low demand for travel in developing countries is not only caused by low income and less leisure time but also attributable to less travel opportunity and more government imposed obstacles. Supply must be informed and accessible before demand is expressed, and in international travel, much obstacles must be removed by government facilitation (Ascher 1984; OECD 1991, WTO 1988).

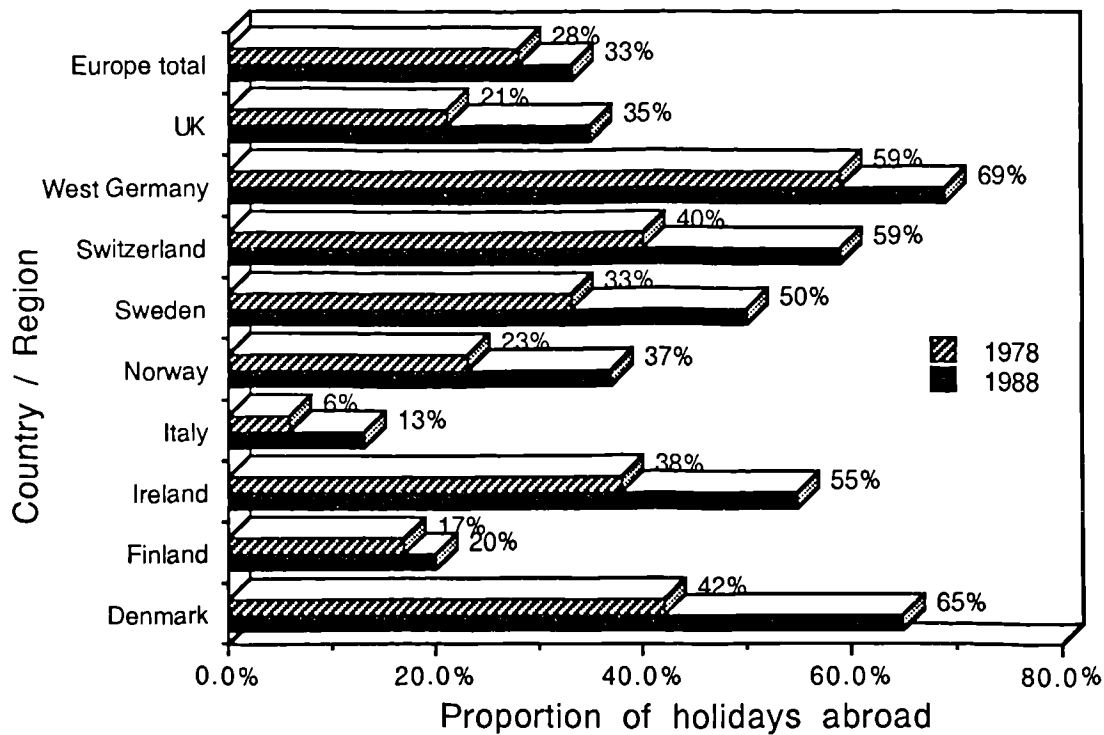
Of critical importance is the capability of the tour operator and travel agents sector at the originating region as many of the packaging, promotion and selling functions are performed by tour wholesalers and retailers. The lack of professionalism and institutionalism in the organisation of the industry is one key factor accountable for the level travel demand in many countries, such as Portugal where only 4 percent of the families arrange their holidays through travel agencies and there were only 539 such agencies in the country (Lewis & Williams 1991:112).

There is also an important relationship between development level and the distribution of tourism demand between domestic and international tourism. It has been hypothesised that along with the rise in economic development level, domestic tourism will be stagnated and overtaken in relative importance by a considerable expansion of foreign tourism; but with further increases in income and leisure time and the consequent growth of second and third holidays, there could be renewed

growth in domestic tourism and the gap between foreign and domestic tourism may close (Williams & Shaw 1991:6).

Elements of this relationship can be observed in the experiences of several European countries. For example, in West Germany travel intensity increased rapidly from 24 percent in 1954 to 57 percent 1985, but the share of domestic holidays in all holidays taken fell dramatically from 85 percent to 34 percent over the same period (Schnell 1991:208). Figure 17 Shows the increase of the share of foreign holidays in total holiday taken in European countries.

Figure 17 Proportion of foreign holidays in total holiday taking



Source: data from TPR (1991).

Economic Level and Tourism Resources

Supply, in terms of its creation, expansion and improvement, is the main concern of tourism development as only the growth and improvement in supply could meet the growing and changing tourism demand. Tourism supply is determined by the size and quality of the resource base and its degree of mobilisation and utilisation. This sector will discuss the various influences of development level on tourism supply in a comparative fashion.

Tourism resources may be roughly categorised as either natural or manmade. The most obvious relations between economic development and tourism may be found in the business travel sector. The close correspondence between GNP and foreign trade is well known and the positive relationship between foreign trade and business travel has also been recognised (Young 1973). So it is a logical deduction that the scale of business tourism in a country is directly proportioned to the size of its economy.

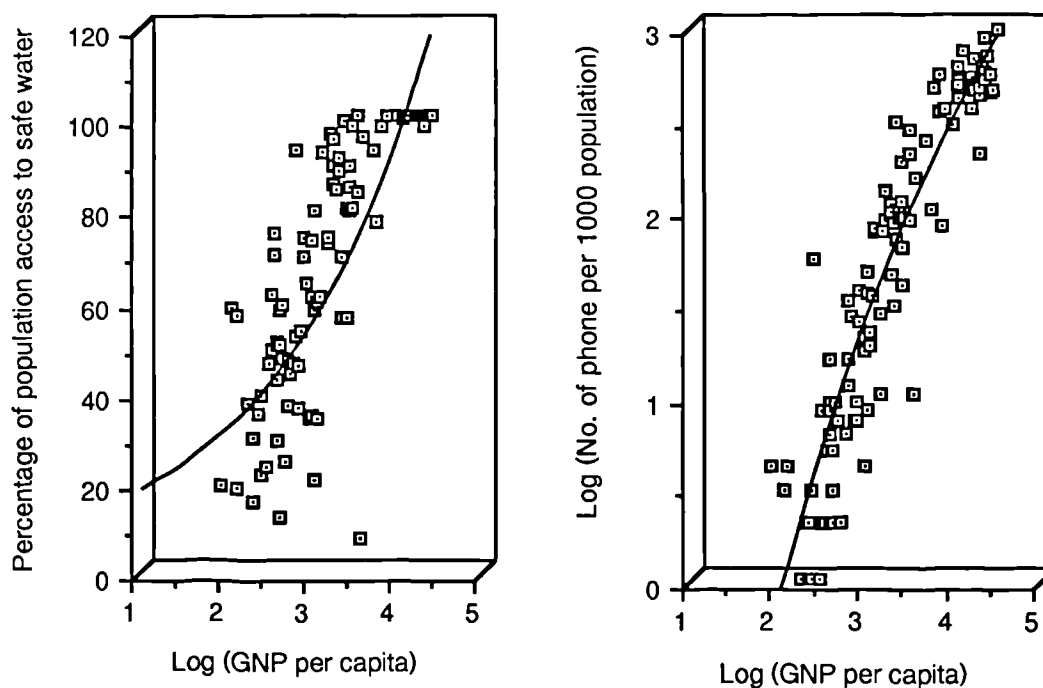
Manmade attractions are mostly related to level of past and present development of a nation, especially the modern cultural attractions and entertainment facilities. International urban tourism for both business and pleasure are much better developed in developed countries. The reception of visitors as a traditional function of cities. The large world cities, such as London, Paris, Rome, Copenhagen, Athens and Brussels, which attract as many foreign tourists as whole Alpine or Mediterranean resort regions.

However, low level of economic development has also certain advantages. First, underdevelopment itself is often a great source of attractions of tourism. "Tourism, by its nature, tends to distribute development away from the industrial centres towards those regions... which have not been developed" (Peters 1969:11) and the very consequences of lack of development can become positive resources of tourism (Duffield & Long 1981) such as the wilderness of the natural environment and undamaged traditional way of life. Therefore, in many developing countries and regions, if carefully packaged and managed, tourism development could be based on the selling of underdevelopment and backwardness (RL Lee 1977:55; Seymour 1980). Secondly, lower income and a lower standard of living than the region from which it draws its tourists is a favourable condition for tourism. To the price conscious tourists, low prices compared with those in the country of origin or with those of competing tourist destinations is a strong attraction. This is especially the case of those undifferentiated or less unique tourist products such as beach holidays.

Nevertheless, this influence should not be exaggerated and it may easily reverse. This is because the level of development of a country, will largely determine the availability and adequacy of infrastructure, superstructure, capital and technology in that country which have been considered as the "dynamic" determinants of the attractiveness of a country (Meinung 1989) or referred as "comfort attractions" or "conditional

elements” (Lew 1987). These include transportation, communication, power, water, sewage, medical centre, public utilities, energy, drinking water, sanitation, and so on. Needless to say that in this respect developed countries are absolutely superior to developing countries. For instance, in terms of access to safe water and sanitation, the total coverage for developing countries in 1990 was estimated to be 70 percent for water and 56 percent for sanitation. Excluding China, these values reduce to 66 percent and 38 percent respectively while for developed countries, both of these figures are about 100 percent (WHO 1992). The general patterns of correspondence between development level and access to safe water and telephone are illustrated in Figure 18.

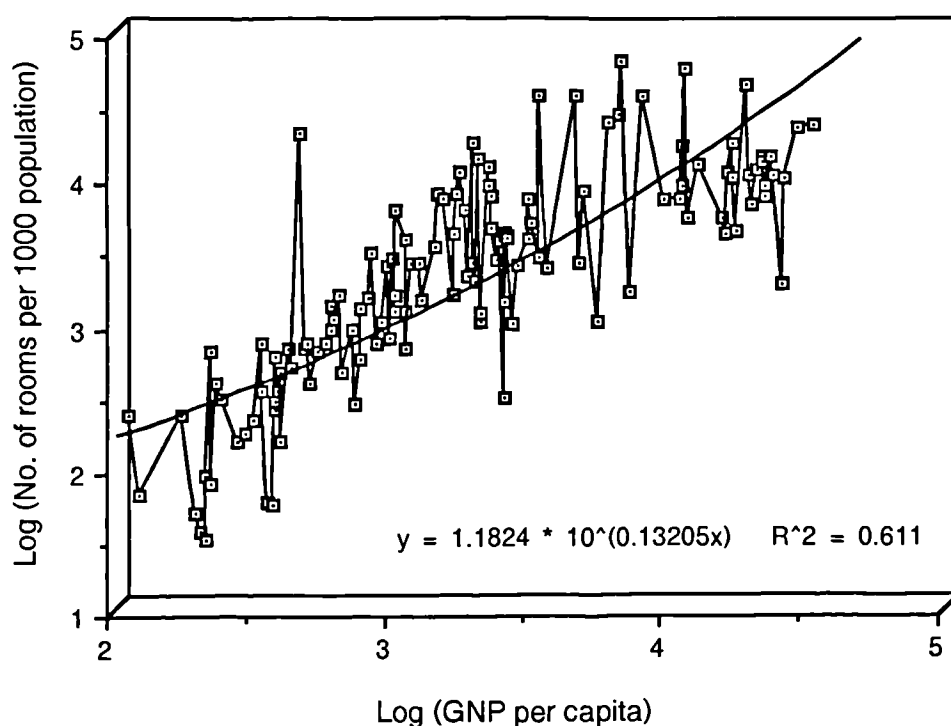
Figure 18 Economic level and access to safe water and telephone



Sources: data from UNESCO (1991); WHO (1992) and the World Bank (1992).

Poor access and inadequate infrastructure have been considered as the major obstacles to tourism development in developing regions (Heraty 1989; Jemiolo & Conway 1991). The adequacy of the superstructure, the tourism facilities in a country, however, is more related to the tourism development effort and the priorities given to the industry. Although a clear relationship between income level and per capita hotel rooms can be observed, the correspondence between them is less close than that between income level and infrastructure conditions (see Figure 19).

Figure 19 GNP per capita and hotel room / population ratio



Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

Tourism development needs a host of resources, including attraction, infrastructure, and superstructure, failing to

provide any of these factors will lead to a failure in realising the potential of tourism in a country.

3.2 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT LEVEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT AND IMPACTS

The management of tourism is also a clear mark of the economic development level in that the latter affects the objectives, pattern and features of the industry.

Economic Level and the Nature of Tourism

Although most countries have a largely identical set of objectives for tourism development, such as national income and foreign exchange generation, employment creation, regional development, economic diversification, and natural and cultural heritage preservation, the relative importance of them is varied across nations. The most significant difference in the development objective between the two group of countries is, as Jenkins (1980b:2) argues, that tourism in developing countries is largely an economic activity with social consequences while in developed countries it is a social activity with economic consequences. Most developing countries regard tourism development mainly as a means of economic growth and diversification and the key objective is usually the generation of foreign exchange, while in developed countries, the social pressure of meeting the demand of travel from the

population is also one of the key considerations in developing tourism.

The economic level of a country also influences the relationship between the three forms of tourism—domestic tourism, inbound and outbound international tourism. General speaking, in developed countries, domestic tourism preceded and created the basis for international tourism. While in many developing countries, the process is just the opposite as the low income allows little domestic travel while the governments strives to attract foreign tourists. As for international tourism, developed nations have high volumes of both inflow and outflow tourists whereas in many less developed states these two flows tend to be small and in many states one sided.

In terms of the spatial structure of tourism development, in developed countries, it often follows an integrated development road while in developing countries, it is often characterised by the tourist resort enclaves which are “islands of affluence” within the country, walled in and separate from the rest of the population. Tourist enclaves may be developed to achieve scale economies in infrastructure provision and to reduce the negative social and cultural impacts (Jenkins 1982a:239; Rodenburg 1980).

Economic Level and Government Involvement in Tourism

Governments all over the world are involved in tourism and share many common responsibilities in tourism development,

such as the co-ordinating, legislation, planning, and financing function (WTO 1983c). But the extent of the involvement is varied across countries and is conditioned by a host of factors, such as the level of development, the political system and philosophy, and the adequacy of tourism supply. Generally speaking, “the more backward a country’s economy..., the greater was the part played by ... the state” (Gerschenkron 1962:354).

Developing countries are usually characterised by a scarcity of capital and advanced technology, an inadequate infrastructure, a small and weak private sector and limited experience in tourism development. Consequently, governments there have to be more actively involved in tourism and have a wider range of functions. Besides supporting and regulating the industry, as their counterparts in most developed countries do, they “have inevitably become both developers and managers to bridge the gap arising from a lack of innovations of the private sector” (Dieke 1991:269-270), that is, they assume not only mandatory, supportive but managerial and developmental roles (Jenkins & Henry 1982).

A significance difference in the two kinds of societies may also be found in the degree to which some interest groups in developing regions question the kind and level of tourism growth while in the large wealthy metropolitan areas there are few if any challenges to such growth (Matthews 1978:45).

Economic Level and Foreign Involvement in Tourism

The involvement of foreign capital and expertise in tourism development is also adversely related to economic level.

Although the “raw materials” for the industry, such as sun, sea and scenery come free, the provision of a whole range of tourist services requires huge capital and technology inputs which are often beyond the reach of many developing countries. In order to capitalise their tourist resources and develop international-standard tourist products, “most developing countries have to overcome two obstacles: their scarcity of domestic funds for investment in tourism, and their lack of tourism expertise” (Jenkins 1982b:91). In doing so, few developing states can succeed without foreign involvement.

In particular, many developing countries are obliged to negotiate with transnational tourism corporations. These corporations have a number of assets in addition to diversified experience on international tourism. They have the technical and human resources to design, produce and manage transport facilities and accommodation and, what is more important, commercial access to the tourist-generating markets and to worldwide control and management systems (Ascher 1985). It is not surprising, therefore, that many small developing countries “are very much at the beck and call of foreign investors” (Cater 1987:209) and often by offering generous incentives and favourable conditions to compete with one another for the desperate needed foreign funds (Bodlender & Davies 1984; Jenkins 1982b; Wanhill 1986; TJ Ward 1989).

In spite of the fact that in developed countries there are some forms of foreign involvement in tourism as well, it is not a desperate need and the investment across national boundaries is often a two-way flow. It is the developing world that depends heavily on foreign involvement and the lower the development level, the higher the degree of this involvement.

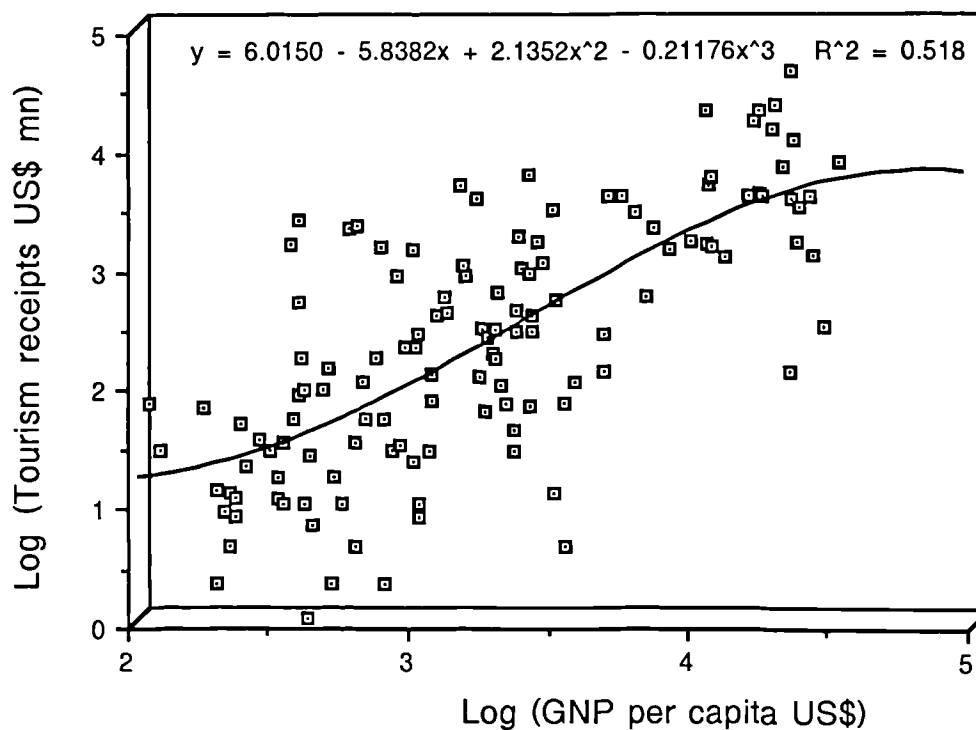
Economic Level and Tourism Impacts

Tourism impacts are the effects of tourism development on the economy, the society and the natural environment. The economic development level of the destination is closely related to the size and intensity of these impacts.

(i) Foreign exchange generation. Most economic impacts studies seem to be focused on the generation of foreign exchanges in developing regions and countries. It is well documented that tourism has made substantial contribution to economic growth and the balance of payments in developing countries (CTRC 1984; Sinclair & Sutcliffe 1988; WTO 1983b). WTO statistics shows that international tourism receipts, in both total and per capita figures, are positively related to the income of a country (see Figure 20 and 21).

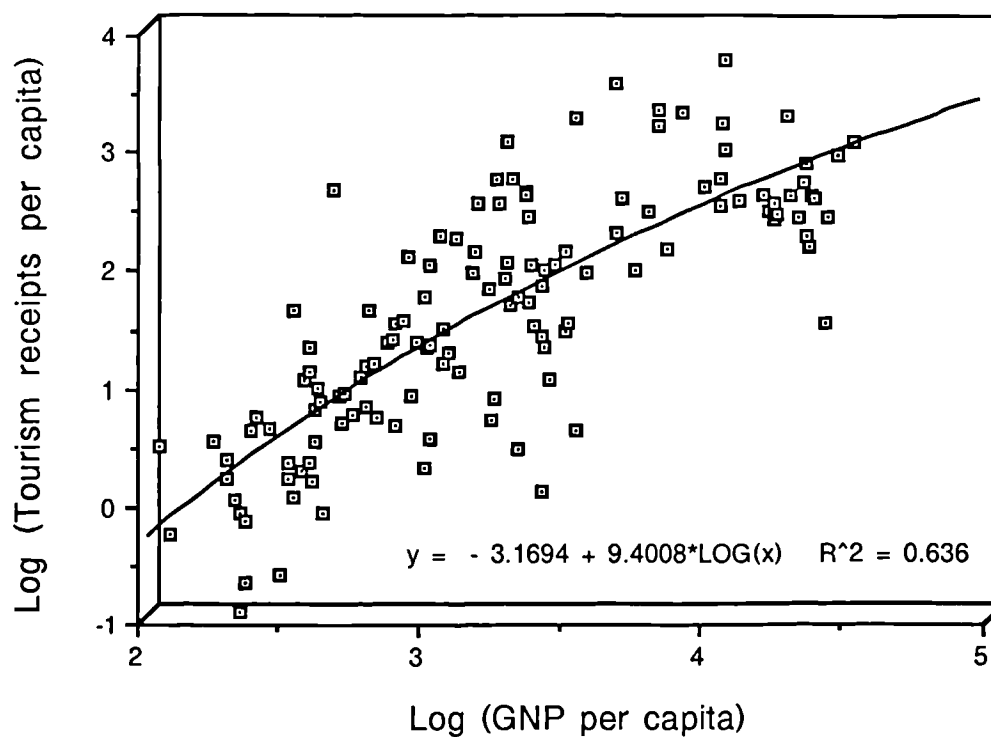
In terms of the importance of tourism in the economy, the influence of economic level is nevertheless not straight and smooth. As Figure 22 depicts, the share of tourism receipts

Figure 20 Economic level and international tourism receipts



Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

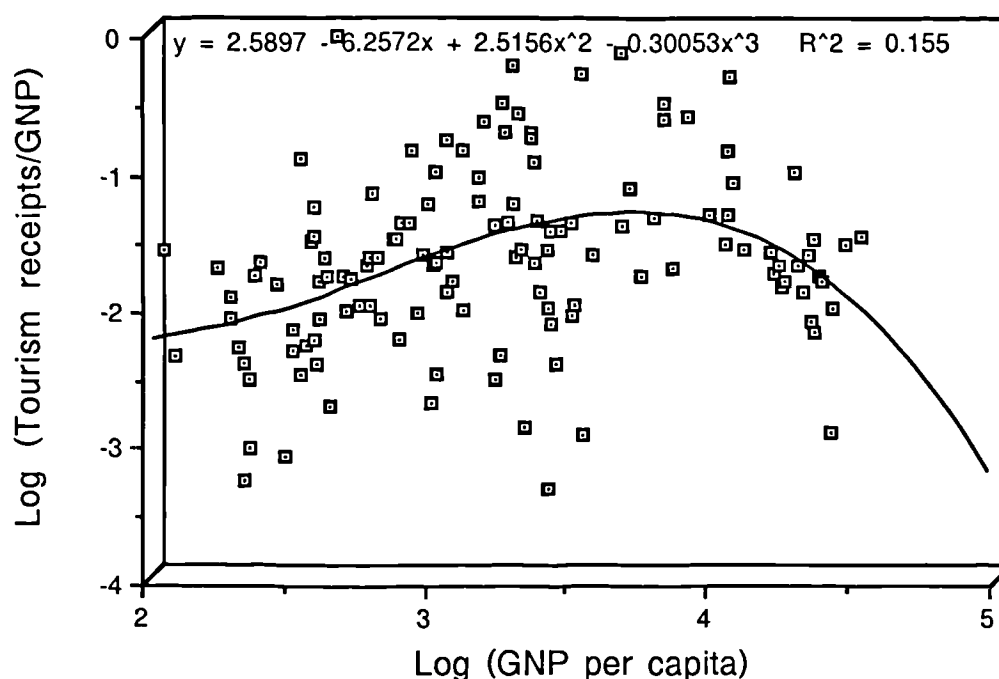
Figure 21 Economic level and tourism receipts per capita



Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

appears to be higher in middle income countries and lower in low and very high income countries.

Figure 22 Economic level and the share of tourism receipts in GNP

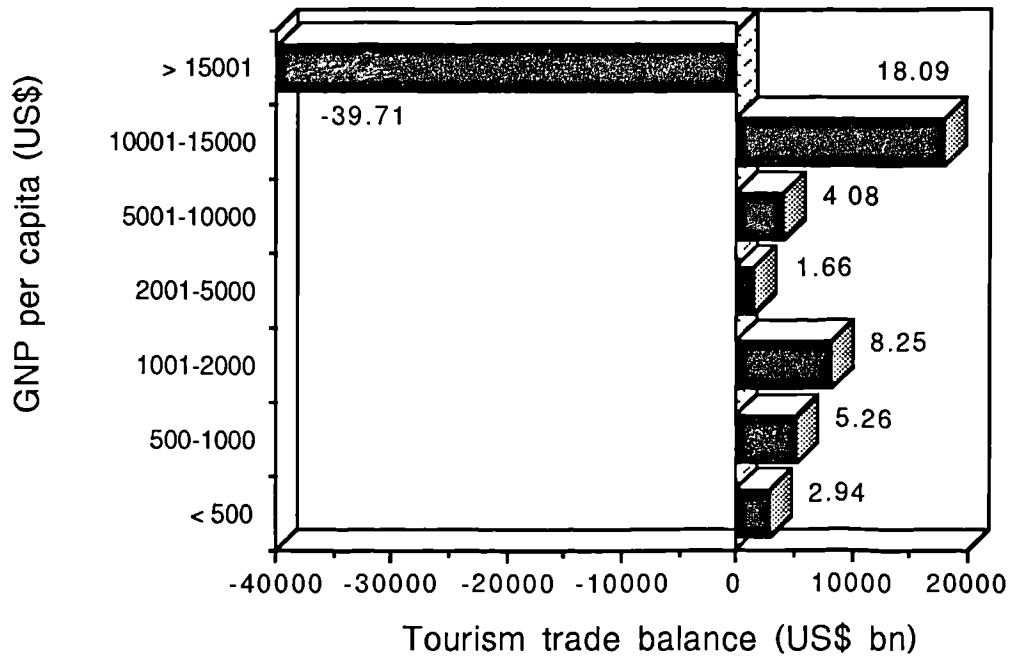


Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

As regard to the balance of the tourist trade itself, it is clearly inversely related to the level of economic development. For instance, at the country group level, only the richest group with a GNP per capita over 15,000 dollars had a deficit in 1990 while all the other six groups enjoyed a trade surplus in tourism (see Figure 23).

Nevertheless, a note of caution is required in interpreting these figures, since the deficit and surplus at group levels do not reflect the fact that there were both winners and losers within

Figure 23 Economic level and tourism trade balance (1990)



Sources: data from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

the groups and the balance-of-payments surplus can be reduced substantially by foreign “leakage” effects. These are particularly significant for those developing economies which have weakly developed service and manufacturing activities that are required to supply the needs of foreign tourists. Reports show that the tourism import content in developing countries are normally ranging from 10 to 40 percent, for some countries, such as Nepal, Barbados and Ivory Coast, it is over 40 percent (English 1986:26). Adversely associated with higher “leakage” rates, the multiplier effect of tourism which indicates its indirect impact on income generation is also less significant in developing countries.

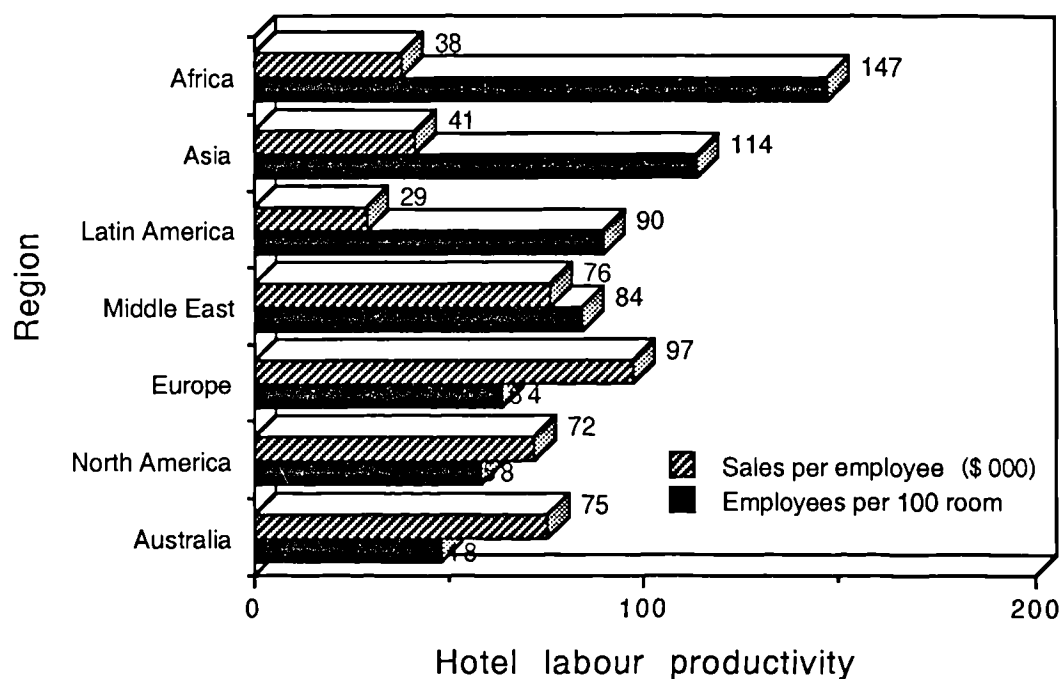
(ii) **Employment Creation.** As a labour intensive industry, tourism also creates considerable employment opportunities both directly and indirectly. The tourism employment multiplier has a similar nature to its income multiplier and is also proportionate to the industry's linkages with other economic sectors; thus, it is also positively linked to the size of the economy.

Additionally, it is worthwhile to note the specific implication of development level to tourism employment: by cross-country comparison, tourism tends to be more labour-intensive in developing countries; by cross-industry comparison, however, it is only in developed countries where labour-intensity is a universal phenomenon in tourism. This is because, on the one hand, the disparity in labour costs and productivity between developing and developed countries generally makes the tourism industry more labour intensive in the former than the latter. That is, if two countries have a tourist sector of the same size (measure by receipts), such as Turkey and Denmark, both earned 3.3 billion dollars from international tourism in 1990, the poorer state (Turkey) would employ more people in the industry than the richer one (Denmark). Figure 24 exhibits the number of full-time equivalent employees per 100 hotel rooms in 1991 which reveals the relations between income and hotel employment: the higher the income, the higher the labour productivity and less labour intensive.

On the other hand, in developed countries, tourism exists with other modernised industries which are often capital intensive

and have higher productivity; whereas in developing countries, the dual economy makes tourism and other modern industries develop side by side with traditional sectors which have lower level of capital inputs and lower productivity. Thus, by cross-industry comparison, while the labour productivity of tourism in the UK was 76 percent of that of the whole economy in 1985 (Medlik 1987), the same tourism productivity in China in 1988, according to the author's calculation, was 6 percent higher than the average of all industries.

Figure 24 Economic level and hotel employment



Source: data from Horwath International (1992).

In terms of the labour-capital ratio which indicates the capability of investment in creating employment opportunities, the assumption that tourism is labour-intensive has also been questioned in developing countries, such as Tunisia and

Maldives (Green 1979; Sathiendrakumar & Tisdell 1989) and Worrell argues that the capital input of tourism in Barbados is six times that of agriculture and twice that of manufacturing (cited in Wyer et al 1988:32).

It is clear, therefore, that the economic development level of a country influences the effectiveness of tourism as a policy instrument for employment creation: in high income countries this effectiveness is normally guaranteed whereas in low income states it should be treated cautiously as where tourism does not always compares favourably with other economic sectors as a generator of employment.

(iii) Regional Development. It has been claimed that tourism is the “world’s first wealth-redistributing industry” (Erka 1971:8) and “a force for economic convergence between regions” (Yannopoulos 1988). Worldwide, tourism has contributed to the dispersion of development and resulted in channelling expenditure from richer to poorer countries and regions. In 1990, for example, richer Western Europe had an international tourism deficit of 21.5 billion dollars while the poorer Southern Europe gained a surplus of 27.5 billion dollars; the total developed countries’ expenditure on tourism exceeded their receipts by \$15 billion dollars. Clearly, this kind of funds transfer, having the similar effects as aid and direct investment, will help to mitigate regional disequilibrium and promote the economic development of underdeveloped regions (Schurmann 1981).

The same regional effect of tourism could also be observed at the national level. The inter regional tourism within the borders of a country may promote the prosperity and facilitate the economic growth in less developed or rural areas, such as the case of Southern Italy, Highland Scotland and other “disadvantaged” or “difficult” areas (Ashworth & Goodall 1985; Barucci & Becheri 1990; Beioley 1981; Buckley & Witt 1985 & 1989; Law 1992).

In developing countries, however, the potential of tourism in balancing regional development has not been realised and in many cases tourism even leads to the widening of regional disparity. There are at least two reasons to which this phenomenon could be attributed. Firstly, in many developing countries, the overwhelming mission of the tourist industry is to generate foreign exchange, regional development is hardly on the government’s agenda of tourism development as where an increase in the national cake being viewed as far more important than questions of how the cake might be spatially made and distributed. In comparison with developed countries, such as those in the European Community, regional development is the most frequently mentioned issue in government tourism policies (Airey 1983). Secondly, since “regional development is ultimately the result of the location of economic activities in response to differential regional attractions” (Friedmann & Alonso 1964:20), in most developing countries it appears more cost-effective to develop tourism in relatively well developed regions, such as urban

areas, coastland and only in a few cases on remote but extremely attractive locations.

(vi) Economic costs. In addition to the economic benefits of tourism considered so far, there are certain economic costs associated with tourism development such as inflationary pressures, economic dependency, and in particular high opportunity costs which are also closely related to economic development levels. For example, in developing tourism, many countries, especially less developed ones, giving it high priority, providing it attractive incentives and undertake aggressive investment programmes, which inevitably draws substantial amount of capital, land and labour away from other economic sectors, thus leads to the neglect and detriment of the latter. There are also high opportunity costs associated with the over-provision of government incentives in tourism, especially in developing countries (Bosselman 1978; Bryden 1973; Wanhill 1986).

(v) Socio-cultural impacts. Tourism, especially international tourism, always provokes social and cultural repercussions in host countries. The social and cultural impacts of tourism are the effects on the people of host communities caused by their direct and indirect associations with tourists. The scale and intensity of these impacts are determined by a variety of factors, among which the economic, social and cultural distance between the host and the guest is an important one. It has been suggested that developing countries are likely to

experience more negative socio-cultural effects as a result of tourism development than developed countries (de Kadt 1979).

One of the most evident social impacts of tourism is expressed by the all-embracing concept—the demonstration effect which causes the host population to emulate the consumption patterns and lifestyles of tourists. In most developing countries, the demonstration effect often leads to a “revolution of rising expectations and Western consumerism” (Lea 1988) and a “premature departure to modernisation” (Jafari 1974) with disruptive consequences. The magnitude of the effect is conditioned, among other factors, by the socio-economic distance and the extent of interaction between tourist and host population. Clearly, it is in developing countries that the demonstration effect tends to be most obvious and significant whereas in developed countries this effect is insubstantial as the living standards and lifestyle between host and guest are quite similar. “The poorer the host country and the greater the degree of reliance of the host economy on the export of tourism services, the greater the susceptibility of the hosts to these irritants is likely to be” (Gray 1974).

Moreover, as most developing countries are ex-colonies of the Western powers, where most of the present international tourists originate, the servile relationship of the tourist employees to the foreign tourists can more often induce the perception that tourism is a new form of imperialism, colonisation or white intrusion which therefore aggravates the potential conflict with tourists (Matthews 1978).

(vi) Ecological impacts. In terms of the ecological impacts of tourism, the relevance of economic development levels may be suggested as follows: the impacts of tourism on the natural environment in developing countries could normally be more serious where the tourist attractions are more nature-based and where the assessment and control levels tends to be low. Of course, this speculation needs to be verified by empirical evidence.

3.3 ECONOMIC SYSTEM, STRATEGY, POLICY, AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

While the level of economic development is changing continuously and gradually, the economic system, strategies and policies are more dynamic and may change discretely and affect tourism in a more dramatic way.

Economic System

The world economy is made up of a number of economic systems. Each system represents a different way of trying to solve a fundamental problem that all societies face whatever their political complexion or level of development. The fundamental—indeed, universal—problem is how to provide for the material needs and wants of a country's population. The three different economic systems can be summarised

briefly as follows in terms of their controlling or coordinating mechanism.

(i) The socialist system. This is mainly associated with the central planned or command economies. The production problem is solved by direct allocation of people and resources to particular tasks and the distribution problem by some conscious assignment of the fruits of labour by the group in authority. Under this command system, consumers are free to spend their money on what is available, but the decisions about what is produced and therefore what is available are made by the state planners.

(ii) The market system. The market economy (of which the capitalist system is a particular type) is the most common system in the world. Economic life is governed by what has been called the “invisible hand” of the market. The key to the operation of the market system is the price which is determined by the interaction between supply and demand. Consumer choice or purchase under a market system decides what will be produced by whom. A capitalist system is an economic system in which not only the allocation of resources is determined by the price mechanism but also in which the means of production are privately owned. The “great engine” of capitalism is the profit motive. This system prevails throughout the industrialised world but it does not operate in a “pure” state as governments in these countries intervene.

(iii) The mixed economy. There are no pure market or command economies. All economic systems are “mixed” (i.e., they have elements of market and command allocation). The command allocation of the market economy is the proportion of GNP that is taxed and spent by government. This proportion for the 24 OECD member countries ranges from 25 percent of GNP in Japan to 57 percent in Sweden. One of the profound changes that is taking place in the world today is the move toward “privatisation”, which is another way of describing the move within a mixed economy toward greater reliance upon the market to allocate resources.

The economic system of a country has a direct impact on the development of its tourism industry. The extent to which a society practices capitalism or socialism affects how the resources are distributed and what role the government assumes in the economy and in tourism development, marketing and management. Although there has been no comprehensive comparative study on the difference between different types of economies, it appears sound to suggest that in socialist economies, governments tend to be more involved in tourism development than that of capitalist or mixed economies. Socialist governments not only share such functions as legislation, coordination and overseas promotion with capitalist governments but also play a more important role in the planning, investment, management and administration of the industry. There have been much discussion on tourism development in socialist countries though not enough attention has been paid to the comparison

between tourism in socialist and capitalist countries (Allock 1986; Becker 1987; Buckley & Witt 1990; Curry 1990; DR Hall 1991; Hinch 1990).

Economic Development Strategy

Since the Second World War, the establishment and implementation of national economic development strategy is one of the main responsibilities of government in most countries. The development strategy determines the objectives, means, policy, organisation and implementation of national and regional economic development. It also spells out the position of and priority given to tourism in the national economy.

The experience of economic development in developed and especially developing countries is varied and rich. But it is clear that there are many paths to development although some no doubt are more circuitous than others. It should be said straight away that the following six strategies of economic development clearly are ideal types and most countries do not consistently follow any identifiable strategy (Griffin 1989):

(i) Monetarist strategies. It is distinctive in that it concentrates on increasing the efficiency of market signals as a guide to an improved allocation of resources. This microeconomic oriented strategy provides the private sector abundant space to operate. The role of the state is reduced to a minimum and in ideal

circumstances is confined to providing a stable economic environment in which the private sector can flourish.

(ii) Open economy. This out-looking development strategy also relies on market forces to allocate resources and on the private sector to play a prominent role, but it differs from monetarism in part by placing special emphasis on policies that directly affect the foreign trade sector, i.e., exchange rate policy, tariff regulations, quotas and non-tariff barriers to trade and policies which regulate foreign investment and profit remittances. The government normally play a more important role in the economy. Policy measures may include providing credit and tax incentives, financing training programmes, assisting in market research and in the provision of transport networks and power facilities.

(iii) Industrialisation. It emphasises economic growth by rapid expansion of the manufacturing sector. This is achieved by a strategy typically in one of three ways: (a) by producing manufactured consumer goods largely for the domestic market, usually behind high tariff walls; (b) by concentrating on the development of the capital goods industries, usually under the direction of the state; or (c) by deliberately orienting the manufacturing sector towards exporting, usually under some combination of indicative planning and either direct or indirect subsidies. Industrialisation strategies in practice tend to place much stress on raising the level of capital formation, on introducing modern technology and, by extension, on urbanisation.

(iv) Green Revolution. The focus under this strategy is on agricultural growth. The purposes of the strategy is to increase the supply of food, especially grains, and to help industry directly, particularly those located in rural areas. It is regarded by its advocates as fostering faster overall growth, a reduction in the incidence of poverty and a more equitable distribution of income.

(v) Redistributive Strategies. These strategies aims to improve the distribution of income and wealth by giving priority to measures which benefit directly low-income groups. There are three distinctive strands which have shaped thinking about redistributive strategies. First, there are those who place great emphasis on creating more employment. Second, there are those who advocate redistributing to the poor a part of the increment to total income that arises form growth. Third, there are those who urge that top priority should be given to the satisfaction of basic needs.

(vi) Socialist Strategies. Under this strategy private ownership of the means of production is of relatively little significance. State and collective ownership of productive assets usually is accompanied by central planning of most economic activities. Planning historically has been in physical terms, quotas and quantitative controls being the main policy instruments, but there have been a number of recent reforms in which the role of price mechanism is emphasised. Socialist strategies seem to be characterised by high rates of capital formation and

economic growth. There is always a scarcity of personal services, a fairly uniform distribution of consumption goods among households and a relatively even spread of the benefits of growth.

The full implications of various development strategies to tourism development is a complicated issue which remains to be examined in the future. Some obvious observations, however, could be made: (a) the role of tourism in the national economy will normally be greater in open economies and where its development tends to be more prioritised; (b) private sector will play a more significant role in tourism development in countries following the monetarist and out-looking strategies while the public sector will dominate the scene of tourism development in socialist countries; and (c) the level of tourism demand tends to be higher in industrialised and open economies whereas in countries emphasising an equal distribution of income and wealth people's demand for travel appears more simultaneous and less differential.

Economic Policy

Strategy is concerned with the major issues and long-term prospects of the economy; policy, on the other hand, is usually more flexible and is associated with every aspect of the economy. Certain government policies, like monetary and fiscal policies, have a broad and pervasive effect on a nation's entire economy. Other policies, such as science or industrial policies, tend to have a specific and differential impact on one

industry or region, or another. The main economic policy issues which are directly relevant to tourism development may include the following:

(i) Industrial Policy. Industrial policy is an attempt by a government to encourage resources to move into particular sectors that the government views as important to future economic growth. Since this means moving resources out of other sectors, industrial policy always promotes some parts of the domestic economy at the expense of others. Most governments especially encourage those industries which produce high value added products; have more “linkages” with other industries; have future growth potential; contribute to the alleviation of social and regional pressures; and have been targeted by foreign governments (with regard to international competition). Industrial policy obviously influences the desirability of and priority given to tourism development in the economy. Indeed, tourism development itself is a policy choice. Tourism has been discouraged in some countries, prioritised in some others, and encouraged in most countries.

(ii) Regional Development Policy. To encourage regional development and achieve a spatially balanced growth, governments may make available various development incentives in some regions and not others, or selectively facilitate development through provision of infrastructure or other assistance. Tourism has been widely used as a means for promoting development in many declined industrial and remote rural areas. “The possibility of utilising tourism to bring

employment and economic development to marginally productive areas or remote regions has been a major feature of most government policies” (Murphy 1983:4). Indeed, regional development is the most frequently mentioned issue in Western government tourism policies (Airey 1983).

(iii) Trade policy. Governments have for centuries combined two opposing policy attitudes toward the movement of goods across national boundaries. Nations take steps to encourage exports by outright subsidy and by indirect measures, such as tax rebates and extensive government support programmes in the area of promotion and producer education. The flow of goods in the other direction, imports, is generally restricted by national policy. Measures such as tariffs, import control, and a host of non-tariff barriers are employed by nation-states to limit the inward flow of goods (Krugman & Obstfeld 1991). The international situation in tourism trade is also a combination of measures designed to encourage exports and restrict imports. The barriers to international travel are widely reported (e.g., Ascher & Edgell 1986; OECD 1991; WTO 1988).

(iv) Land Policy. Tourism is a resource industry. Land is the basic natural resource upon which all industrial developments are based. Government policy has significant influences on land use through controls on land ownership, occupancy, modification and conservation which affect tourism in various ways, such as the availability of land for facility construction, the location of transport routes and attraction and amenity

sites, and the accessibility of tourist to national parks and other open areas (Leslie 1990; Roehl & Fesenmaier 1987).

(v) Tax Policy. Tax is a means of wealth and income redistribution among society members. Many governments, especially those of small touristic countries, have become increasingly dependent on the tourism sector as a source of direct and indirect tax revenue. There is a wide range of such taxes, including airport departure and hotel occupancy taxes, aircraft landing fees, sales taxes on air tickets, import duties on goods and services used by tourists, income tax on tourism employees and sales tax on their local expenditure (Palmer 1993). The significant effect of tax, especially taxes on tourism, on the industry has excited much discussion, such as that on air transport tax (Abeyratne 1993); on customs duties and tax exemptions (Hamilton 1989; Orrell 1988); and in particular on hotel taxes (Mak 1988; Spengler & Uysal 1989; Weston 1983). It is reported that in the USA for every 1 percent increase in room tax rates, the number of rooms rented by the typical hotel drops 0.44 percent; with the average occupancy tax at 9.8 percent, the hotel industry is losing 3.1 percent in average occupancy due to room taxes (Hiemstra & Ismail 1992).

(vi) Tourism has emerged from the shadows of economic policy to a centre-stage position in many countries. Tourism policies in the developed world evolved from the dismantling and streamlining of many police, currency, health and customs regulation in the late 1940s and early 1950s; through the emphasis on overseas promotion in the 1950s and 1960s; to

support tourist facility and regional development in the 1960s and 1970s (OECD 1974). Since the late 1970s, broader social and environmental factors have become dominant issues in tourism policies in developed and are increasingly important concerns in developing countries. A recent study of tourism policies in the European Community member states listed 14 tourism policy objectives and 14 policy instruments (see Table 3).

Table 3 Common tourism policy objectives and instruments in the EC member states

Policy objectives	Policy instruments
Increase industry size	Destination marketing
Create employment	Joint marketing with the travel trade
Increase tourist expenditure	Provide information through printed material through local tourist offices through international offices
Increase tourist numbers	
Diversification to tourism	
Redistribute tourism	Training and employment policies
Assist restructuring	Capital grants to tourism enterprises
Improve product quality	Subsidies and recurrent grants
Reduce seasonality	Development of tourist facilities
Provide expert advice	Regulation and supervision of tourism enterprises
Regulate the industry	Disseminating good practice
Encourage joint initiatives	Environmental improvement
Improve training and professionalism	Research planning and statistics
Promote environmental tourism	Provision of soft loans

Source: Akehurst; Bland & Nevin (1993:40-42).

3.4 CURRENT ECONOMIC SITUATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The economic situation in a country is very dynamic, often follows an identifiable business cycle which is mainly manifested through and conditioned by a few key current economic variables. In this section, besides the discussion of economic cycle, some of the important and relevant current economic factors are examined, including inflation, economic structure, trade balance, exchange rates, and energy supply.

Economic cycle

Economies tend not to grow smoothly, but are subject to the business cycle — successively passing through phases of slump, recovery, boom, and recession. Different theoretical frameworks have been developed to explain the nature of economic change in both the world and developed market economies. As such basic economic indicators as GDP growth rate, unemployment rate, inflation rate and interest rates diverge during different stages of a economic cycle, the levels of tourism demand and investment are bound to change.

The only general attempt in analysing the relationship between business cycle and tourism demand appears that of Schulmeister's (1979), whereas others explored the effects of recession on the industry (Boerjan & Vanhove 1984; Truett & Truett 1987). It is well understood that tourism, especially international tourism, is highly responsive in general terms to

changes in the level of disposable incomes in tourist-generating countries.

However, as in most developed countries, travel has been virtually a deeply-rooted habit, in economic recession, an individual usually take one or more of the following options to reduce travel costs—taking fewer holidays; going to less expensive destinations; staying at less expensive accommodation; taking holidays during off-peak seasons; reducing the length of stay — rather than forgoing holidays completely (ITQ 1975). This gives rise to the different implications of economic recession for international and domestic tourism. It is reported in the Netherlands that “the domestic tourist industry benefits in times of national economic recession as fewer holiday-makers choose to go abroad”. For example, between 1980 and 1983 average unemployment rose from 6.1 percent to 17.3 percent, while foreign holidays fell by 700,000 and those taken in the Netherlands rose by 800,000 (Pinder 1991:228).

Nevertheless, economic recession does not always deliver beneficial effects on domestic tourism if the total reduction in tourism demand can not be offset by the increase of the share of demand met domestically. For example, due to recession, the top 25 historic properties and top 20 other tourist attractions in the UK recorded a fall in tourist arrivals by 12 percent and 9 percent respectively in 1991(Brown 1992); while the number of hotels in receivership in the UK increased by seven times between 1989 and 1992 (Stevenson & Wason 1993).

An analysis of the global statistics (see Figure 11 on page 67 or WTO 1992, Table 1) indicates that the growth of international tourism has not been constant throughout the post-war period and clear cyclical movements can be observed. Cyclical movements average about 6 or 7 years and are fairly correlated to the world economic cycle. Obviously, "tourism cannot escape the impacts of economic slowdown in major tourist generating countries. However, both the evidence on volume and price indicate that this sector is remarkably resilient" (English 1986:22). Moreover, the reactions of the industry to economic recession are far from straight forward and uniform. For instance, the recession in early 1970s caused only a slowing down in the rate of increase in international travel, where as the impacts of the recession in early 1980s, which had longer-term effects on disposable incomes and the costs of travel, recorded the first absolute decrease in international tourism receipts and tourist arrivals.

Inflation

There have been some efforts in tourism studies to analyse the effects of inflation on tourism demand (A Edwards 1987; Pizam & Manning 1982) and tourism investment and supply (Arbel & Strebel 1980; Arbel & Woods 1991). More generally, the effects of price changes on tourism demand are well discussed (see, e.g., Artus 1972; Sunday 1978; Uysal & Crompton 1985). In periods of inflation, demand is impacted by the price effect and often also by an income effect if nominal

income is not completely adjusted to changes in the overall increase in prices. Both high income and price elasticity of demand for travel has been reported in several studies (Crouch 1992; Kwack 1972).

"Econometric evidence suggests that expenditures on tourism are more sensitive to differences in price among tourism resorts than to differences in the prices of tourism and other consumer goods" (Gray 1982:120). Therefore, relative prices among competing tourist destinations and products are more significant than the overall price levels. Whenever an area or a region experiences a price increase, it tends quickly to lose its business to competitor regions.

The productivity differentials between goods sectors and service sectors and the subsequent "cost disease" of services (Baumol 1967) lead to a chronic tendency for the costs and prices of services to rise relative to goods. Figure 25 and 26 indicate that hotel prices and the overall tourist prices have been rising faster than the general consumer prices. In particular, annual change rate of hotel prices is greater than general retail prices both in economic recession (decrease) and during other phases of a business cycle (increase).

Another economic indicator which is closely related to inflation rate is interest rates. High interest rates usually increase the costs of borrowing of business enterprises including many tourist companies. To the tour operator, however, high interest rates has been a beneficial factor of its profitability because

Figure 25 Indexes of consumer prices and tourist prices (UK)

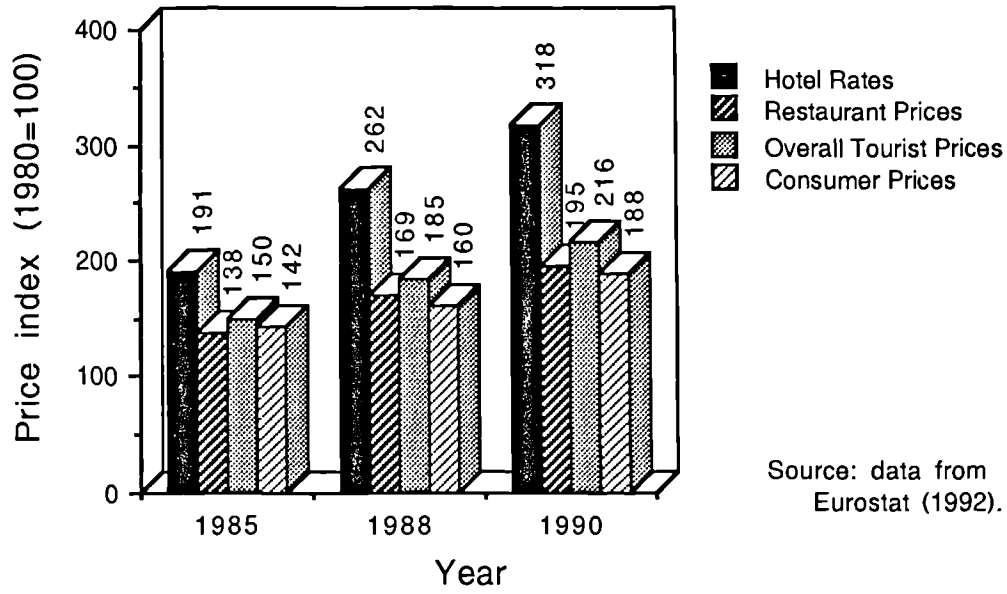
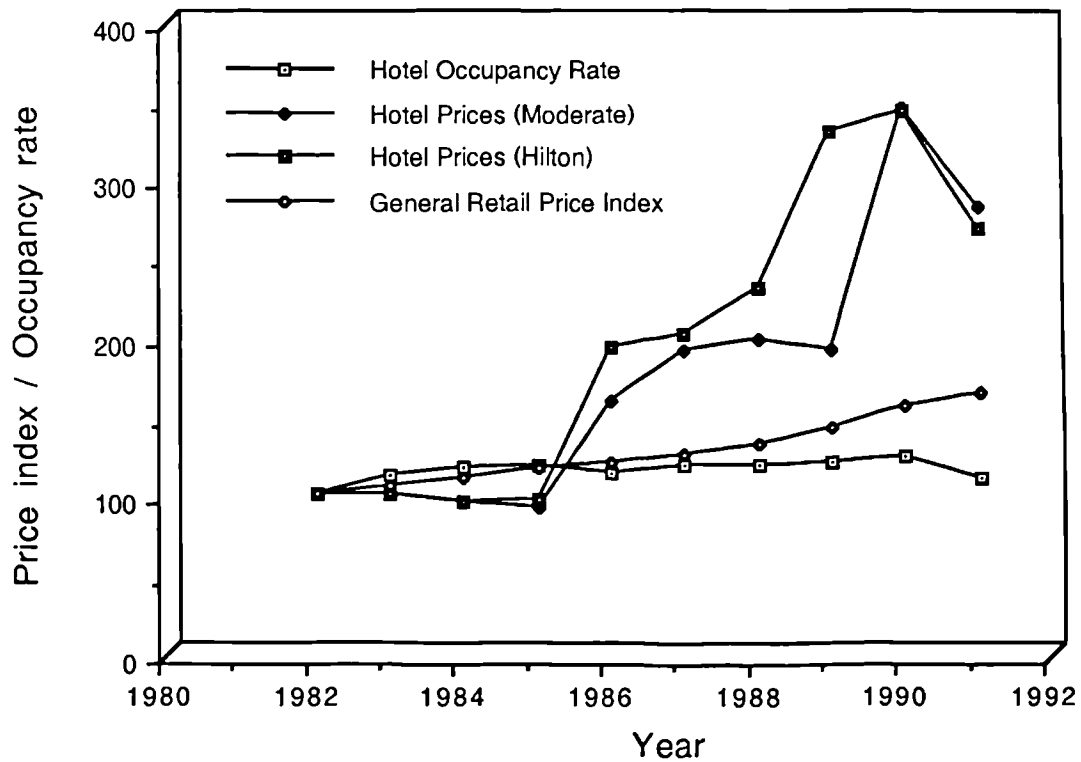


Figure 26 Indexes of retail price and hotel prices (UK)



Sources: data from International Tourism Report 1992(3); and various issues of Abstract of Statistics (UK, CSO).

“most tour companies make money not from running the holidays but from the interest they earn from the money in the bank that holiday makers pay up in advance” (Business Age 1993).

Economic Structure

The structure of an economy may be analysed in terms of industries or broadly drawn sectors: (a) the primary sector, including activities directly related to natural resources, such as farming and mining; (b) the secondary sector, all the other goods production industries in the economy, including manufacturing and construction; and (c) the tertiary sector, including all service industries, such as distribution, catering, communication and banking. The structure of an economy are commonly measured by the percentages of the different industries in the GDP or total employment. Economic structural change means changes in the relative size of the industries or sectors. Table 4 shows the close relationship between income level and the economic structure.

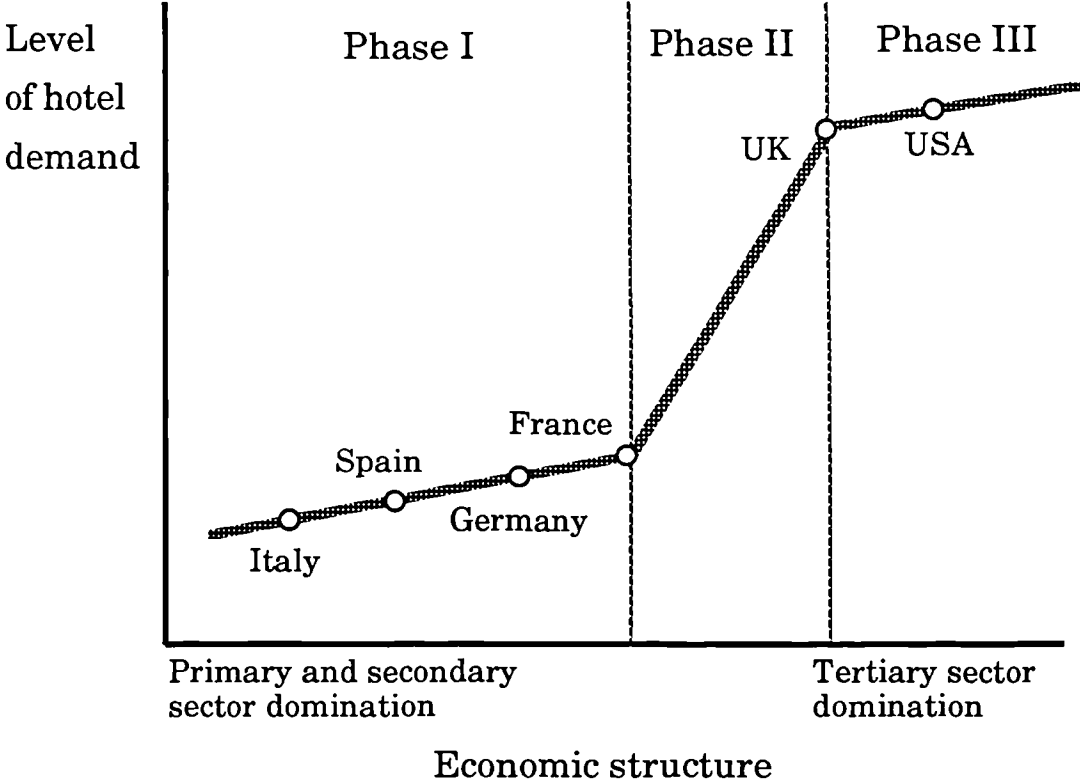
Table 4 The distribution of GDP in major country groups (%)

Country Groups	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	1965	1990	1965	1990	1965	1990
Low-income	41	31	26	34	32	35
Lower-middle-income	19	12	34	37	46	50
Upper-middle-income	16	9	36	40	47	51
High-income	5	...	43	...	54	...

Source: the World Bank (1992).

The implication of the economic structure to tourism, in terms of its correspondence with income levels, is obvious: the more important is the service sector in the economy, the higher the level of tourism development; the greater the share of the primary sector in the GDP, the lower the level of tourism demand. One study in Europe also suggests the same relationship. Economic structure has also specific implications for business travel. Slattery and Littlejohn (1991) developed the “structural theory of hotel business demand” which contends that as an economy passes the three phases of structural changes the demand for hotels increases (see Figure 27).

Figure 27 The structural theory of hotel business demand



Source: Kleinwort Benson Securities, cited in Slattery & Littlejohn (1991).

In Phase I an economy is dominated by manufacturing and extractive industries which by their nature place relatively low demands by business travellers on hotel accommodation. Phase II is a transitional phase when an economy moves from a manufacturing towards a service base and services account for more than 50 percent of GDP. As the service sectors grow nationally the outlets of service firms proliferate geographically, and such dispersal tends to encourage travel by company employees and lead to the use of hotels as quasi offices. Phase III relates to economies which are now firmly based on the service sector with higher sustained level of hotel demand but slower growth than Phase II. As the service economy is established rather than in the process of change, further growth of hotel demand is determined more directly by overall economic growth rather than by structural shifts.

Trade Balance

The balance of payments is a record of all of economic transactions between a country and the rest of the world. International tourism has long been used as a means to promote exports and reduce trade deficit by many countries. The role of tourism played in this respect is closely related to the balance of payments in general and the balance of the tourist trade itself (Lee & Malek 1991; Paliwoda 1991; Sinclair & Tsegaye 1990).

Generally speaking, the effort in promoting inbound tourism and restricting outbound tourism is closely linked to a country's balance of payments. A favourable trade balance is normally associated with no or less restrictions on outbound travel, such as the case of West Germany since 1957, Japan since 1964, and South Korea since the mid-1980s. The 100 or so countries which have strict restrictions limiting the amount of currency their citizens can obtain for foreign travel are usually less developed and often confronted with trade deficits. In the UK the favourable trade balance in the late 1950s and most of the 1960s led to the gradual relaxation of travel allowances culminating in the de facto removal of all limits in 1959 but the basic tourist allowances was re-instituted in the balance-of-payments crisis of 1966 (Gray 1970). The balance of payments may also influence the control on tourism companies and businesses, such as restrictions on imports and foreign remittances.

Exchange Rates

Exchange rates are the price of one currency in terms of other currencies. Although the mechanism of its determination varies under different exchange regimes, the level of and changes in the exchange rates are usually conditioned by such factors as trade balance, inflation and interest rates, purchasing power parity, and exchange control measures. As inbound and outbound tourist demands, like the demands for all goods and services, are influenced by relative prices, they are bound to be affected by changes in exchange rates (Bond et

al 1977; A Edwards 1987; Falade 1990; Gibbons & Fish 1985; Gray 1970). A depreciation of a country's currency will normally make inbound travel more attractive and outbound travel more expensive. An appreciation has opposite effects: less tourism receipts and more tourism expenditure. These effects have been reflected in the changes of the cross-Atlantic tourist movement from the UK during the 1980s in correlation with the changes of the relative strength of the Sterling against the US dollar (Devas 1990).

As tourists have become more experienced at travelling outside their own country, so they have become increasingly alert to exchange rate considerations, and this trend is likely to grow. It is said that the increased volatility in the exchange markets is a importance factor behind the trend towards later booking of holidays in the UK (Devas 1990).

It is also worthwhile to emphasise that in examining the effects of the volatility in exchange rates on tourists' destination choice, real exchange rates rather than nominal exchange rates should be used, that is, the market rates of exchange between countries should be adjusted by their relative price levels (Gibbons & Fish 1991). This is because alterations in the exchange rate are usually in responding (though often with certain time lag) to the relative levels of inflation. Exchange rates could also be distorted by artificial measures and government controls. Serious distortions will generally result in loss of traffic and switching of travel to more competitive substitute areas. It also leads to sizeable underground trading

between foreign tourists and locals in the black market in many former Eastern European countries and the Soviet Union (Fish & Edwards 1989).

Energy Supply

Tourism is an industry that is directly affected by changes in oil prices since the most popular forms of travel—air and automobile—are oil dependent. Oil prices rose dramatically in the 1970s, including a quadrupling of aviation fuel prices between March 1973 and 1974; then they fell somewhat less dramatically in the 1980s and they now appear to be fluctuating. The severe effects of oil price rises and the consequent gasoline shortages have excited intensive discussion (see e.g., Corsi & Harvey 1979; Kamp et al 1979; Maiden 1986; Pizam & Pokela 1983; Solomon & George 1976; Trent & Pollard 1983).

At the global level, the oil price shock in the mid-1970s could be one of the key factors which contribute to the levelling off in world tourism demand. One study shows that the gasoline price elasticity of demand is -0.35 . This means that, given all other things equal, a 1 percent decrease in gasoline prices will increase tourism expenditures by 0.35 percent, and vice versa (Steinnes 1988). However, as automobiles and airplanes have been designed and built to be increasingly more fuel-efficient, the effects of minor changes in oil prices on travel demand tend to be limited.

3.5 FUTURE TRENDS IN THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

This section aims to assess the general world economic environment and forecast its possible behaviour in the coming decades.

The Prospects of World Economic Growth

The world economy has undergone revolutionary changes during the past 50 years. Perhaps the greatest and most profound change is the emergence of global markets and global competition. The integration of the world economy has increased from less than 10 percent at the turn of this century to approximately 50 percent today. This rapid movement towards a more global economy is largely explained and will be continuously influenced by many interrelated factors such as the removal of barriers, major developments in transport, communications and technology, changes in financial institutions, the growth of multinational companies, and changes in market characteristics.

According to the UN's 1990 World Economic Survey, world output grew by just over 30 percent in the 1980s, more slowly than in the 1970s, when it increased by over 45 percent. World per capita output grew by about 1 percent a year compared with 2 percent in the previous decade. While the global

economy expanded more slowly, there was a great diversity of growth experience (see Table 5 and Figure 28).

Table 5 Growth of world output, 1971-1990, per capita GDP and share of world population by country groups

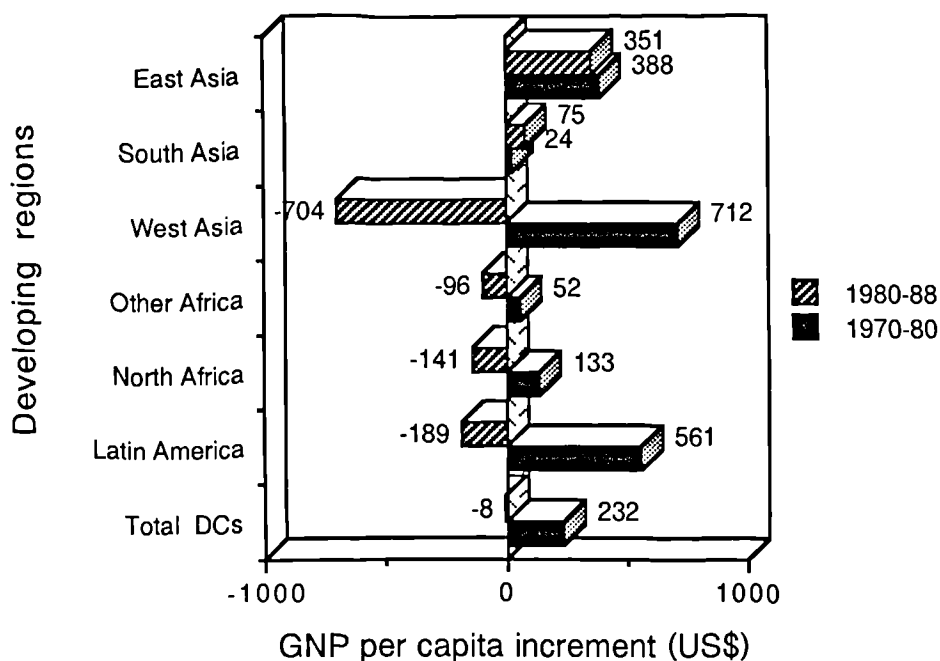
	Growth of GDP(%pa)		GDP per capita (1980\$)	
	1971-80	1981-90	1980	1990
Developed market economies	3.1	2.6	10200	12500
Eastern Europe & USSR	5.2	2.5	3200	3820
Developing countries	5.6	3.2	760	850
Africa	4.9	0.5	750	580
Western hemisphere	5.5	1.0	2320	2090
South & East Asia	5.8	7.0	380	570
China	5.9	9.0	290	610
West Asia	6.5	-0.2	4180	300
Mediterranean	5.3	3.2	1940	2210

Source: UN (1990b).

Growth in developed market economies slowed from 3.1 percent in the 1970s to 2.6 percent in the 1980s. Per capita income still increased by about 2 percent a year over the decade. Among developing countries, however, there was great divergence. In Africa and Latin America the annual rate of growth of GDP plummeted from some 5 percent in the 1970s to about 1 percent in the 1980s. By contrast, South and East Asia, including China, grew by 7 percent a year in the 1980s. This altered the relative position of countries on the income scale. The absolute income gap between the two groups of countries increased by over \$2,210 (in 1980 prices) during the 1980s (This compares with an increase in the gap of more than

\$1,800 during the decade of the 1970s). In relative terms, per capita income in developing countries fell from 7.5 percent of that in developed countries in 1980 to 6.8 percent in 1990.

Figure 28 Changes of GNP per capita of developing countries



Source: UNCTAD (1990).

The prospects ahead, like the experiences before, vary greatly in different countries and regions. It has been said that there may be no realistic hope of the present underdeveloped countries reaching the standard of living demonstrated by the present industrialised nations because the environmental system appears not to exist for handling such a rise in standard of living (Forrester 1971:302). Meanwhile, it is quite possible for some of the developing countries to catch up developed countries in the near future. Actually, a few countries, mainly small ones in East Asia, already have many of the

characteristics of the more-developed countries. Others, including some large ones, are likely to reach a similar stage by 2010. The majority of the developing nations, however, face problems which, on current trends, are likely to keep them far behind for several decades more. The least developed countries (47 in 1992 categorised by the UN) tend to be increasingly marginalised (UNCTAD 1992).

It is no doubt, that the total output of the developing world will grow considerably in the next two decades. Although it is still likely to constitute no more than one fifth of the world total. Between them the developing countries will comprise a very large market to generate or receive international tourists.

Experience shows that economic growth in developing countries is strongly dependent upon the external environment, including the strength of demand in developed countries, terms of trade development, and the availability of external financing (IMF 1992). In particular, the developed countries' policies for aid, trade, investment and debt remission will have an important bearing on the economic growth that can be achieved in many developing countries, and hence on the extent to which they become expanding markets for the developed countries' exports. Future transfers motivated by self-interest on the part of the industrial "North" are likely to be much greater than past ones motivated by altruism (Northcott 1991:87-88).

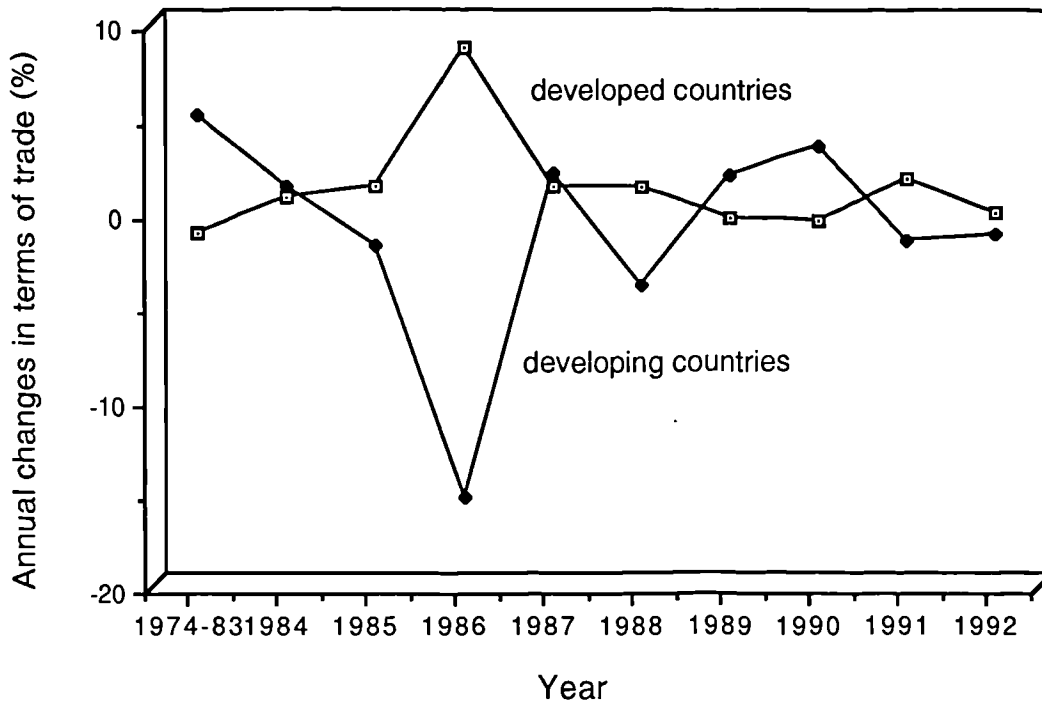
Trends of Other Economic Factors

Since the late 1970s, there have been a strong movement towards privatisation in developing countries as well as developed nations (R Molz 1990). The last a few years witnessed the transformation of the former Soviet Union and Eastern European countries from a socialist system into free market economies. Various forms of economic reform have also brought an increasingly significant market sector into the economies of the remaining socialist countries. In virtually all nations, governments have turned more to market allocation of resources and provided the private sector more space to operate. It may be said that these trends will continue in the next few decades since there appears no reasons suggesting they should be reversed.

World trade has grown faster than world production since the end of the Second World War. Despite their efforts at industrialisation, most developing countries remain exporters of agricultural products and minerals—often called “commodities”—and importers of manufactures. The global prospects for trade of developing countries, like the past experience shown, are related to the terms of trade, mainly the prices of commodities relative to those of manufactured goods and difficult to generalise. In short, the share of the world export market of the newly industrialised countries will continue to increase while that of the least developed countries tends to shrink. The total share of the developing world in global trade will remain largely unchanged (Grilli & Yang 1988; Krueger 1992; UNCTAD 1992). Figure 29 shows the

changes of the terms of trade of developed and developing countries in the last two decades.

Figure 29 Changes in the terms of trade (1974-1992)



Source: data from IMF (1992), World Economic Outlook, May 1992.

The prospects of future energy supply tend not to be pessimistic. Since the early 1970s, there have been two “round” of large oil price increases—one in 1973-74 and another in 1979-80—and a “episode” of sharp price rise—in 1990. There appears little possibility, however, for oil price to increase sharply in the near future. This is because, on the one hand, due to the substitution of non-oil energy sources for oil, the effects of conservation efforts and the increases in energy efficiency, mainly in response to the large oil price increases throughout the last two decades, the world total oil consumption declined in the first half of the 1980s and during

the last few years increased by only some 1 percent annually; on the other, the significantly increased total inventories of oil in the world and the availability of substantial spare capacity could serve to dampen any upward trend in oil prices over the medium to longer term (IMF 1991; Imarn & Barnes 1990; UN 1990b).

3.6 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The movement towards a global economy that has already taken place, together with the further developments in prospect, imply an increasingly degree of interdependence and need for co-operation between different economies (OECD 1990). New opportunities for development arose and new challenges emerged which will lead national economies more open and more integrated. One of the significant trends will be the emergence of the “knowledge economy” and in which the traditional protectionism or traditional free trade are replaced by huge regional economic units (such as the EC and ASEAN) that is big enough to establish meaningful free trade and strong competition within the unit (Drucker 1992).

As an outlooking economic sector, international tourism could be one of the major beneficiaries of these changes. Tourism will also be continuously favoured by most countries, especially many developing ones, as a priority industry and a means of

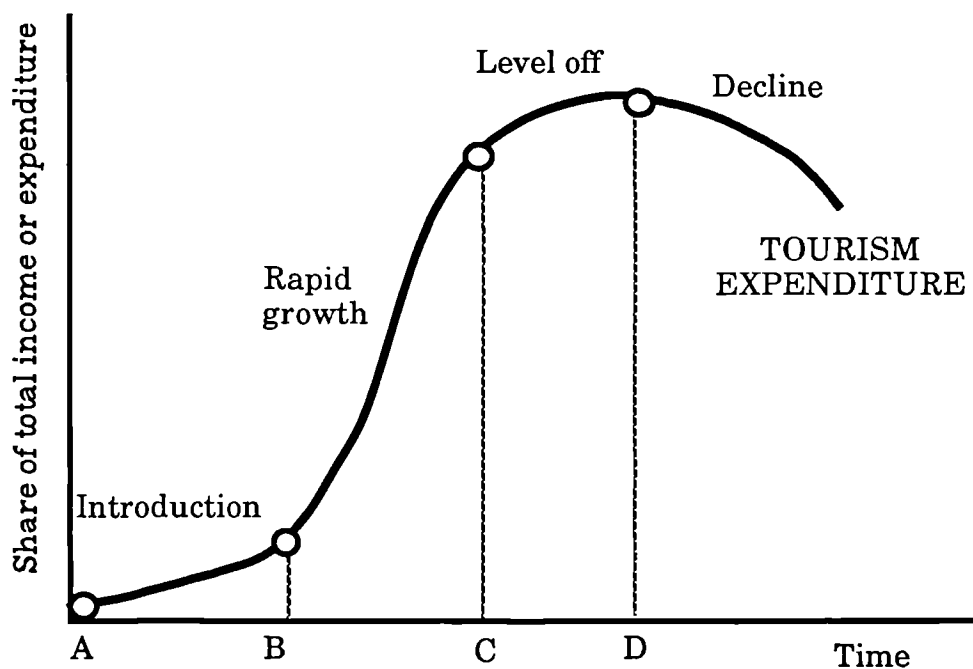
contributing to the payments balance, employment creation and economic development.

Economic growth and rising income would normally increase tourism demand, but not at the same rate across different income levels. For the least developed countries and other poor nations with GNP per capita under \$1,000, increase or decrease in real income will hardly affect total tourism demand for their share in the global market is very small and any change in income will matter little to their citizens' demand for travel. For those developed countries with a per capita income over \$20,000 any further increase may also not lead to a expansion in the numbers of holiday taken or the travel participation rate because of the ceiling effect. It is those middle and upper-middle income (GNP per capita between 5,000 and 10,000 dollars, see Figure 16 on page 84) countries that will contribute the most in the future to the growth in tourism demand as they are at the turning point of tourism demand and any increase in income will produce a larger expansion to travel flow as the newly industrialised countries have shown in the last few decade. Of course, this is a only extremely generalised assertion. The "ceiling" and "threshold" of tourism demand are difficult to identify and have scarcely been tackled except in a few minor attempts (see e.g., A Edwards 1988; Waters 1967).

Figure 30 illustrates the hypothetical relationship between tourism expenditure and total income or total consumer expenditure over time. It suggests that along with a

continuously rising income level, the share of tourism spending in total spending or total income will gradually increase after its introduction at point A, followed by a rapid growth period after point B, then levelling off in its maturity stage after point C, and a decline is likely after it reaches a peak at point D and other leisure activities become relatively more popular. It may be maintained that most low income countries, especially the least developed ones, are still in the introduction stage of the process, while most high income developed nations are in the level off stage, and many newly industrialised states are in the stage of rapid growth.

Figure 30 A hypothetical tourism life cycle



While the growth of tourism spending in all countries tends to follow the same pattern, the time needed to pass each stage and complete the whole process depends on many variables, such

as the rate of income growth and the expansion of tourism supply. This process is also often interrupted by wars and political upheavals, and by periods of economic recession or slump. It is clear that tourism can not continue rapid growth indefinitely and the proportion of income spend on tourism changes over time corresponding to the income levels and other factors of a country.

The varied income elasticity of tourism demand at different income levels and the differentiated prospects in economic growth of different groups of countries, will affect significantly the distribution of tourist generating centres and tourist flows. Of particular importance is the emergence of new international travellers originating regions in East and South-East Asia and the intra-regional travel flows within these regions. The role of intra-regional travel will be increasingly important in developing countries while in the developed world it may remain fairly stable. Careful examinations of the tourism development possibilities of various tourist destination and originating countries and regions, as indicated by the discussion of different economic growth prospects, could provide an indication of the potential investment opportunities available to tourism firms, especially the multinational tourism corporations.

Nevertheless, the core-periphery interrelationships between the major tourist generating markets in the West and the destinations in developing countries will remain largely stable though the dominant role of Europe and North America in the

global tourist market tends to decline gradually. Most developing nations will continue to depend on the metropolitan centres, not only as sources of tourist but also suppliers of the other resources involved in tourist development (capital, know-how, etc.). These countries, being in a dependent or periphery position, can only expand as a reflection of the expansion of the dominant or centre countries. In global tourism, this core-periphery relationship remains to be basically a function of the technological and economic superiority of the travel-generating, metropolitan core areas; as such, the willingness of the destination areas to adopt metropolitan values and solutions in order to meet the various demands of metropolitan travellers will continue.

Past experience shows that the level of international tourism development is closely associated with economic level in terms of tourist-receiving as well as originating countries. The further a country's development has already proceeded and the more numerous and varied its basic activities are the greater its chances of benefiting from tourism. It has thus been claimed that "it is not tourism which permits development but development which permits tourism" (Ascher 1985:83). This may continue to be the case in the next few decades in that although the share of developing countries of the global tourism market tends to increase, the large increment will only be seen in newly developed countries and regions and the net benefit accrued to the developing world will be significantly less than that shown by its tourism receipts due to high level of "leakages".

In conclusion, the prospects of the economic environment of world tourism is promising. There is no doubt that tourism will remain to be the world's biggest industry in the twenty-first century and there appears to be a gradual shift in the distribution of tourism destinations and markets from Europe and North America to the Pacific Rim (WTO 1983d & 1990).

CHAPTER FOUR

POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

As an economic sector, a social activity and a political phenomenon, tourism is affected strongly by political and legislative forces at both domestic and international levels. Not only is tourism often manipulated for political purposes but “political factors can create, alter or destroy the bases of comparative advantage” (Dicken 1986:136) of tourism. However, the implications of political factors for tourism development “have been only rarely perceived and almost nowhere fully understood” (Richter 1989:2). This chapter is designed to explore all the major political and legislative factors which have various effects on the development of tourism by identifying their nature and possible changes, and discussing the implications for tourism development.

4.1 POLITICAL STRUCTURE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

This sector analyses the influences of the political culture on the various aspects of tourism development. Attitudes about and control of tourism and other of businesses in a country’s economic life, as well as what relationships should exist

between business and government, vary throughout the world. These differences in attitude and control may be due to different political structures or to party philosophies, history, and tradition; the roles of interest groups or the political elite; an unstable political environment; or any number of reasons.

Political System and Ideology

A political system is a set of structures, processes and institutions which interact with each other, and, across the boundaries of the system, with the environment to “allocate values authoritatively for a society, to attain the goals of society, and generally to perform those functions which may be defined as political” (Roberts 1971:167). Although the relationship between political system and international travel has been noticed (Kushman et al 1980), it is still an issue which remains to be explored.

An ideology consists of the ideas or beliefs about the world shared by people with compatible interests. A dominant ideology is one held by most of the people who shape a society’s view of the world, and consequently one that is held by most people in that society, although it may represent the interest of only a fraction of them (Harris 1968). A political ideology is thus the set of primary values from which a person derives his attitude towards political events and problems, and which guide his political conduct.

Conservative governments usually promote a broad role for private business in the country's economic life with a minimum of restrictions on its activities. Socialist governments, on the other hand, may encourage public ownership of business and a more comprehensive and restrictive regulatory environment. The key values espoused by liberalism are freedom of the individual to pursue his or her interests and individual responsibility for one's own well-being (Henry 1993). It is important to understand the philosophy of the government in power, as well as those philosophies that guide opposing political parties and other significant political forces in a country because a change in political power can dramatically change accepted political philosophy. However, not all political ideologies and philosophies can easily be classified on a single, simple and unidimensional conservative-moderate-liberal-leftist continuum. Governments may pursue mixed policies to achieve different goals in different circumstances.

The relationship between ideology and tourism policy is not straightforward and is neglected in tourism studies. However, it appears that political ideologies are often closely related to the perceptions of the impacts (especially the negative impacts) of tourism (Bugnicourt 1977; Matthews 1978; Nash 1989). In terms of the attitude towards tourism, usually, liberals indicated that tourism enhanced the quality of life, while conservatives tended to favour either a status quo orientation or were at least less supportive of tourism development than liberals. Liberals may be more likely to support tourism

development, while conservatives seek to retain the existing economy (Snepenger & Johnson 1991).

As the main international tourist generators are Western democratic, capitalistic countries, it is often countries with similar ideologies which have favourable conditions for developing tourism. Political ideology is usually more dynamic than the political system in a country. Changes in political ideology are, as the recent political developments in the former socialist bloc indicate, often in advance of and followed by changes in the political system. The new political philosophy in former socialist and other closed societies have opened the door to foreign tourists in China, East Europe and the former Soviet Union (Arefyev & Mieczkowski 1991; Chow 1988; Hunt 1989; Tisdell & Wen 1991; Vallen & Levinson 1989).

Nationalism

As a significant political ideology, nationalism provides the link between culture and politics. Nationalism as a term only emerged in the late nineteenth century. As an idea, though, it can be traced back to the earlier concept known as the “principle of nationality” (Hobsbawm 1987:143). “We should never underestimate the ideology of nationalism” (Taylor 1989:174) as “No other vision has set its stamp so thoroughly on the map of the world and on our sense of identity” (Smith 1979:1). We live in an age in which the currents of nationalism seem to be running in two directions. In the one direction, among the advanced countries, there is an unmistakable

tendency and direction toward the affirmation of a world community and interdependence. In the other direction, in some developing countries, the extreme nationalist activities are disintegrating countries into small units.

Nationalism is expressed, even stimulated, in a variety of ways. Patriotism, national pride and national identity are expressions of nationalistic feelings. New nationalisms in particular require the celebration of selected aspects of the national character, national values, and preferably a founding mythology of national emergence. Much of the cultural and historical heritages could be attached to these feelings and activities and served as tourist attractions. However, the emergent nationalisms in former colonies have difficulty in relating to a conserved urban heritage that recalls former colonizers, until these are no longer perceived as a threat (Ashworth & Tunbridge 1990:29). A somewhat more threatening form of nationalism for international tourism is economic sovereignty which is the force behind policies that restrict profit repatriation, domestic ownership or equity rules, requirements to use local sources of supply, and restrictions on the use of foreign personnel or technology. In some extreme cases, it is also related to anti-Western feelings and activities in many developing states. Extreme nationalist activities could also lead to negative effects on tourism in some developed countries, such as the destruction of English owned second homes in north Wales.

The readiness of governments to develop their tourist sectors, especially the deployment of transnational corporations in its tourism development, can often be understood in terms of the forces of nationalism and the political background of dependence and isolation. Each nation-state has its own nationalistic spirit and set of national goals. Worldwide, the role of transnational corporations in international tourism is well recognised and recorded (see, e.g., Ascher 1985; Glyptis & Ritchie 1990; UNCTC 1982; WTO 1985b) and many developing countries depend on them for investment, technology and management expertise. However, in certain countries, such as Madagascar, the nationalisation policy pursued after 1975 has made investment in tourism difficult to attract (EIU 1985:12). In some Middle East countries, strong nationalist ideology and anti-Western feelings could be partly responsible for their poor record in tourism development.

Political Structure

“The ways in which tourism is organised, and its impacts, can be expected to differ considerably in countries with different political structure” (de Kadt 1979:32). One important part of the analysis of a country’s political environment is to study its political structure and decision-making processes. The basic structure is determined by the roles of citizens, political parties, and special-interest groups in the power structure and in political decisions.

(i) Dictatorship or democracy. In democracies, all these groups have comparatively high participation in decision making; in monarchies and dictatorships, these groups play minimal roles, except for the military, which as a special-interest group, may be important in selecting a dictator. In communist political structures, the political party is central to decision making, while citizens and other interest groups are less important. Yet some communist governments have evolved greater decentralisation of policy and decisions on business activities. Each of the models of government—democracy, monarchy, dictatorship, socialism, and communism—can vary greatly in the way it is practised. For example, in democracies, executives can be elected directly (the US), chosen by the dominant political party (Britain or Canada), chosen by a coalition of political parties (Italy or France), or chosen by the outgoing executive (Mexico). These aspects of transferring political power tell a lot more about the political environment than do voter participation rates.

Coulter (1975) identifies three aspects of liberal democracy—political competitiveness, political participation and public liberties—and combines them into a single index. Multi-party elections, voter participation and freedom of group oppositions are all elements in this index. The economic development level in a country is the best single explanation of liberal democracy.

The freedom to travel is closely related to democracy (Gastil 1989; Vanhanen 1990). Tourism, especially mass tourism, is essentially a phenomenon of democracy. It is a product of

democratisation in the distribution of income, leisure time and human rights (Nash 1979; Walton & Walvin 1983). It is no surprise that tourism has only been developed at a high level in developed democratic countries where the right to holiday and freedom of travel are fully recognised, leisure policies have been established for the mass population (Branham et al 1989), and special forms or social tourism are offered to the disadvantaged groups in the society (Libicki 1989).

Many authoritarian regimes, in contrast, deny its citizens fundamental human rights and freedoms and ruthlessly suppress the any gestures of dissent. In those countries, both domestic and international tourism are often limited and controlled as they are conceived as engendering increasing political expectation and demand among the masses. Therefore, it is no accident that in a very long period many authoritarian regimes such as Burma, North Korea, Albania, and Guyana under Forbes Burnham followed an official policy of discouraging tourism. Nevertheless, authoritarianism is not always incompatible with tourism, as exemplified by Marcos' Philippines, Castro's Cuba, pre-democratic Chile under Pinochet and Greece after the dictatorial rule in 1967. Such a system, however, does influence the purpose, shape, capacity and viability of tourism (Brotherson 1993; Leontidou 1991).

(ii) Government and the power system. Governments create the framework within which industries and firms operate and compete. Governments themselves are seldom monolithic in their positions on any policy. Differences in values or ideology

may exist among the branches of government, among the agencies in the executive branch, or among the legislators. These differences provide a fertile field within which alliances may form among various interest groups, agency officials, and legislators to advocate or oppose some change in public policy. The various interest groups (e.g., unions, environmentalists, consumers, farmers, industry groups) that try to influence governmental policies are an important part of modern political systems.

The government machine, which consists of central government, local government, quasi-governmental, and quasi-judicial bodies, affects organisations in a number of ways. Some of these include the regulation of activities, the encouragement of activities, charging for services, and giving grants, etc. Such local and national institutions affect the workings of all industries and organisations. The division of power and finance among the national, regional and local governments will also have significant implications to tourism development. For example, federal Switzerland and Germany have quite different tourism policy structures from those which have evolved in more centralised France or Portugal (Williams & Shaw 1991b).

(iii) Interest and pressure groups. Society appears fraught with interest groups, whose objectives will be different. The government's task in such a situation is to maintain equilibrium between the potentially conflicting objectives of the various groups. The wide range of impacts, especially the

negative social and environmental impacts of tourism development have attracted much attention of various interest groups.

One obvious example is the opposition of many women and church groups to sex tourism. It has been argued that “travel for pleasure and adventure has been profoundly gendered” (Enloe 1989:40-41). Nowhere is this more evident than in sex tourism, and international tourism has undoubtedly contributed, directly or indirectly, to prostitution of all kind in many countries (Graburn 1983; Hall 1992; Meyer 1988). In protecting the interest of women and social morality, many “women’s groups and church associations have made tourism a significant part of their agenda, especially in developing nations” (Richter 1989:2). In recent decades, the increasing pollution and the damage to wildlife and vegetation caused by tourism have excited strong response from environmental groups at all levels (OECD 1981; WTO/UNEP 1983).

Many other interest groups, such as industrial associations, trade unions, consumer organisations, and local communities, have also played an important part in promoting or limiting tourism development in certain area or sector and protecting the interest of employees and tourists. How much interest groups can do is a function of the salience of tourism, the economic and political resources of various groups, and the scope for pluralist interest group activity.

Some international groups are more free to investigate tourism problems than domestic groups in authoritarian or socialist countries, such as the Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism (ECTWT), the Tourism Ecumenical Network (TEN), the UN, environmental groups, and some women's and labour organizations.

The tourism industry itself could also form pressure groups and involve in "tourism lobby" by uniting in a strong front and pressing for public administrators with expertise in tourism to ensure that a more balanced and realistic case of tourism development is presented. "The tourism industry", according to *The Hague Declaration on Tourism*, "has failed to present the real image of tourism and, at least until now, has not been successful in developing effective support for tourism particularly from parliamentarians" (cited in Edgell 1990: 184). There have been some attempts in the UK, though its progress is hampered, mainly by the fragmented structure of the tourism industry (Wanhill 1987).

4.2 POLITICAL CLIMATE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Comparatively, this section discusses the impacts of political forces exercised on tourism from a more dynamic and short-term perspective, i.e., examines the influences on tourism of political situation and its changes.

Political Instability and Tourism Development

Political instability is a key issue in tourism especially at the international dimension (Kennedy 1987; Robrin 1982). In tourism development, political stability is a necessary condition, though not sufficient, similar to the “Hygiene Factor” of Herzberg’s motivation theory. That is, while political stability itself or the mere absence of political instability will not necessarily promote tourism development; the presence of political instability will certainly have a negative effect on tourism, in particular the attractiveness of a tourist destination and the distribution of tourist flows. In fact, the world’s “danger spots” are usually at the same time the least developed tourist countries and areas.

Political situations may be classified and measured according to the degree of stability, such as violence, disturbance, terrorism, chaos, revolution, and war. A good example of a political instability index is the one developed by Feierabend and Feierabend (1966) which is a three-digit score based on the severity of the most destabilising event in recent political history and the frequency of destabilising activities within the country.

Political events included in the Feierabend Index are:

elections, vacation of office, significant change of laws, acquisition of office, severe trouble within a non-governmental organisation, organisation of opposition party, government action against significant groups, micro strikes, general strikes, macro strikes, micro demonstrations, macro demonstrations, micro riots, macro riots, severe

macro riots, arrests of significant persons, imprisonment of significant persons, arrests of few insignificant persons, mass arrests of insignificant persons, imprisonment of insignificant persons, assassinations, martial law, executions of significant persons, execution of insignificant persons, terrorism and sabotage, guerrilla warfare, civil war, coups d'etat, revolts, exile.

Political instability is also a major handicap for uncertainty and personal insecurity are scarcely compatible with the quest for rest and relaxation! Sharp downturns in the tourist traffic have thus accompanied political upheaval, war and terrorist activity in different parts of the world (e.g., Greece, late 1960s; Spain, 1974 and 1976; Fiji, 1987; Cyprus Turkey invasion, 1974; Afghanistan after the Russian invasion in 1979). However, tourist memories have been shown to be relatively short, with a return to business as usual with a resumption of normal conditions.

In a recent study (EIU 1994), the impacts of political instability on international tourism were categorised into three types: fundamental, long-term disruption, such as has occurred in Lebanon, Northern Ireland, Sri Lanka, Uganda and the former Yugoslavia; on-going volatility and uncertainty in tourist destinations such as Egypt, Israel, Jamaica, Turkey and the Philippines; and short-term, single event disruption such as in China, Fiji and Florida. In this research, the impacts of political climate changes on tourism development are examined from a different angle.

Changes in Government

Political instability may be caused by changes in government. A change in government always brings with it new brooms, whether that change is a complete change to a new political party, or whether the change is exhibited merely by a reelected government restructuring itself. If we take the first case of a government after a general election being of a different political persuasion than its predecessor, the resultant changes should be quite clear. Whenever a complete change of government occurs, we expect to see major changes in relation to the policies pursued by the victors. Minor changes are more generally those variations which occur from time to time which make policy workable.

The orderly or “regular” transfer of political power from one substantive ruler to another is generally regarded as a major test of the stability and legitimacy of a government and political system. Valerie Bunce (1981), after studying executive succession and public policy in both capitalist and socialist countries, claims that new leaders do make a difference. This is especially true when the leader change is an “irregular transfers” which is a change of government accomplished outside the conventional legal procedures in effect at the time of the change, and with actual or threatened violence—usually by military coups d’etat, though also on occasion by revolution or urban upheaval. The military coup in Portugal, Ghana, and Fiji caused substantial downfall in tourist bed-nights in the

following year (Lewis & Williams 1991; R Scott 1988; Teye 1988b).

War and Political Upheavals

Although the contribution of war to progress in technology and travel has been recognised: “the First World War confirmed the coming importance of the motor car, the Second the potential of aviation... Each time reactions to war, and social changes brought about during and after the war, provided strong stimuli to travel away from home” (Burkart & Medlik 1990:34); the devastating effects of war on tourism have been much more widely reported (Hollier 1991; Teye 1986; WTO 1991).

Since 1945 the world has remained free of the major world conflicts that marked the first half of the century. Although post-war geopolitics has been characterised by an abundance of regional and low-intensity conflict, battles continue to be localised and limited to conventional weapons. Not only is the conflict localised, but it also takes place entirely in the countries outside the developed world which account for over 80 percent of the world tourist market potential. World War I and II were essentially industrialised country conflicts. Today, the wars in the world are between countries that are in the developing world.

The effects of war on tourism may be analysed by differentiating wars by their nature, scale and location. In

terms of the spatial scale and location, wars are of many kind: civil war, border war, intra-regional war, interregional war, world war, war in neighbouring countries, and war in other countries. These wars are further complicated by the causes and the degree of intensity, the span of period, and the power balance between the involved. Obviously, the implication of war to tourism development in a country is a complex one and different types of war have different implications to tourism. For example, while the wars in Ethiopia, Somali, Afghanistan and Cambodia excluded tourism there, wars in Sri Lanka, Cyprus and Yugoslavia severely damaged their tourism industry. The regional warfare in the Middle East and Central American countries hampered the prospects of international tourism in these regions. War in neighbouring countries wrecked the tourism industry in Zambia and Jordan, but it promoted tourism in Thailand and the Philippines.

The implication of war to tourism is far beyond the consideration of tourism safety and security. In order to prepare and launch a war, governments devote a large part of their resources to military purposes, cannot usually at the same time afford to develop tourism by building new hotels and promoting tourist attractions. It is estimated that for the countries most severely affected by war, the return of peace and stability could in itself release resources of perhaps 5 percent or more of GDP that could be redirected to development efforts, and would create conditions in which international aid and other investment flows (in many cases

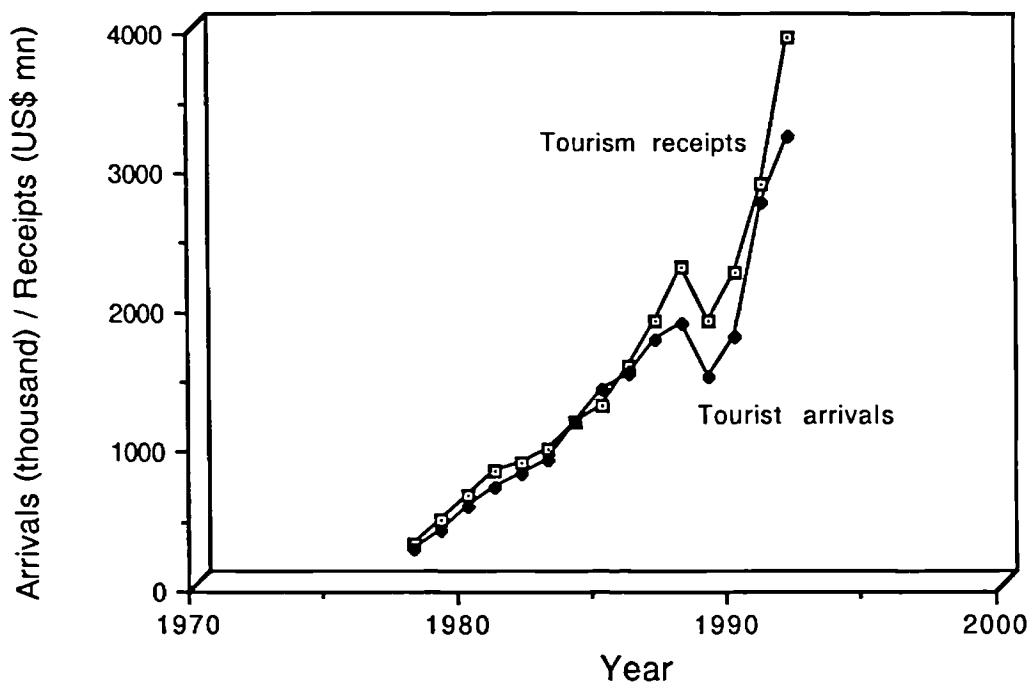
long stagnant because of civil war) would again prove productive (UNCTAD 1992:15).

“Political instability is endemic in much of the Third World. Scarcity, deprivation, inequality, remnants of colonialism and the proxy wars of the superpowers set the stage for random violence, ethnic conflict, revolution and even hostage-taking” (Richter 1992:35). Especially in the least developed world where only a quarter of the countries enjoyed basic peace and stability during the last two decades. Of the remaining countries have been involved in full-scale civil wars, or coups or attempted coups, insurgency attacks, severe ethnic unrest, uprisings and martial laws, or constitutional crises accompanied by strong civil tensions. Some of the direct costs can be seen in terms of refugee flows: almost 12 million people have fled from war and crises situations in at least 14 least developed countries (UNCTAD 1992).

Other political events have also left their marks on tourism, as in the downturn in visitor arrivals associated with independence in Papua New Guinea (1975) and Vanuatu (1980), where secessionist problems carried internal disturbances and a dampened demand through to 1981 (D Pearce 1989:132). Social unrest in 1960s and 1970s alienated the tourism market in Dominica (Weaver 1991). Civil unrest, violence and political instability has been identified as one of the major problems checking tourism in India (Ahmed 1991). Similar to terrorism, other types of crime are also negatively affect tourism (Fujii & Mak 1980; Nicholls 1976; Pizam 1982).

Political events, if without substantially damaging the tourist attractions and facilities and without causing high risks to tourist's safety, will often have short-lived (even though sometimes devastating) impacts on tourism. Such as the case of China demonstrated, the political event in June 1989 was well publicised in the world which caused a collapse of its international tourism sector. But the flow of foreign tourists to China recovered in just two years (see Figure 31).

Figure 31 The effect of the 1989 event on the international tourism industry in China

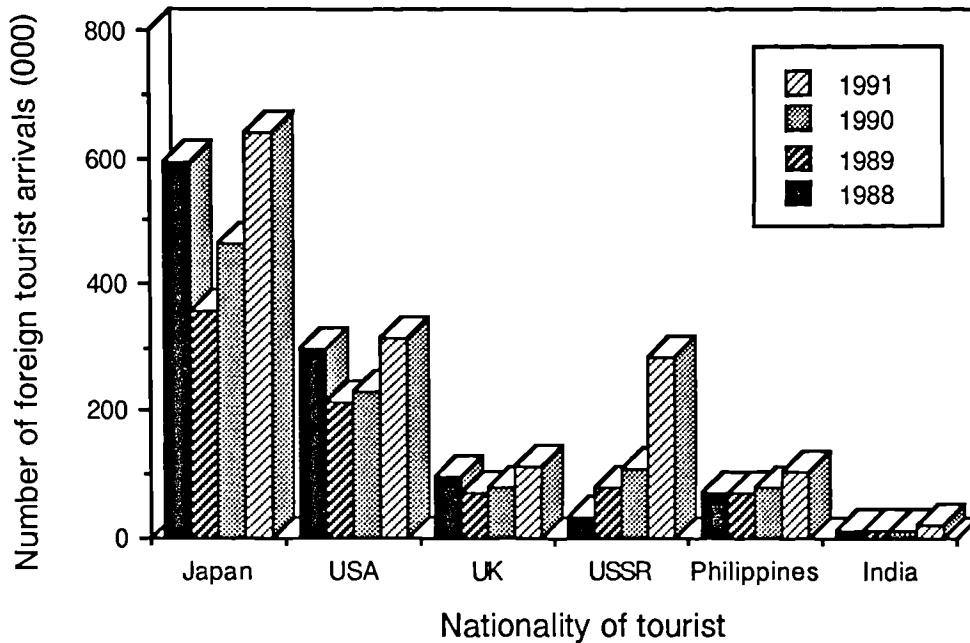


Source: data from the China National Tourism Administration.

Moreover, different tourist market often respond differently to political events throughout the world. Figure 32 shows that while the 1989 events reduced the tourist flows from the USA,

UK and Japan to China, those from India, Philippines and the former Soviet Union were largely unaffected.

Figure 32 Response of different tourism markets to the 1989 event in China



Source: data from the China National Tourism Administration.

Terrorist Activities

“Tourists are particularly useful to terrorists because they greatly alter the political stakes by spreading the conflict beyond the terrorist’s immediate quarrel with the political establishment” (Richter 1989:9). Since what is being sold is relaxation or at least enjoyment, any hint of insecurity about a destination can cripple the industry. The negative effects of terrorism on tourism have been examined in many studies (see, e.g., Anolik 1986; D’Amore & Anuza 1986; Enders & Sandler 1991; Richter & Waugh 1986). The major threats of

terrorist activities to tourism is that to the safety of tourists in transportation and at the destination.

Often with equal significance is the wide media coverage which tends to results in an perception of exaggerated risk of being attacked by terrorists than that would actually be. Although it is an unmanageable environmental factor, it is recommended that the industry should attempt to “manage” terrorism (Conant et al 1988). The difficulty in “managing” terrorism is, however, that it is “a war that knows no borders or seldom has a face” (Jacques Chirac, cited in Stewart 1984:241), without effective political measures from the governments involved, the tourism sector alone has little influence over its effects.

In conclusion, tourism, especially international tourism, has shown itself to be susceptible to concerns over political instability and risks to personal safety. At its most extreme, outbreaks of military conflict are able to destroy established tourism sectors completely, as has been demonstrated recently in the former Yugoslavia. In less extreme circumstances, terrorist activities and civil unrest can fluctuate and disrupt the tourism growth trend of a destination.

As political instability can have a devastating effect on tourism, national planners should consider a political audit of possible internal and external sources of political disruption, alternative sources of transportation, security and supplies, and some contingency or risk analysis. “Too often, potential attractions

are listed and sources of investment capital wooed before the necessary political evaluation takes place” (Richter 1992:46).

4.3 LEGISLATION AND REGULATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Law is the ordering of activity; it spells out the rules of the game. All economic and social activities are under the influences of law and the kind. Government legislation sets out rules and norms of business operations, ranging from the kind of legal identity a firm can have to what it can charge different buyers to how many hours a day its employees can work. Beside legislation, governments in most nations also influence tourism development through directives, guidance, fiscal and monetary measures, and the creation and modification of special bodies.

In different countries not only are the “rules” for business different, but the ways they are applied vary. International business is seriously hampered by the absence of international courts or legal systems. Although there are some important treaties between countries, there is no international arena in which to enforce business conflicts, and foreign marketers must abide by the individual laws regulating their operations in each national market.

The legal framework within which tourism functions may be divided into two parts: one is totally beyond the control or

influence of the industry and its enterprises—such as the rules of common law—and the other operates essentially in response to positive action on the part of the tourist sector—development control, for example. The discussion of the legal environment could be narrowed down from the general code of common law through legislation having particular relevance to economy until we have reached the point at which legislation becomes more specifically pertinent to tourism.

In this section, however, for the purposes of discussion, the laws and regulations that are relevant to tourism are classified into two interrelated types: (a) implicit tourism legislation, which involve legislation not normally thought of as having a tourism outcome but inevitably affect tourism operation; for example, merger and anti-trust law, labour regulation, and trade agreements; and (b) explicit tourism legislation, which are ‘targeted’ at the tourism industry, such as the regulations on transport and travel service operations, and special tourism taxes.

Legislation Affecting All Industries

(i) **Business Operation.** The regulation and controls on business companies are important to all industries including tourism. The most common of these include the regulations on investment, trade, competition, imports, ownership, advertising, and so on. The implications of various investment incentives to the development of different industries are obvious, and often lead to a change in the industrial and/or

spatial structure of the economy. Restrictions on imports have been used by many countries at various times to protect their domestic industries and have significant implications to transnational investment and operation. Restrictions on business ownership and forms of organisation, especially those designed to protect competition and restrict monopoly, are not originally aimed at but later extended to the tourist industry, such as the Combine Investigation Act in Canada which prohibits a range of anti-competitive behaviour had only extended to the hotel sector in 1976. However, they are of critical importance to the operation and expansion of tourist business especially the larger tourist companies. In the UK, for example, the merger or take-over, of large companies, will often be examined by the Monopolies and Mergers Commission which has certainly affected the changes in the market structure of industries (MMC 1986; 1989). The recent bid for Airtour Abroad is also a case in point.

(ii) Environmental and Landuse Regulation. In recent years government controls on the quality of the environment have increased significantly. Appropriate permits are often necessary for building new projects or reconstructing existing facilities. In the UK, for example, development-control powers give local authorities considerable scope to refuse planning permission for new, including leisure and tourist projects but less power to modify existing tourist activities. In the USA, the National Environmental Policy Act of 1970, the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act of the 1968, and many others have been considered as having

many implications for tourism because it is a foundation declaration of national concern over how the resource of the country are to be used as well as protected (Gunn 1987). By the late 1980s most European countries had harmoniously integrated with environmental conservation though this still remains an elusive goal rather than common practices (William & Shaw 1991b).

Many countries have increasingly developed and implemented land use controls as necessary to the welfare of the nation which inevitably affect tourism operation and development (Leslie 1990; Mather 1986; Roehl & Fesenmaier 1987). For example the land zoning laws can require that certain areas be solely residential, can regulate the size and type of buildings or industry in an area, and can even specify the maximum size of buildings and the minimum space surrounding the building.

(iii) Labour Market. Tourism is also affected by the general regulation of labour markets. Regulation on minimum wages, work hours, working conditions, equal opportunity, trade unions, employer's liability, and restrictions on immigrations, all affect the supply of and price of labour. For example, Switzerland's immigrant labour laws contribute to the existence of a cheap, flexible and seasonal labour force for tourism. However, these are secondary effects from legislation which usually has not been primarily or specifically designed for the tourist industry. Most direct intervention is limited to

specific minimum wages regulations for the accommodation and catering sectors, and to the provision of training courses.

Legislation Specific to Tourism

Tourist legislation and regulations deal with the operation and management of tourist enterprises, including financial and fiscal incentives; organisation of tourism inside the country; utilisation of land and other natural resources for tourism development; generation of tourism demand (holiday legislation); and business whose activities are of ancillary interest to tourism (Wahab 1975:123).

(i) Regulation of the Transport Industry. Regulation and deregulation in air, rail, road and sea transportation may be one of the most important area of the impacts of legislation on tourism. Civil aviation regulations, concerning both scheduled and non-scheduled (charter) operations, can play a major part in determining accessibility and the level and pattern of tourism demand.

The post war air transport industry grew up in a strictly controlled environment, justified in part by the needs of an infant industry and by a concern to establish common standards world-wide in technical, operational and commercial areas. There are two types of regulations: physical and economical. physical regulation concerns safety and reliability whereas economic control was exerted over rates, entry into and exit from the market, and the level of service

provided. However, since 1978, the major trends in the world air transport industry is deregulation which started by the introduction of legislation deregulating domestic routes and international routes.

Deregulation has given rise a host of changes in the air transport sector, the most important are increased competition and lower airfares. One study indicates that deregulation contributed to significantly lower discount fares but not necessarily to significantly lower normal fares (Dresner 1989). A comparison between the average yield per passenger-kilometres shows that the air fare of the routes within North America are substantially lower than those within Europe. For charter flights, the per passenger-kilometre yield in North America was 4.1 US cents compared to Europe's 5.5 cents in 1987; for schedule flights the same comparison indicates a astonishing disparity: 6.6 cents in North America and 17.3 cents in Europe (A Edwards 1990:78).

Alongside the debate over the issue of deregulation is a related issue of ownership of airlines. There is now a clear trend of privatisation of heretofore nationalised carriers. Over the past few years, the airline industry has seen plans for the whole or partial privatisation of British Airways, Japan Airlines, and Singapore Airlines, among others. Foremost, the monopoly position of the flag carrier on international routes tends to be liquidated as a condition of privatisation. The addition of new airlines and capacity on existing routes is intensifying

competition, giving passengers and travel intermediaries a wider range of price and service offerings.

Air transport deregulation, liberalisation and privatisation in major tourist markets have also created a more integrated world air service market, in which no national market is isolated and the airlines in the non liberalised country will face increasing competition from those in liberalised nations (K Button 1993; Levine 1990).

(ii) Gambling and Sex Tourism. Although often been regarded as immoral, the legalisation of gambling and the prostitution, could contribute substantially to the development of tourism in a country and region. The role of legalised gambling in Las Vegas is well known. Gambling and other entertainment have turned the city which had no significant tourist attractions and no obvious locational advantage into one of the largest tourist cities in the USA. Gambling also helped the regeneration of Atlantic City. It is reported that the recent legalisation of 24-hour gambling in Atlantic City's casinos has been expected to increase annual revenue by 90 million dollars and 1,200 jobs (J Campbell 1993; Samuel 1986). In Lesotho, Monaco and the Bahamas too, gambling is one of the main earner of tourism. Gambling is a good earner of foreign exchange and local residents can be restricted from being involved but culturally this might not be acceptable to many destination countries.

The legitimacy of sex tourism is much more difficult to establish and it is impossible to justify its existence on the moral

grounds. However, tourism is often referred to as the “4Ss” — sun, sea, sand and sex—industry. It is clear that without the “sex” element, the tourism sector in Thailand and the Philippines, earlier in Hong Kong and South Korea, and even in some Western European cities could lose much of their appeal to a substantial large number of tourists (Holden & Pfafflin 1985; Meyer 1988).

(iii) Other legislation related to tourism, such as liquor laws, gambling, racing regulations as well as restrictions on various recreational pursuits such as hunting, fishing, and boating also affect tourism demand. Similarly, customs and immigration regulations can foster or impede international tourist movements. Liquor licensing and shop trading laws may also regulate patterns of tourist activity. In the UK, even the change of Sunday trading law and extension to the opening hours of pubs may lead to increased satisfaction by overseas tourists since this was a cause of dissatisfaction of many tourists according to the Overseas Visitor Survey (BTA/ETB 1991).

Legislation Specific to Consumer and Tourist Protection

It is generally held that regulation arises and declines in particular industries because of crises in those industries, of emerging competitive conditions in those industries, and of the rise and fall of consumerism which tends to occur in definite historical waves (Tiemstra 1992:13). Governments assume a vital role in consumer protection through policy-making,

legislation and the development of institutional capacity for its enforcement. Many countries have a wide range of consumer protection legislation, covering physical safety, promotion and protection of consumers' economic interests, standards for the safety and quality of goods and services, distribution facilities, redress, and education and information programmes.

In recent years public interest and subsequent government action in industrialised countries has resulted in a range of consumer "protection" measures constraining the free interplay of market forces. The consumer protection measures are of many kinds: regulation to encourage competition and prevent artificially high price through price fixing agreements; regulation related to product and information provision; controls for safety, security and financial guarantees, including the control or bonding of tour operators to protect the traveller, are common and widely applied. Tourism operation is also affected by protective legislation aimed at specific social groups, such as the disabled persons (RA Palmer 1992).

As a type of consumer, the protection of tourists is generally covered in basic consumer protection legislation. In recent years, the special feature of the purchase and consumption of tourist products has attracted increasing attention of many governments and researchers (Anolik 1991; Holden 1989; OECD 1980; WTO 1981). At the international level, for example, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) is

concerned with the protection of the interest of tourists during travel, in places of touristic interest and at tourist facilities.

The International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) plays a major role in the development of universal standards and recommended practices for civil aviation. It assists Governments in developing legislation and policies to protect consumers in the area of air transport, inter alia, in connection with such subjects as fare guarantees, baggage, denied boarding and compensation. ICAO is developing a Code of Conduct for the Regulation and Operation of Computer Reservation Systems. Its policies on taxation of international air transport are also designed to assist countries in achieving adequate protection for their population as consumers and tourists (UN 1993:114).

4.4 INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The effect of political borders on tourism is a reduction in the intensity of movement and interaction between one side of the border and the other. In the extreme cases, the barrier may be almost total, allowing no transportation routes to cross from one side to the other. More usually, the barrier is permeable; that is, it acts as a kind of filter through which some, though not all, movement passes. Political boundaries can pose “psychological” or perceptual constraints on exchange processes.

International tourism has also long been used as a means of international influence both by the generating and receiving countries. It is also said to be a means of promoting understanding, peace and friendship between nations. The significant political and foreign policy implications of international tourism is obvious for even to admit foreign visitors and to facilitate their travel within a nation's borders is a political action. "The way in which a nation's international tourism is approached becomes a matter of its foreign policy, as well as a part of its economic and commercial policy" (DL Edgell 1985:15). Little attention has been paid, however, to viewing international tourism as an integrative international relations policy area and interrelationship between international tourism and international politics (Mowlana & Smith 1991).

Tourism in International Politics

"Tourism is not only a 'continuation of politics' but an integral part of the world's political economy" (Edgell 1990:37). Tourism is manipulated for political purposes as much in the West as in the East. Indeed, political consideration is often one of the key factors in a country's tourism development. For example, tourism was encouraged in Spain under Franco and in the Philippines under Marcos, amongst other things, to broaden the political acceptance of the regimes; in many socialist countries tourism is also seen as a means to show their achievement and improve their international press notices; in

Israel, tourism has been viewed as a means to stimulate political sympathy for that nation and to boost national moral; in the USA, the government once prohibited its citizens from travelling to Cuba and Libya as a sign of hostility towards these countries.

“Government leaders have perceived of tourism as a political bridge among nations” (Richter 1989:7) and use tourism as a diplomatic barometer of their closeness and affinity for each other. There is an inexorable link between international tourist activity and international relations between countries. When two national governments have good relations with each other, there is a supportive framework for trade and tourist movement in the two countries. However, political forces often prompt drastic and immediate changes in international relations, and these changes can have negative effects on tourist flows between those countries.

Consequently, most nations have several policies toward foreign tourists that are based not only on anticipated length of stay but also on the degree of international cooperation existing between the two countries. For example, Canada requires no passport or visa from citizens of the United States or Commonwealth countries, but may require such documents from other nationals. Some countries refuse to issue visas to nationals of countries perceived as temporally divided, such as the two Koreas, rather than appear to take sides in recognising regimes. In conclusion, “the flows of tourism between two

nations can be used as a sign of the level of salience between the two nations and their people” (Stock 1977:33).

International Agreements

Tourism involves the movement of people across county, state, and national borders. In order for international movement to occur there must be agreement among countries to ensure the rights of travellers. The most common of which are:

(i) Diplomatic recognition. Holding a valid passport may not be sufficient to obtain entry into a country. Travel between two countries is seen as a privilege rather than a right. Nations can require that a visa be obtained for entry into and/or exit from their country. Usually this is based on diplomatic recognition. When one country offers diplomatic recognition to another it acknowledges the legal right of that country to exist. Two-way tourism cannot exist between two countries that do not recognise each other. Without diplomatic recognition treaties cannot be negotiated regarding such things as the reciprocal issuing of visas and the safety of visitors. A government will generally refuse to allow visits from citizens of countries it does not recognise. Travel by its own nationals to the unrecognised country is also restricted. In the USA, for example, there are different requirements to tourists from different countries in issuing a visitor visa (Iyomasa 1983). The effect of diplomatic relations on tourist flows are most evident between some isolated countries and regions, such as Israel, South Africa and

Taiwan as the flows between these states are much higher than those to and from other comparable countries.

(ii) Commercial Agreements. Commercial agreements between countries in areas of investment, business transaction, tourist movement, and so on are very important in the cooperation of international travel in different countries. There have been continuous effort in the international community in trade negotiations both multilaterally and unilaterally to promote freer trade and prevent "trade wars". The multilateral tariff reductions and the removal of limit of export subsidies and import quotas since World War II have taken place under the umbrella framework of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), established in 1947. One way in which countries formalise their cooperation in the area of tourism is to negotiate a formal treaty which states a commitment to promote tourism by exchanging such things as statistical information and vocational training techniques and spells out the rights and privileges of travellers to the two countries.

There is very little in the way of supranational agreements or regulations of tourism services, except for the major controls which exist over air transport. The need for recognition of services in international agreements has only recently been gaining attention. In recent years there has been an effort to get barriers to trade in services recognised and eliminated in an international trade context through the GATT (Edgell 1990; Handszuh 1992)

(iii) Air Transport Agreements. The first bilateral agreement between countries concerning travel was signed by the US and the UK in 1946. Known as the Bermuda Agreement, it provided the model for later bilateral agreements. A bilateral agreement refers to an agreement between two countries to offer airline service between them. They are intended to protect the rights of both countries in three areas: to allow carriers of both nations to participate in the market place; to control the frequency of flights so that profitable load factors can be generated; to control prices to prevent discount fares in prime markets. This latter practice is referred to as predatory pricing. Because bilateral agreements were not sufficient to bring together the interests of for-profit and non-profit airlines, the International Air Traffic Association (IATA) to bring about cooperation between international airlines was established.

(iv) Barriers to international travel. Governments usually seek to control both inbound and outbound tourists through various measure. The inbound flow of tourists is normally encouraged except though nearly all countries strictly control the entrance of immigrants and enforce laws against illegal entrants. In terms of outbound travel, there are often more restrictions and many government even have assumed a protectionism approach. Protectionism in tourism has been defined “a protracted policy or attitudes of a state which, for various reasons, prevents or impedes the internationalisation of its tourism market as a consequence of the application of instruments of administrative and economic intervention or of

the lack of instruments and practices which could make such an internationalisation possible” (WTO 1988b:22).

The most common restrictions on outbound travel imposed by government may include currency allowances and means of payments, administrative formalities and controls, custom duties and other regulations (Ascher 1984; OECD 1991). Passports and exist visas are not automatically available everywhere, for instance in most socialist and developing countries; nor is freedom of entry universal. According to data from the WTO, more than 100 countries have restrictions limiting the amount of currency their citizens can obtain for foreign travel. The WTTC report (1991) reveals that there is a distinct contrast between the absolute ease of entry of EC citizens visiting other EC countries, and the relative difficulties met by Asians travelling intra-regionally or in Europe.

The removal of strict restrictions on overseas travel in Japan and South Korea in recently years has greatly promoted the outbound travel flow there (Mackie 1992; McGahey (1991). Indeed, in the short term, the removal of travel restrictions is the most powerful contributor to rapid growth in outbound travel.

International Organisations

International tourism is by its nature essentially dependent on good international communication and cooperation. Thus international organisation has an important value in its

development at both public and private sector level. There is a continuing need for exchange of information and expertise between countries; harmonisation of policy and standards; and regular contact and co-operation in many fields. It is vital to create conditions for free or liberal international movement of people, and the freedom to trade internationally in travel services. Only governmental collective action at the international level can bring this about.

International tourism organisations are essentially inter-governmental in nature or bring together public and private sector voices and interests. Some are concerned with development in general, such as the European Community, the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the World Bank; others have tourism as their sole or prime focus, such as the European Travel Commission (ETC), the International Air Transport Association (IATA), International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), the World Tourism Organisation (WTO).

International organizations and agencies have played a significant role in promoting international tourism as a means of economic development, particularly in developing countries. International tourism in developing countries has been benefited from various international organisations in four main ways: policy and statistical information; technical assistance, especially in the preparation of tourist development plans; loans for major infrastructural projects; loans and equity

investments in privately owned tourism plant, particularly hotels.

The travel and tourism industry around the world has spawned a large number of inter-governmental organisation and other representative associations. Some started as sectoral lobbies, others as relatively exclusive clubs, but all have not been regarded as having satisfactorily carried out their perceived roles as “in the minds of the industry itself, the existing organisations are not seen as having been especially effective” (Cockerell 1990:92). In the longer term, the answer seems to lie in greater cooperation and co-ordination between such organisations to ensure that world-wide the industry benefits from an effective lobbying function.

4.5 FUTURE TRENDS IN THE POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

We have already seen that political change can mean change brought about by the domestic political scene or the international political scene. Change in the political environment is the major source of disruption to tourism business and radical change causes the most difficulty for business adjustment. Because change in a government or its political philosophy can lead to unknown consequences for business, it is more disrupting than a constant but antagonistic relationship between business and government. Therefore, the industry must be able to anticipate changes in the political

environment. It must also assess its vulnerability to political risk. A long-term strategy for positive industry-government interfaces and close monitoring of political situations in major markets and destinations are important for stable tourism development in any country. Some of the major trends in global political changes are identified below.

Trends in Political Ideology and Situation

International tourism can only take place in a climate of peace, security and cooperation. There are two significant themes which, over the last fifteen years, have altered the redistribution of flows. “*Détente*” has facilitated exchanges and the development of tourist movements between Eastern Europe and the Western nations, while the “North-South” dialogue, if better oriented in the future, will increase the growth potential of tourist movements between these two parts of the world.

“The history of international affairs over the past five centuries has all too frequently been a history of warfare, or at least preparation for warfare” (P Kennedy 1989:537). The present century has seen two world wars which have brought destruction and loss of life on an altogether unprecedented scale. They have been followed by a period of Cold War tensions between the two superpowers, the US and the USSR. Although the ending of the Cold War should mean that, over the period as a whole, wars will tend to be fewer and smaller than otherwise.

Even though the risk of a third world war has greatly diminished, it can be expected that the next few decades will still see other wars, albeit wars which, for the most part, do not involve the use of nuclear weapons and do not involve the participation of the superpowers. For while the relaxation of Cold War tensions will reduce one cause of wars, other causes are likely to remain, such as nationalism, religion, dictatorships, natural resources, environmental calamities.

Nationalism remains a powerful force often leading to war, and there are a number of circumstances in which it could give rise to hostilities in the coming decades. Many Third World countries are based on colonial territories the boundaries of which in some cases split tribes and nations between different countries and in some cases enclosed a number of different tribes and nations within a single country, thus giving rise to friction when divided groups seek reunification and minority groups seek a separate identity. The recent experiences in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe are examples to mind.

Religious differences have played a part in many recent disputes. Religious tensions, particularly those associated with the rise of militant Islam, may well give rise to wars in the decades ahead; and some may be difficult to bring to an end because disputes arising from religious differences tend to be less amenable than others to solution through pragmatism and compromise or the intervention of outsiders.

Natural resources is another source of conflict. The rich and powerful enforce their monopoly over environmental resources at the expense of those who rely on them for their survival. As the Brundtland Report states: "Nations have often fought to assert or resist control over raw materials, energy suppliers, land, river basins, sea passages, and other key environmental resources. Such conflicts are likely to increase as these resources become scarcer and competition for them increase" (WCED 1987:290). As environmental capital is further depleted by the demands of Western consumer society, we face the growing threat of resource wars in which rich countries will enforce their "right" to the resources of the Third World at the low prices they are used to paying. The dangers are particularly great where, as with the oil states in the Persian Gulf, relatively weak countries have exceptionally valuable resources regarded as vital by a number of other more powerful ones.

Many countries are ruled by authoritarian regimes whose leaders enjoy little popular support and are maintained in power mainly by military force. Such countries provide an ever-present risk of war, either through uprisings of their own people or through military adventures against neighbouring countries.

In the coming decades we may also have to contend with the possibility of wars arising from new combinations of causes. In some Third World countries there is the possibility that

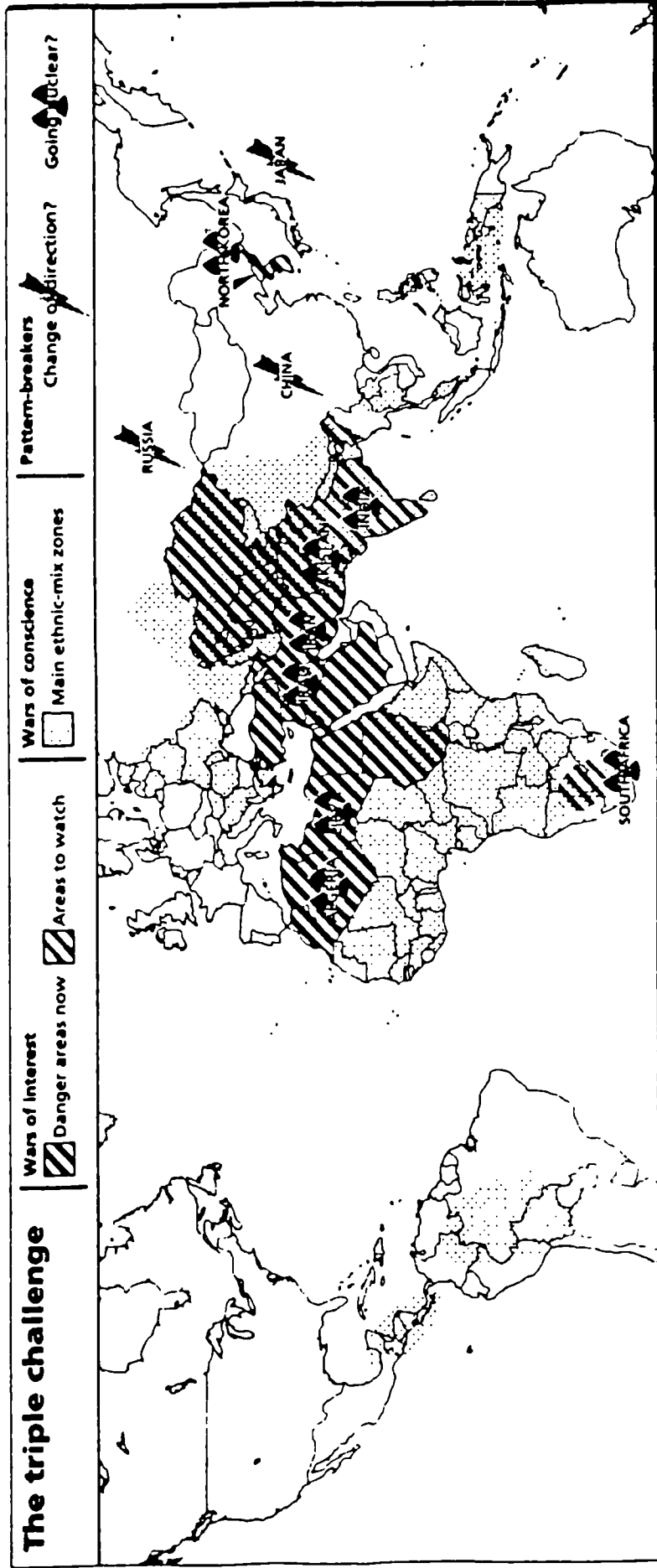
population expansion will lead to overcrowding which, combined with the effects of economic difficulties, and possibly also of environmental disasters, may lead the stricken nations to try to force a move into neighbouring countries which appear to be better favoured. This could widen into more general confrontation between the poorer nations of the South and the richer nations of the North.

For these and other reasons it seems realistic to expect that in the course of the next few decades there will be further wars, particularly in regions like the Middle East where several of these factors are present in combination—dictatorial and ruthless regimes, militant religions, major unresolved territorial grievances and the presence of massive oil resources considered vital to them by many different countries. In most parts of Africa, many parts of Central Asia and Latin America, there is high risk of both domestic and international ethnic conflicts. The high risk of wars in these regions will undermine their growth prospects in tourism at both domestic and international levels and deter external investors from investing in tourism facilities there. Figure 33 predicts the potential conflicts, which are grouped into wars of interest, wars of conscience and pattern-brakers three categories, in various regions in the world in the next few decades.

Trends in Legislation and Regulation

Changes in the law occur from time to time because the legal system has to keep up with changes itself. For instance,

Figure 33 Potential wars in the world in the coming decades



Source: The Economist (1992:14).

legislation concerning companies and their operations, employment conditions, trade unions, environment consumer protection, and so on, has been enacted and modified over the years to fit circumstances as best it can today. Very often a change in the law will affect all equally, though from time to time only the law as it relates to particular groups or organisations is changed.

World-wide, the legislation of the tourism industry will probably move in two directions: less state control and more private initiative in tourism development; and more and stricter law and regulation on tourist and environment protection. This predication is based on the understanding of two interrelated arguments: one in favour of deregulation which rest on an image of the state as a prison for private entrepreneurship; and the other in favour of regulation which rest on an image of the state as a protector of the consumer and public interest.

In the European community member countries, the tourist industry would be increasingly subject to the influences of the policies and directives of the EC which has been termed as “a third level of government” (Kirchner 1993). Cross-border tour operation will be made easier when restrictions on the movement of capital and labour are relaxed with the full potential of the Single Market opened up (BTA/ETB 1990). The introduction of the EC directive on Package Travel requires the travel trade to be more conscious and liable for consumer protection. The introduction of the EC Merger

Regulation in 1990 which made specific provision for merger control at European level has already had significant effects on the tourism sector (Morgan 1994). The possible introduction of air transport liberalisation in late 1990s will create a more liberalised environment and a more competitive market in transportation (French 1992). The European Social Charter has also been seen as opportunity and threat to employment practice in the tourism industry (Lucas 1993).

Trends in International Relations

The ending of the cold war, dramatic political ideology and system changes in the former Soviet Union and East Europe, and the economic and political reforms in the other socialist countries, have brought changing East-West political and economic relations. In the longer term it should open up new opportunities for peaceful co-operation throughout the world. However, the transition that has been set in motion has so far generated much political turmoil and economic crisis, and there is inevitably great uncertainty and apprehension about the way it will unfold.

In international affairs, it is economic power, and not political power, that will shape the world of the 1990s. According to Paul Kennedy (1989), the existence of a life-cycle of nations will lead to a constant change of the relative power of a country in the world associated with its economic strength. In the global economy, economic considerations will almost always transcend political considerations. The changing political

structure brings with it a whole host of evolutionary changes the impact of which has yet to be determined. The emergence of a multi-pole world and increasing regional cooperation within a stronger Europe, East and Southeast Asia, and North America, will lead to higher level of intra-regional movements of capital, labour, goods, and tourists.

Tourism has also been regarded as a means of initiating or enlarging the scope of co-operative alliance with other nations through such bodies as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). For instance, ASEAN has set up a permanent committee on tourism, which is exploring the idea of an ASEAN passport, eased intra-regional currency exchange and special fares, as well as the development of region-wide policy on tourism promotion. These measures will certainly render the expansion of intra-regional travel within the ASEAN and attract more overseas tourists from other parts of the world.

The completion of the single internal market for goods, services, people, and capital of the European Community on December 31, 1992, is said to have considerable impacts on tourism: travel will become cheaper and easier as a result of lower inputs cost, increasing economies of scale, greater competition, and the removal of controls at frontiers between member countries. It is estimated that the Single Market will increase the average annual growth rate of outbound and inbound travel by 0.4-0.8 percent in the Community in the remaining years of this century (Smeral et al. 1992:465) and to

decrease the market share of non-EC member European countries, such as Austria and Switzerland (Smeral 1992).

The major challenge to the international trading system and the GATT since the 1980s is not tariff levels but, rather, the so-called “nontariff barriers” which include safeguard actions to protect industries, exclusion orders, standards, exclusionary distribution, and administrative delays. During the Uruguay Round, the importance of tourism has gradually been appreciated in line with increasing involvement of tourism policy makers in the process. The GATT has now singled out the “Tourism and Travel Related Services” sector as a special service item in international trade. It is general held that “tourism transactions were adequately covered by the Agreement and its annexes gradually taking shape” (Handszuh 1992:266). The Uruguay Round has already provide great service to tourist interest worldwide and it is realistic to anticipate that in the new rounds of trade talks a comprehensive international agreement on tourist trade is not impossible to reach in the coming decades.

4.6 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Changing political ideologies in both the East and the West appears to permit increasing freedom for individuals in travel and a more and stronger private sector. Governments tend to be less directly involved in tourism development activities other

than infrastructure provision and cultural and environmental preservation and protection but more engaged in legislation and regulation of the various aspects of the industry. While deregulation or liberalisation in the transport sector has been a popular phenomenon recently, there is an increasing flow of legislation and regulation on tourist protection, land use, pollution control, tourist service quality standards, tourism employment and training, and so on. These changes will provide the tourism industry with wider space for business operation and private sector initiatives but more protection of the interests of tourists and more control of the impacts of tourism development.

Political changes in socialist and other closed societies will open the door of these countries to foreign visitors. The former Soviet Union and other members of the Eastern Bloc had been virtually cut off from the rest of the world until recently purely based on ideological considerations. Travel to the West was strictly limited or simply banned, while Western visitors were not encouraged and regarded with suspicion. The rapid political reforms and dramatic changes in these countries have contributed to the speedy growth of tourist flows both from and to these countries. It is said that there is a pent-up demand of Westerners wanting to visit Eastern Europe. However the mystique and curiosity about these newly open nations could be short-lived if the demand for tourism is not properly matched by a supply of infrastructure.

Political stability, improved relations between nations and international peace accelerate travel and tourism. Peace, the absence of war and the presence of harmonious relations in the world could bring about “peace and stability dividend” to global tourism by increasing international cooperation and diverse resources from arms competition to economic development. Regional conflicts and wars will generally only affect the tourist flows to and from a few involved countries but not influence significantly the global tourism growth prospects.

Changes in the European Community will have significant impacts on the tourism industry in Europe, the key region of international tourism activities. The EC’s policy towards tourism aims to facilitate and promote tourism in the Community, to improve the seasonal and geographical distribution of tourism, to provide better information and protection, to improve working conditions in the tourist industry, and increase the awareness of the problems of tourism statistics and finance (CEC 1988). Along with the wider and closer integration in the Community, there will be increasing coordination and harmonisation in tourism policy, regulation, organisation, and product development. In particular, in areas of the liberalisation of transport markets, tourist protection, environmental protection, labour protection, cross border formalities and procedures.

Many regions within the EC will be able to receive increasingly financial support from the Community to assist its tourism development especially in areas of rural tourism, social

tourism, cultural tourism, and vocational training in tourism. The EC has also a variety of programmes outside the Community targeted at the tourism sector, especially in the 68 countries within the African, Caribbean and Pacific regions which are granted to EC aids under the Lomé Convention (EIU 1993). EC programmes allow for a wide range of development initiatives in tourism and tourism-related areas, such as policy formulation, education and training, product development, overseas promotion, research and information, as well as general economic and social issues including infrastructure provision, cultural preservation, and environmental protection.

The Uruguay Round and its further progress in global trade negotiations will in the future further eliminate quantitative restrictions and other non-tariff measures against the import of goods and services, including tourist services. Within this general environment, with the increasingly wide recognition of travel as a basic human right by governments, and with the recommendation of the WTO and other international organisations (OECD 1991; WTO 1988b), protectionist measures and practices in international tourism, such as restrictions on tourist documentation, exchange controls, customs regulations, tourist business establishments and their operating conditions, are expected to be reduced or eliminated in the coming decades.

In the absence of restrictive practices, higher levels of international travel could be attained in most parts of the

world. Of course, “there is no assurance that new barriers will not be erected in individual countries in the future. The potential for government-imposed restrictions increases as economic conditions worsen and competition for tourist business sharpens” (Edgell 1988:66). Nevertheless, the world tourism industry is expected to benefit substantially from the overall improvements in the global political environment which is becoming more liberal (political ideology), more stable (political climate), more co-operative (international relations), and less restrictive (legislation and regulation).

CHAPTER FIVE

SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Tourism development is created and continuously modified within particular social and cultural settings and the distribution of tourism activities cannot be explained without considering the role of social and cultural factors. “The social and cultural characteristics of a host society will influence its attractiveness to tourists, the process of development and the nature and extent of the impacts which occur” (D Pearce 1989:53).

Nowhere has business lack of control and understanding been more apparent than in the domain of social trends and events. “Without a proper business response, the social expectations of today become the political issues of tomorrow, legislated requirements the next day, and litigation the day after” (I Wilson 1985:3.2). However, the significance of the socio-political environment and its impact on tourism extends far beyond such legislative and public policy issues. It is not simply a matter, as some suggest, of social responsibility; it is a question of market demand, of work-force availability and productivity, of costs and profitability, of business credibility and industry legitimacy. It is also a matter of strategy and freedom to

manoeuvre. The stronger the trend or the issue becomes, and the further it develops, the fewer the available options and the narrower the space for the tourist industry and enterprises to respond. It is thus much more advantageous to develop a proactive strategy and move early in the formative stage of a trend than to be forced into reacting, with few if any options, when the trend or issue has crystallised.

With these points in mind, this chapter aims to examine the various social, cultural, and demographic factors; discuss their influences on tourism development; and identify the trends of socio-cultural change and their implications for the tourism industry.

5.1 SOCIAL CONDITIONS AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The simple proposition that underpins this section is that as a tourist activity, tourism is socially conditioned and socially differentiated, in a way that is comparable to other forms of social activity. Social factors affect many aspects of tourism ranging from leisure time and fashion, demand distribution to tourist attraction, hospitality resources, social carrying capacity, and all the social impacts of tourism in a destination. Tourism development must be placed within the wider social context in order to bring into full play its role as an important contributor to the social and economic progress of a country and minimise its negative effects in the host community.

Social Class and Social Structure

The perception of and participation in tourist activities are social differentiated in that they are closely related to social class, social conditions and social relations (Husbands 1989; RL Lee 1977; Parry 1989; Settle et al 1978; Stokowski & Lee 1991; Walton 1981; Winiarski 1988).

Every society has a class structure that stratifies individuals into social groups according to their “position” in society, which is related to the degree of power or influence held over resources. Social class is clearly an important source of explanation for differences in patterns of holiday making in different social groups, and can rightly feature in any tourism analysis. Indeed, “Leisure can usefully be understood in terms of class” (Clarke & Critcher 1985:147).

David Riesman and others (1950) identified three stages of social structure evolution—traditional societies, inner-directed societies, and other-directed societies. To the extent that societies throughout the world can be described by such a classification, it is a useful comparative device for the international tourism industry. In traditional societies, such as eighteenth century European and most present Moslem countries, the influence of the family, tradition and religion have a much stronger influence over social activities. Patterns of consumption do not change rapidly or easily, so that marketing efforts are largely concerned with relating to the

status quo. The inner-directed society is usually found in nations that are experiencing rapid economic development. Traditional values and relationships are breaking down, and the new social leaders tend to be the industrial leaders and their families. An other-directed social structure is usually found in only the most highly developed and affluent societies. As the name implies, individuals are strongly affected by the actions and values of others. Such markets are highly segmented, since the reaction of each individual toward a particular product depends on the relevant reference group or groups involved.

The social structure of a society affects the place that consumption in general and leisure activities in particular has in that society. In a traditional society, consumption is viewed as a means of serving basic human needs, but not as a contribution to one's role in the society. In such societies, excessive consumption and leisure pursuits may be viewed as undesirable and social sanctions may be declared against them. In an inner-directed society, consumption can serve as a means for the individual to establish a unique identity, and business is the means by which the individualist increases his or her impact. In an other-directed society, consumption provides a means of identification with peer groups. Business can be a useful contributor to consumption, but it may be deemed as a target for regulation when its impact becomes too great.

Class and political structure may also determine the type of tourist development that occurs. For example, the multinational involvement in luxury hotel development in South East Asian countries is used as a means for the politically dominant classes to compete with the economically dominant and ethnic classes (Wood 1979).

Social Mobility and Social Tourism

Travel has become one of the most curious phenomena of our industrialised society which is based on high levels of mobility (Krippendorf 1986:131). Indeed, the contemporary society is a “mobile’ society, a society of travellers” (Leed 1991:4). This mobility is not only a spatial one facilitated by progress in transportation technologies but a social one resulting from the democratisation in political, economic and social fields (Savage 1988). The gulf between countries in social mobility is as wide as that in spatial mobility. The level of spatial mobility may be conveniently measured by private car ownership figures: while in developed countries the ratio is every two to three people to a car, in most developing countries it is often hundreds of people to a car.

Social mobility in a country is difficult to assess and even more difficult to compare between countries. But generally speaking, high social mobility is a feature only relevant to Western democracies where persons born and raised in the so-called working class can easily move into the middle class via education and occupational achievements. In many third

world countries, such as India, class structure is the fluid; a person's inherited class determines the educational and occupational opportunities he or she might have. Not only is social mobility an important dimension of class structure, but the relative size and number of distinct classes within a society is also significant. Therefore, the larger the upper and middle classes, the bigger the potential in generating tourists. The pyramid social structure in many Middle East countries is one of the key causes explainable to their failure to originate mass travel flows warranted by their prosperity through mass oil exports.

While in many developing countries the provision of holidays and leisure facilities are still largely neglected, in developed nations, the promotion of mass leisure has been a government policy (Beckers 1990; Branham et al 1989; J Wilson 1988). One special aspect of this policy is the promotion of social tourism which aims to make facilities and opportunities accessible to the greatest number of people.

According to the European Commission, "Social tourism, sometimes known as popular tourism is, in certain countries, organised by associations, co-operatives and trade unions, and is designed to make travel more easily available to as many people as possible, particularly those from the most disadvantaged sections of the population (families, young people, the handicapped, those in retirement)" (cited in Davidson 1992:112). It is an active form of tourism aiming to

help those people lacking the financial or intellectual means to take a vacation, or to travel under normal conditions.

Many European and North American countries now have an explicit national policy concerning tourism for disadvantaged groups in society and certain well-defined measures (e.g. financial assistance directly to the families or individuals or grants to organisations) to enable these groups to take (often low-cost) holidays and short break (Haulot 1981; Libicki 1989; Moulin 1983; Teuscher 1991).

Hospitality Resources and Social Events

The hospitality resource of a society is one valuable component of tourist supply (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990). Hospitality, “by definition, requires hospitable acts, expressions of kindness, the treating of others as we would like to be treated” (S Hall 1992:2). “The hospitality of an area is the general feeling of welcome that tourists received while visiting the area. People do not want to go where they do not feel welcome” (Mill 1990:28).

The hospitality resources of a destination are determined by the social and cultural background of a country and the stages of tourism development. High level of tourism development often leads to increasing awareness of the importance of hospitality resources while large scale and rapid development, frequent host-guest interaction, and accumulated negative impacts of tourism tend to degrade the resources. Many

destinations have adopted various measures, such as visitor welcome programmes (Hobson 1990), to improve their hospitality resources to attract international tourists.

Contrary to hospitality, social conflicts, riots and high crime rates in a society are obstacles to tourism development even though they are often not originally targeted at tourists. Reports show that visitors are often victims of crimes in destinations (Chesney-Lind & Lind 1986; Cunneen & Lynch 1988; Fujii & Mak 1980; Nicholls 1976; Pizam 1982; Walmsley et al 1983). Violence, crime and social instability, if highly publicised, will certainly damage the image of a tourist destination. Recent incidents in Florida are examples. According to *The Worldwide Social Situation* published by the UN every three years, alcoholism, drug addiction, crime and irresponsible attitudes towards fellow human being and the community as a whole, have tended to become more widespread in numerous societies with very different cultures and levels of development. This will certainly give rise increasingly to serious negative impacts on tourism development in many countries.

Social events, such as sports games, world exhibitions, and festivals are also major attractions. Although social events and tourism often appear to be treated as separate spheres of activity; they are closely linked in that sport can be a holiday attraction, holiday can be an attraction to sport, and spectator sport is a tourist generator (Glyptis 1991).

Social events, especially mega-events or hallmark events, can be a significant tourist pull, especially in short term (AIEST 1987; Getz 1991; Goldblatt 1990; CM Hall 1989; Ritchie 1984). For example, hosting the Olympics offers a good chance for the host country to “strengthen and accentuates its tourist image” (Jafari 1985) and increase the international awareness of a country as a tourist destination (MacAloon 1984; Pyo et al 1991; Taylor & Gratton 1988).

Social Movements

In the last a few decades, there have been a succession of social movements (consumer, minorities, women, environmental). Time after time, changes in social values found their way into the agenda of new pressure groups, into legislation and regulation, and into the courts.

Consumerism is a “social movement seeking to augment the rights and power of buyers in relation to sellers” (Kotler 1972). Consumerism began as a response to consumers’ dissatisfactions arising in exchange relationships, has a profound influence which has extended beyond its original focus on commercial relationships to embrace attitudes to service provision as well. Consumerism is something more than a desire to secure value for money: it includes the idea that goods and services should be rendered safe for the consumer; that the consumer has a right to be informed and protected from inadequate or misleading information; that real competition should not be limited by sellers’ collusion; and that

the consumer's voice should be heard. Tourist enterprises and other businesses have no alternative but to respond to the claims of consumerism and the rising expectations of consumers. Any failure in carrying out its business and social responsibility and responding to consumer requirements could easily result in "consumer boycotts" (NC Smith 1987).

The green movement, or environmentalism, originated from an increasing awareness of environmental quality and protection. Pollution, environmental degradation, resource depletion, overpopulation and other environmental problems are seen as threats to human health and welfare and to the sustainability of socio-economic development and even the Earth itself. Although tourism was once regarded as a "no-smoke" or "pollution free" industry. The increasingly frequent reported negative impacts of tourism on the physical environment indicate that this is not the case. Environmental conservation and protection is not only a social responsibility of the tourism business but is also a sensitive business principle since most tourist attractions are based on the natural environment. The increasing concern with green tourism, eco-tourism or environmental sensitive tourism are all signs of the significant impacts of this movement on tourism development.

Leisure and Recreation

Travel and holiday making is one form of leisure pursuit and recreation activity. The interrelationships of leisure and tourism is well analysed (see, e.g., Fedler & Iso-Ahola 1984).

The increased demand for tourism products is closely related to more free-time, changing preferences, modifications in lifestyles and greater mobility.

Leisure and recreation is not only a modern Western phenomenon. Roman devotion to the arena, hippodrome and baths is well known. In medieval times there were holy days, local festivals, and fairs, some of which survive in watered-down form. It was only with the onset of the Industrial Revolution with the discipline of the factory and the tyranny of the clock that leisure time was cut down for the majority of people. The "Protestant work ethic", extolling the virtues of hard work and the generally long hours, low wages and lack of opportunity for most people in the aftermath of the Industrial Revolution, limited the time, resources and desire for leisure. "Leisure in the eighteenth century was an attribute of social class, not a division of the working day or of one's lifetime" (Burkart & Medlik 1990:5).

In the modern world, leisure and recreation are, both in quantity and quality, less an attribute of social class than that of a nation in that they are more closely associated with the social and economic conditions of a nation. There has been a close correspondent between the development of tourism and that of leisure time and leisure pursuits (Cross 1990a & 1990b; Cunningham 1980; Dare et al 1988; Jones 1986).

The most obvious connection between tourism and leisure is in the availability and distribution of leisure time. The full cost of

any human activity is the sum of its market prices and the value of the time foregone from other uses. Time has thus been viewed as a resource used in the “production” of activities (Becker 1965), and tourism is normally an extensive time user. Leisure-time is the time free from all constraints and which could be utilised or consumed as one likes. There have been some experimental attempts in using time-budget studies in tourism research (Bockstael 1987; D Pearce 1988).

Leisure time may be considered daily (after work), weekly (weekend), yearly (paid holidays), and lifetime (retirement). Of particular importance to the travel trade is the size of the paid holidays; weekend time is relevant to short-breaks; and the retirement time is significant to the senior travel market. The introduction of paid holidays for working people has contributed much to the advancement of utilising leisure time in travel (Walker 1989; WTO 1983e). There has been a clear trend in the past a hundred or so year—less working hours in a day, less working days in a week, longer paid holidays, and longer retirement time (early and formal retirement plus increased longevity).

Leisure time is significant to tourism but the distribution of leisure time and expenditure among different leisure activities are more closely related to income. Without the support of discretionary income, increased leisure time may not necessarily lead to higher travel demand.

It has been claimed that our present civilisation is “the leisure-time civilisation” (Wahab 1975:13). Mass tourism is only made possible under a leisure democracy. Whereas the distribution of income and wealth is decidedly unequal, leisure is spread remarkably evenly throughout the various social strata in all the developed democratic society. Mass leisure provision and paid holidays are, however, still not common in many developing countries where most individuals spend most of their waking hours “earning a living” with little or no time left for leisure. There is also an obsessive work ethic which results in a negative attitude toward non-productive use of leisure time. Lack of leisure time, especially paid holidays, is one of the key factors responsible for the low level of tourism demand in developing nations.

Lifestyles and Fashion

As a discretionary consumption item, tourism is affected significantly by changes in lifestyle, fashion, consumer tastes and preferences.

Life style is made up of attitudes, prejudices, emotions and traditions, and everyone has a life style into which to fit their decisions, including buying choices. Consumption is the key means for exhibiting lifestyle. It has been said that Western societies are “consumption communities” consisting of people with common concerns which came from consuming the same kinds of objects (Boorstine 1973:147). Commodity consumption has long been as a way of life, a basic force that

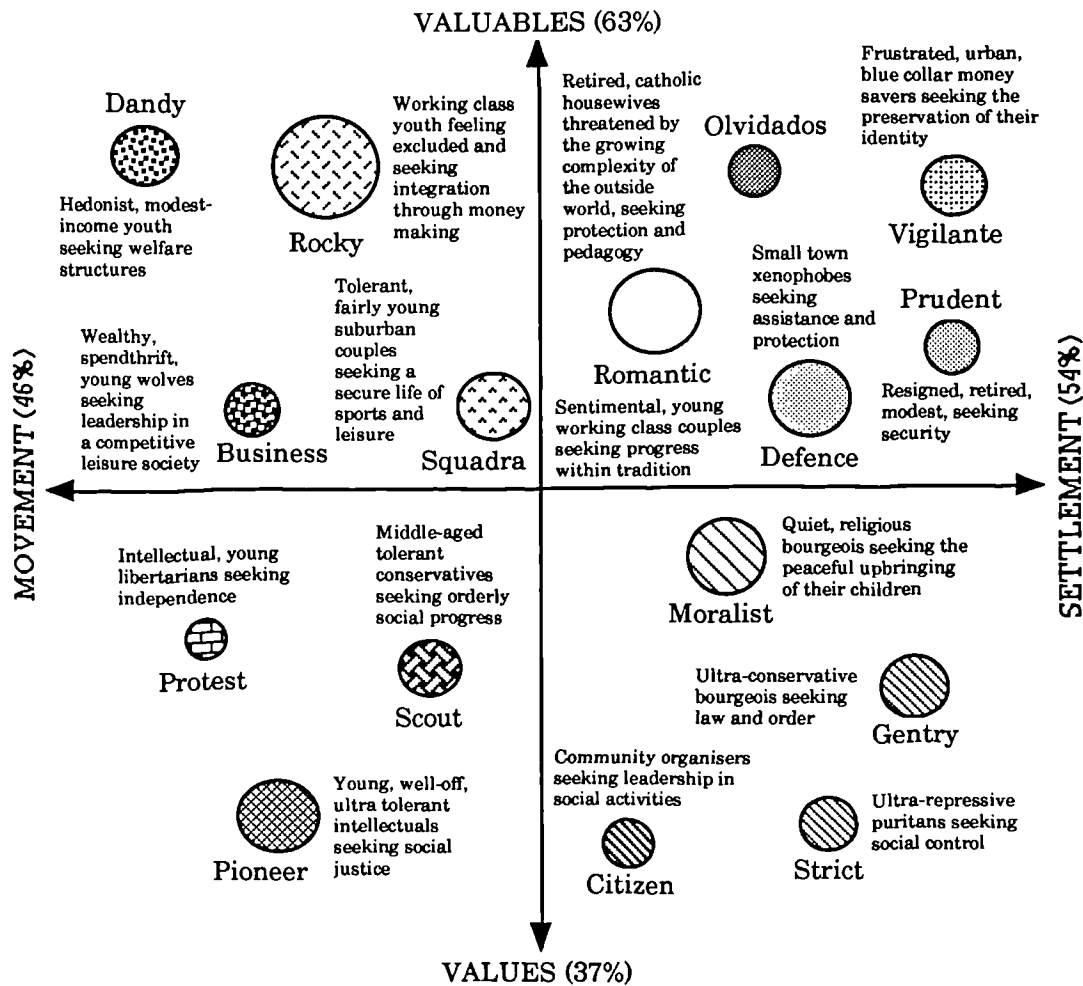
shaped western culture (Horowitz 1985:xxiii). In terms of holiday taking, there is a deliberate choice not to take a holiday in some social segments, especially those people with a “home-orientedness” lifestyle and with low cultural and educational aspiration level.

Life style research has attracted the attention of scholars in the tourism and leisure fields since the 1980s (see, e.g. Bernard 1987; Glyptis 1984; Veal 1989). The relationship between lifestyle and tourism consumption is also well examined (see, e.g., Gattas 1986; Olszewska & Roberts 1989; Raitz & Dakhil 1988; Tomlinson 1989; Thurot & Thurot 1983). In a recent study, the life style typology in European countries originated in Austria from a successful market research was introduced which could be used as “prefabricated” market segments to predict tourist behaviour and to be incorporated into strategic planning (Mazanec & Zins 1994). This multinational life style typology — “Eurostyles” — covers five principal dimensions: objective personal criteria; behavioural attributes; attitudes; motivations and aspirations; and sensitivities and emotions. The sixteen types of lifestyles are exhibited in Figure 34 (the size of the circle indicates the share of the particular lifestyle in the population).

However, as the sixteen original Eurostyles cannot be considered to be ready-made segments of tourism market, Mazanec and Zins (1994) have grouped them into five target segments by travel motives and activities which reveal significant differences in terms of socio-demographics, travel

behaviour and preferences (see Figure 35). This classification could be well used in the future in studies of the relationship between changes in lifestyles and in tourism demand.

Figure 34 The sixteen Eurostyles in Europe

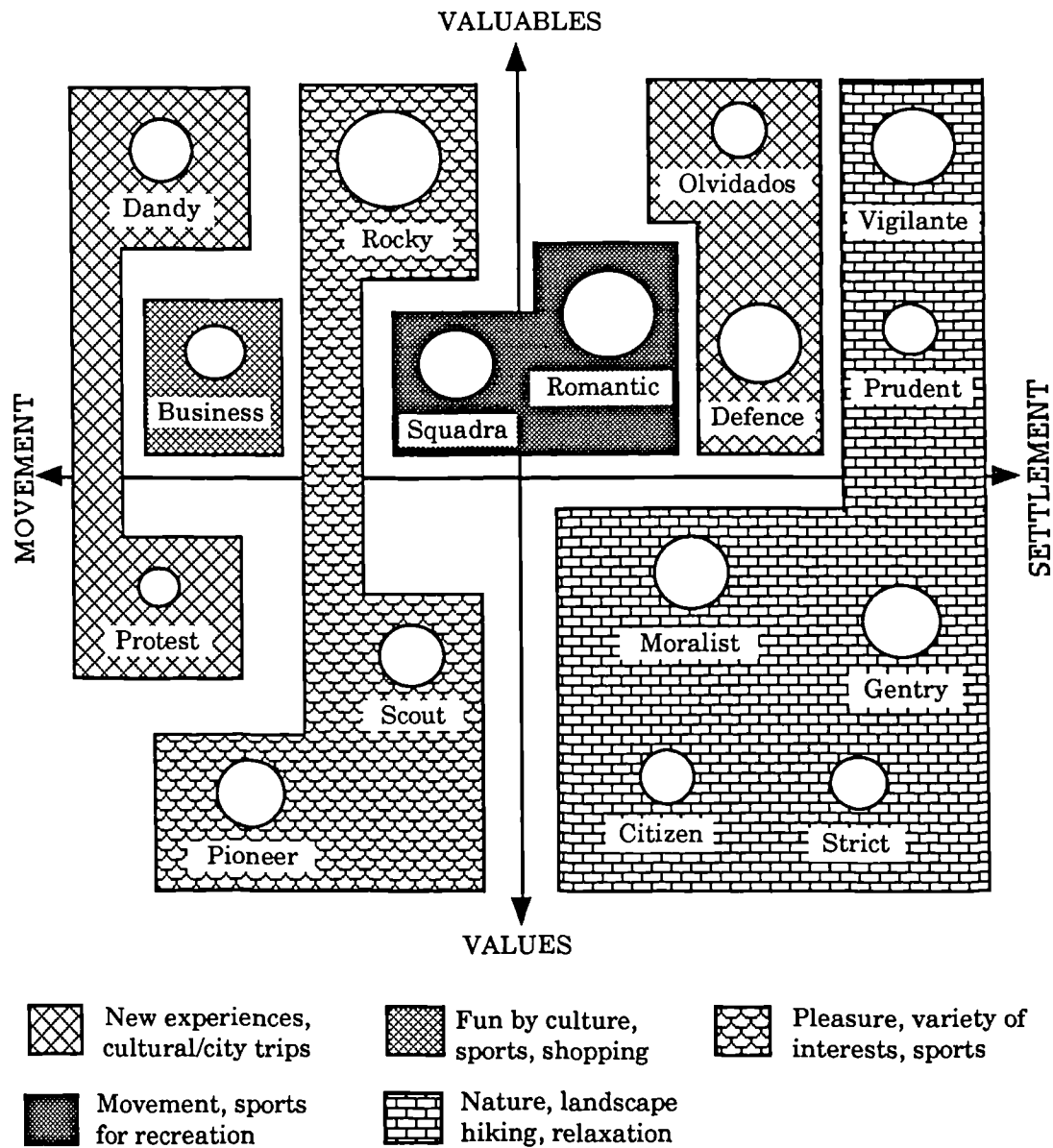


Source: CCA/Europanel, cited in Mazanec & Zins (1994:202).

Fashion is often being seen as an irrational factor affecting tourism demand. Fashion is nothing more or less than the prevailing style at a given time. A fashion has a perceptible growth phase and observable periods of maturity and decline.

A fashion serves to satisfy a group of related desires. Fashions are not designer creations, but are normally consumer-driven phenomena that tend to be related to the perception of newness of style and not to functionality (Reed 1987:54-55).

Figure 35 Lifestyles and travel motives and markets segments



Source: CCA/Europanel, cited in Mazanec & Zins (1994:208).

As a “symbolic consumption” form, tourism has been subject to the influences of fashion changes (G Brown 1992). Indeed, tourism’s susceptibility to fashion is deeply-rooted in its feature as a novelty-seeking activity. It has been argued that “the desire for variety, novelty, and strangeness are the primary motives of tourism” (Cohen 1972:172). People desire for novelty and “escape” and “get away” from everyday which can best be achieved by a change of place (Bello & Etzel 1985; Cohen & Taylor 1976; Crofts 1990; Grinstein 1955). Novelty is the degree of contrast between present perception and past experience (Lee & Crompton 1992).

The mass movement of tourists from cool urban areas in northern and western Europe to seaside resorts in southern Europe is a direct result of “the sunshine revolution” (Robertson 1965). This sun and sea holiday as the dominant travel fashion has already shown sign of fading away and cultural tourism, health tourism and activity holidays appears to be regaining their popularity in recent years.

As travel has become a fashionable habit or social custom in the West, the influence of fashion on tourism is not whether to travel or not to travel, but rather travel to where and how to travel. Therefore, fashion trends in travel can also be created by large tour operators and well-planned tourist promotion campaigns, usually working through the media of public relations and advertising (Wahab 1975). Consequently, when some existing forms of products lose their appeal, there are

always new products appearing which attract tourism demand.

5.2 CULTURE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The effects of culture on tourism are multi-dimensional, it is not only a determinant of tourist attractions (Hughes 1987; Ritchie & Zins 1978), but also a factor influencing tourist demand (Murdie 1965; Richardson & Crompton 1988) and the cultural impacts of tourism (Erisman 1983; Furnham 1984; Greenwood 1989; L Wei et al 1989; Ziff-Levine 1990).

“There is no tourism without culture” (WTO 1985a:6). It is true in both that culture is one of the key motivations for travel and all forms of tourism exercise a cultural effect on tourists and their hosts. There is also clear evidence that culture is a pre-eminent determinant of preference. Differences in perceived landscape values have been found when there were significant differences between cultures (e.g., Kaplan & Herbert 1987; Tips & Savasdisara 1986; Yang & Brown 1992; Zube & Pitt 1981).

Culture: the Concept

Culture is a “whole way of life”, “culture is threaded through all social practices, and is the sum of their relationships” (Hall 1981). Culture includes both conscious and unconscious values, ideas, attitudes, and symbols that share human

behaviour and that are transmitted from one generation to the next. It is said that “all social practices can be looked at from a cultural point of view” (Johnson 1986:283).

Cultural and social behaviour patterns are not inherent; they are learned. Yet they are just as important in governing the behaviour of people as are inherited traits. A culture affects the behaviour of the people who live in it by affecting their values, how they look at and react to particular phenomena, activities, or relationships. These values in their turn affect lifestyle, behaviour and evaluation criteria, which ultimately affect product preferences (Munson & McIntyre 1978:103-104).

National Identity and Ideology

Berger and Kellner briefly define ideology as “a set of definitions of reality legitimating specific vested interests in society”. Ideology serves as an idea structure both for understanding and for legitimating one’s interests (cited in NC Smith 1987:10). National ideology determines the attitudes of its citizens towards the natural world, internal affairs and outsiders. It is held that national characteristics and ideology have a significant role in deciding the competitiveness and development of a country (Lodge & Vegal 1987; Porter 1990; Worsley 1984). Cultural constraints on socio-economic development may be thought of as being explicit or implicit. Common to all the constraints is that they indicate a mentality different from that which brought about change in Europe. Sources of Iran’s stagnation are to be found both in its religion

and in the Persian culture; and India's underdevelopment is partly imputed to the caste system.

The national ideology represents the way the citizens of a particular country think about and react to various stimuli. The national ideology is strongest and most consistent in countries that have a long cultural identity. There is a strong, easily identifiable national ideology in a country like Egypt, which, even though it has not consistently had political independence in recent centuries, possesses a long and consistent cultural history. However, some of the newer black nations in central Africa have not had separate identities long enough to have developed strong national ideologies. Instead, different subgroups within these nations reflect the ideologies of the subgroups or tribes from which they descend.

Recreation and tourism are strongly conditioned by national ideology and attitudes. Cultural insularity and a general lack of interest in foreign or distant places play a part in some countries' attitude to travel. Research shows that there are differences in the perception of tourism between "Western" and "Pacific" thinking and between "island" and "continental" mind (Farrell 1979; Ritchie 1972). The British have a natural tendency to vacation near the sea; Scandinavians, on the other hand, enjoy the seclusion of the forest that surrounds their summer cottages. While it is dangerous to generalise about humans, the national character of a people can suggest the types of vacations important to them (Mill 1990:62-63).

Attitudes toward Consumption, Work and Recreation

Capitalist societies have always been characterised by a strong emphasis on consumption based on a romantic ethic. Campbell argues that romanticism has provided that philosophy of “recreation” necessary for a dynamic consumption in which the search for pleasure is viewed as desirable in and of itself (1987:201). Romanticism has produced the widespread taste for novelty which has ensured the ethical support for restless and continuously changing patterns of consumption.

It is said that the development of mass tourism has to a significant extent responded to the changes of the attitude towards recreation and pleasure of the middle class. Bourdieu argues that the old petit bourgeoisie bases its life on a morality of duty, with “a fear of pleasure, ... a relation to the body made up of ‘reserve’, ‘modesty’ and ‘restraint’, and associates every satisfaction of the forbidden impulses with guilt”; whereas the new middle-class group: “urges a morality of pleasure as a duty... Pleasure is not only permitted but demanded, on ethical as much as on scientific grounds” (Bourdieu 1984:367). This change in mentality, accompanied by improved living standards, has made travel a “necessity” in consumption in most developed nations. The rapid growth of outbound travel flow from Japan in the last two decades is also in part facilitated by the changes of the attitude towards travel and other leisure activities in the Japanese society.

People's attitude towards work and the importance of work, as a measure of an individual's contribution to society, is also culturally determined (Hofstede 1980; Sahlins 1974). Leisure was seen in the "Protestant work ethic" neither as right, nor as a particular desirable facet of the new industrial society. Enjoyment of leisure is now looked upon as an essential in consumers' scales of preference. Recent research in the US has detected a new approach to life by a wide range of consumers: a struggle for self-fulfilment through self-gratification (Doxey 1983:58).

Cultural factors also affect inter personal relations in organisations and human resource management in general. A comparative study between England and India shows that socio-cultural conditions affect significantly the management-employee relationship and work attitude (Tayeb 1991). It is reported that cultural taboos in Indonesia make it difficult for natives to speak to foreigners and "the role of face" in China is a major concern of Chinese managers (Redding & Ng 1982; Schansman 1991).

Morality and Ethics

Ethics has become one of the watchwords of the recent decades. The task confronting the tourism industry is how to define and act on the ethical issues germane to their respective spheres within society and the business arena. One report listed the key ethical issues: solid waste disposal, conditions of employment, non-specific discrimination, race discrimination,

employee theft, sex discrimination, false advertising, sexual harassment, vendor honesty, sanitation violations, AIDS discrimination, AIDS in foodservices (Enghagen & Hott 1992).

Of special importance to tourism is the social tolerance of sex tourism and gambling which have usually been regarded as immoral and having severe negative impacts (Eadington 1976; M Fish 1984; Graburn 1983; CM Hall 1992; Pizam & Pokela 1985; Symansk 1981; Truong 1989). They are, however, often effective tourist attraction to a certain segments of the international tourist market. Without prostitution, tourism in some South-Eastern Asia countries might not flourish as it is now (W Lee 1991; Meyer 1988) and without casinos, the booming tourism industry in Las Vegas, Atlantic City and in Lesotho would not exist (Samuels 1986; Stern 1987).

Religion

In its broadest view, religion is a cultural system (Geertz 1973); while in its narrowest definition, religion is a belief in spiritual beings. Religion establishes moral codes and taboos for the behaviour of its adherents, and consumption behaviour is one such aspect. Particular religions may frown upon some kinds of business practices or certain types of consumption such as drinking alcoholic beverages or eating pork or meat; social behaviour, manner of dress, ways of doing business, and relations between people. The major religions of the world vary considerably between, and even within, cultures, and their impacts on each culture may vary accordingly. There are

many variations within the Moslem religion, the Hindu religion, the Jewish religion, and the Christian religion. Not only does religion establish taboos and moral standards within a culture, it also reflects the principal values of a people. Social mobility and the achievement ethic in the West are supported by the Christian values of self-determination and the importance of work.

As a part of culture, religion has special meaning to tourism. Religious site is an important component of tourist attractions in many countries, in particular in the Middle East region (Din 1989; Hanna 1984; Nolan & Nolan 1992; Orland & Bellafiore 1990). For instance, the major attraction of Israel is religious. The country contains places that are considered holy to three religions—Judaism, Islam, and Christianity. Indeed, pilgrimages to sacred places are nearly as old as human history. The Holy city of Makkah is host to millions of hajjis (pilgrims) from all over the world each year. The “Holy Days” were mass holidays in early times. Travel to religious shrines, especially pilgrimage to holy places was and still is an important type of tourism (Din 1988; Eickelman & Piscatori 1990; Hindley 1983; Jackowski 1990; D Long 1979; Turner & Turner 1978).

It is estimated that the number of Europeans whose international travel has a specifically or predominantly religious motivation is over 1 million a year; while domestic travel movements to religious sites far outnumber this (Bywater 1994). In the Middle East countries religion tourism

has also been a means to revive Muslim traditions and in many places to discourage visits from the West because some Arab countries fear the effect that Western tourists will have on their traditional views toward alcohol and women.

Religious journeys always are multi-functional journeys and religious tourism is often tied to other types of tourism such as holiday and cultural tourism. But it is not ordinary cultural tourism because pilgrims gain “a sense of belonging to a religious or spiritual heritage rather than a cultural one” (Turnbull 1981:14). Because of increased mobility, smaller religious sites with original local or regional catchment areas will lose significance and finally cease to exist, whereas larger sites with supraregional, national, and international catchment areas will gain significance. The development and expansion of religious centres will mainly occur in areas with favourable travel connections near large agglomerations (Rinschede 1992). It is suggested that the year 2000, marking two thousand years since the birth of Christ, will stimulate considerable additional demand in the religious travel market, in particular to Rome and Israel where the number of visitors could be doubled (Bywater 1994).

The Other Components of Culture

Although different cultures may share many characteristics in common, each culture possesses unique traits that set it apart and allow it to be identified as a separate culture. The essence of any culture can be seen in a number of important

factors that interact to determine cultural patterns. They include language, religion, cultural institutions, class structure, aesthetics, and social patterns. Culture may include art, music, painting, architecture, tradition, language, festivals, lifestyles, and so on.

The way that people live, behave, eat and look at life; their customs, traditions and habits are valuable assets in attracting tourists to their country. This applies in particular to developing countries where traditional societies are different from the society where the tourist come from.

Architecture is the design and construction of shelters for both human and their domestic animals, as well as the structures they built for economic, religious, political, and entertainment purposes. The architectural heritage is a general term used to describe any human artefact which is a material and tangible expression of culture. Architectural heritage has long been recognised as a valuable source of tourist attraction (AIEST 1984; BTA 1980; England 1980; Latham 1990). Not every artefact belongs to the architectural heritage, but only those which have the following attributes: they must provoke general interest, wonder, admiration and recognition and must be accessible (Daskalakis 1984).

Literature has always been a source of travel appeal and inspiration and has significant influences in shaping the image of many tourist destinations (PC Adams 1983; Bishop 1988; Butler 1986; Newby 1981). Literature and films have also been

widely used as an effective media for tourism promotion. Special literary tourism is now promoted in many countries. In the United Kingdom, the British Tourist Authority has published maps of "Literary Britain" (BTA 1983) and places like Shakespeare's Stratford and the Bronte's Yorkshire are recognised internationally. Literary tourism has special cultural values as well as economic importance (Squire 1994).

Language is the most fundamental element of culture, acting as a medium of communication and a repository of information. The implications of language to tourism has seldom been tackled in the literature (Cohen & Cooper 1986). However, it can be argued that differences in language can pose "psychological" or perceptual constraints on the holiday decision making process. The distance in language between two countries, besides affecting the travel flow between them, also increases the requirements to the training of employees in the industry (Hijirida & Iwamura 1986; B Moeran 1983).

Traditional ceremonies, unique handicrafts, extended families, intricate village-based social structure, and other aspects of the traditions in a society could be a significant tourist attraction. Traditions and customs can be preserved and even invented to attract tourists (Hobsbawn & Ranger 1983). Traditional ceremonies in many mass tourist resorts, however, lost their authenticity and became pseudo-events.

Cultural tourism has been increasingly promoted as a means for urban revitalisation (Cameron 1989; McNulty 1985; Short

1991; Tighe 1985). It should be noted that the cultural aspect of this form of tourism is not limited to museums, historical sites or festivals. It is culture in the widest sense of the term, including a search for other life styles, a fuller enjoyment of human activities as handicraft, cooking and good eating.

The similarities and differences between the culture of the host population and that of the tourists are of importance to tourism. Some tourists are attracted by divergent and exotic cultures, while others prefer to visit destinations with cultures similar to their own. The impacts of tourism development, especially the magnitude of socio-cultural changes induced by tourism is also affected by cultural differences. The cultural distances between a tourist destination and the tourist originating countries is, among others, one of the most important determinants of the perception of the cultural and social impacts of international tourism. "Communities that have a strong attachment to their historic culture will perceive tourism to cause more socio-cultural changes than communities which have embraced modern Anglo-American culture" (Pizam; Milman & King 1994:54).

5.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The meaning of history to tourism development is profound: history is the precondition of destiny. Tourism development, like general economic development, is not without the initial

trigger and full of “historical accidents”. As development is a successive process, all forms of tourism development is based on the results of the past development effort. “With broad limits the power of attraction today of a centre has its origin mainly in the historical accident that something once started there, and not in a number of other places where it could equally well or better have started, and that the start met with success” (Myrdal 1957:26). Clearly, the national and global patterns of most tourist attractions, and to a lesser extent, the transport and communication network distribution are given conditions for tourism development.

More importantly, historic resources, whether the conserved built environment of historic architecture and urban morphology, associations with historical events and personalities and the accumulations of past cultural artefacts, artistic achievements and individuals, taken together comprise the single most important primary attraction for tourists. “History, marketed as ‘tradition’, is a predominant element in the national tourism promotional images of most European countries” (Ashworth 1993:15).

The Forms of History

It has been argued that there are three forms of national histories: rediscovery, reconstruction, and fabrication (AD Smith 1986). All such histories consist of different balances between what Anderson (1986:130) calls the “rich amalgam of fact, folklore and fiction”. Where the new nation has had a formal

political existence over a long period there will be more than a sufficiency of historical material. In this case the history is produced by rediscovery, selecting a new amalgam of facts for the new history. Where the new nation is less well endowed with material the history has to be created by conjecture in a process of reconstruction. In rare cases the history may be produced by simple fabrication.

Every national history “is a product of a particular present for the purpose of promoting a particular future” (PJ Taylor 1989:180). For example, the Scottish national costume—tartan kilts, according to Trevor-Roper (1983), was a product of invention: the tartan originates from Holland, kilts from England and there were no “clan tartans” in Scotland before 1844. This is a tradition that has been invented as part of a fabricated Scottish history. In England, where historical data are plentiful, national history is highly selective of what is included and emphasised. Most of the “old traditions” of England date from the late nineteenth century (Dodd 1986) when the golden Elizabethan age and the rural landscape image were rediscovered as the authentic site of an ideal “Merrie England” (A Hawkins 1986). The tartan kilts of Scotland and the countryside image of England have been key significant attractions to their tourism industries.

Another invention of the new national histories was the ascribing of special significance to particular dates” and since last century, centenaries celebration become popular (Hobsbawm 1987:13). Mass celebrations and other mega-

events have been an important component of tourist attractions in many countries.

Heritage as Tourist Attractions

History has become heritage, heritage has become a resource, and this resource supplies attractions for the growing tourism industry. Magnificent cultural heritage is the key tourist attraction. Heritage sites provide the tangible links between past, present and future. If the past is a foreign country, nostalgia has made it “the foreign country with the healthiest tourist trade of all” (Lowenthal 1985:4). Visiting historic sites, such as battlefield, estates, chateaux and ancient ruins, is often a prime motivation for travel to many areas (Cossons 1989; Prentice & Prentice 1989; CJ Thomas 1989; Toepper 1991). Waterloo in Belgium or Gettysburg in the United States, the Pyramids and the Sphinx in Egypt and the Maya ruins in Mexico are uniquely attractive to domestic and foreign tourists.

Most heritages were not, however, consciously developed to attract visitors, but are the outcomes of civilisations of past eras. The Tower of London and the Roman Coliseum were built for functional purposes during their times, although they have immeasurable value as visitor attractions for their respective countries. These types of attractions cannot be replicated and their value lies in people’s interests in the culture, history, art and architecture of different times and places.

History, that is those aspects of culture relating to the record of the past, is transformed into heritage and become a tourism resource through a selection, packaging, interpretation and commodification process to satisfy the demands of modern consumers, including the host population and tourists. "Heritage is brought into being and maintained for a legatee. Authenticity justifications will result in 'supply-oriented' preservation and any subsequent use will be incidental and secondary. Heritage, however, implies a 'demand-orientation' with the nature, location and use of what is preserved being determined ultimately by those whose heritage is being presented" (Ashworth & Tunbridge 1990:25).

There is an increasingly greater appreciation of the value of cultural heritage (Moulin 1991). The use of historic sites as tourist attractions, however, is not without costs, it requires preservation and interpretation (Cleere 1989; JA Edwards 1989; Mooney-Melvin 1991; Uzzell 1989). Indeed, "Heritage sites are in the centre of the struggle between the potentially conflicting aspirations of conservation and tourism" (S Millar 1991:115). Cultural and industrial heritage could also be presented in museum and serve as major tourist attractions under well preserved condition and in advantageous location (Ewing 1989).

Historical Relations with Other Countries

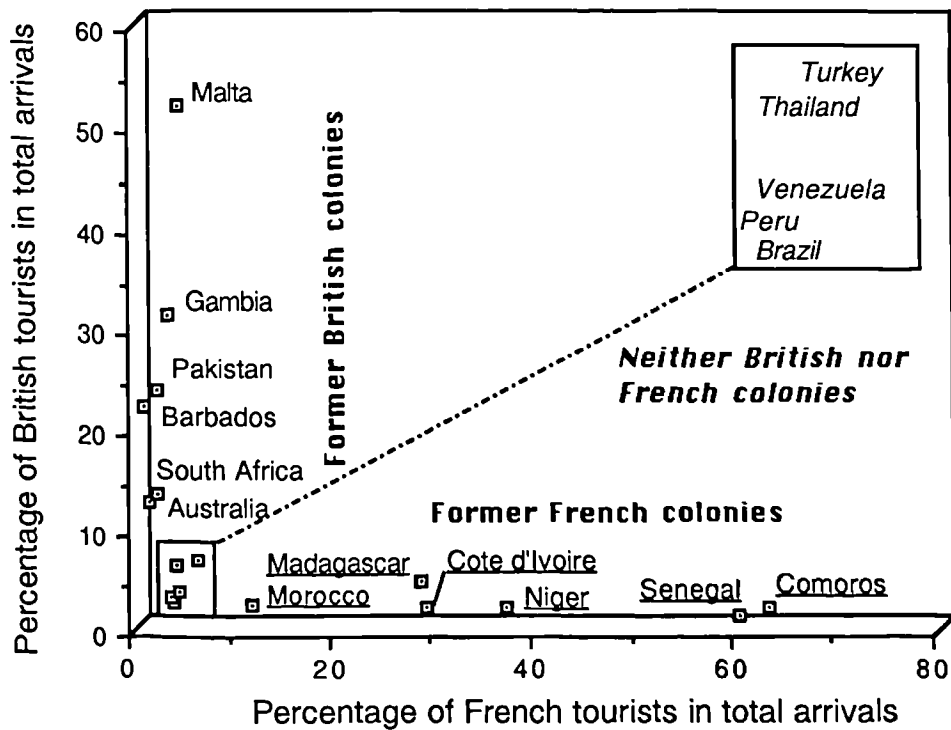
Historical contacts with outside world, especially with the major tourism generating and receiving countries, will generally determine the cultural distance to the main civilisations, in such aspects as, language, architecture style, food and drinks, religion, ethics, and so on. Cultural distance, the extent to which the culture of the area from which the tourist originates differs from the culture of the host region, is generally seen as a resistance to travel though sometimes extremely different cultures tend to be attractive to an allocentric person (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990:257). It is also well known that the greater the divergence of cultural characteristics between the tourist and the host population, the more pronounced is the cultural impact.

Certain countries have a strong foundation of economic, historic, or cultural ties between each other. The presence of these ties strengthens the likelihood of tourist movements between the them. Obvious examples are the historic and cultural ties between the US and the UK. On an international level there is the desire to get back to one's homeland. This leads to large scale VFR travel between certain countries, such as UK and Australia, Canada and India. In the USA, "distinct travel patterns can be seen, such as the movement of Bostonians to Ireland and residents of Toronto to Scotland" (Mill 1990:24). In this regard it should be noted that, because there is a flow of tourists from country A to country B, there will not necessarily be a flow from country B to country A. For example, there are large tourist flows from Hong Kong,

Taiwan and Singapore to mainland China while those from China to the three regions is rather small.

The historical ties between former colonies and their Western powers may also have certain advantages in attracting tourist from their former suzerains because of increased awareness of attractions, established contacts in capital, goods and personnel flows, and often similar but differentiated culture. Britton (1982:352) argues “there is a direct parallel between the extent of a country’s historical structural conditioning as a colony and the presence of foreign capital”. On the other hand, the colonial relations could also lead to more severe negative political and social impacts as western tourists may easily stimulate the

Figure 36 Arrivals of tourists from abroad by country of origin



Source: data from WTO (1992).

feeling of a new colonialism (Bugnicourt 1977; Matthews 1978; Nash 1989). Figure 36 indicates the influence of former colonial ties and the tourist flow from Britain and France.

5.4 DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between socio-demographic variables and leisure travel demand behaviour is an increasingly popular area in tourism studies (see e.g., Gitelson & Kerstetter 1990; Murdock et al 1990). Tourism is fundamentally a business of people. Any demographic change in a society may have repercussions on tourism in one way or another. This section deals with all the factors which related to the size and structure of population and their influences on tourism.

Population Size

People are both the provider and consumer of tourist services. The size of the population in a country, under similar social and economic conditions, is a rough indicator of the size of human resources and the tourist generating market.

Within the economy at large, the availability of manpower is inextricably bound up with population trends. However, as the labour force is related to the population through a complex of social, demographic and economic factors, the quality of a

population in terms of skills and education levels is often more important in determining the adequacy of human resources.

World-wide, there are far more cases where the over supply of labour force leads to high unemployment than the that where a short supply of labour constraints economic growth. In the latter's case, when domestic labour force is inadequate in numbers, the possibility of inbound migration has often been considered. For example, international migration plays an important role in the labour supply in the tourist industry of many Western countries. Countries such as the UK, France, Switzerland, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden rely on the labour of an estimated 6 million immigrants (William & Shaw 1991:6). It has been estimated that in 1979 foreigners accounted for 32 percent of the workers in the Swiss hotels and restaurants while in 1984 it was 39 percent (Gilg 1991:141). An OECD survey shows that the share of foreign workers in the total workforce in the tourism sector in France is 25-35 percent, the UK 20 percent, Belgium 20-25 percent, and Germany 17-25 percent (OECD 1988).

In most developing countries, there is always a serious structural imbalance between labour supply and demand with a high unemployment rate in general and a shortage of skilled worker and technical and managerial staff in many economic sectors (Ankomah 1991; Salome 1989).

The Structure of Population

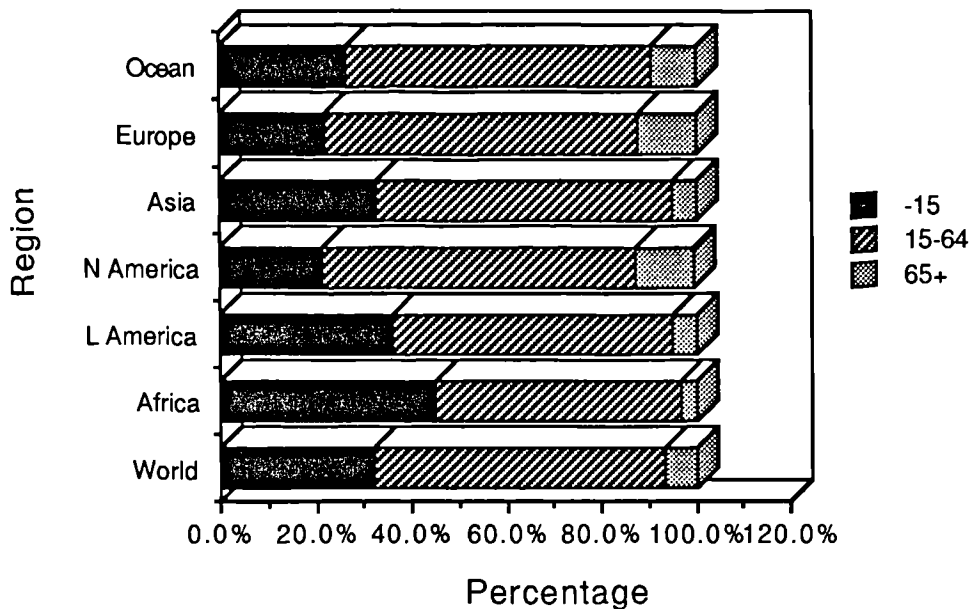
Structure is important in determining the features of a system. In most countries, the size of the population is growing, some rapidly and some slowly; changes in population structure will influence tourism development.

(i) Age structure. The human life span can be divided into three distinct “ages”—the “first age” is becoming equated with those under 25, the “second age” with those over 25 but under 50, and the “third age” with those over 50 (Seekings 1989:393). Age can play a significant part in the types of experiences that appeal to an individual. The younger age group is usually interested in new places and experiences. During the middle years, a person’s comfort may be more important. In the later years of life, a person usually develops an increasing tolerance for immobility and a turning inward (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990; Mitchell 1984).

The age structure of a population is decided by its growth rate and life expectancy. In general, life expectancy has increased substantially since 1950. An increase in life expectancy would bring about a doubling of the population aged over 60 or more. Nations are facing the problem of ageing not merely in demographic but also in sociological terms. The senior market has several characteristics: geographically the further north the higher is its market share; it is an increasingly wealthy group benefited from rising levels of occupational pensions and home ownership (BTA/ETB 1988); its freedom to choose travel time; its members show a high inclination to travel for leisure and for other personal reasons. Figure 37 indicates the age

structure of population in the World and its main regions in 1990.

Figure 37 The age distribution of population by region

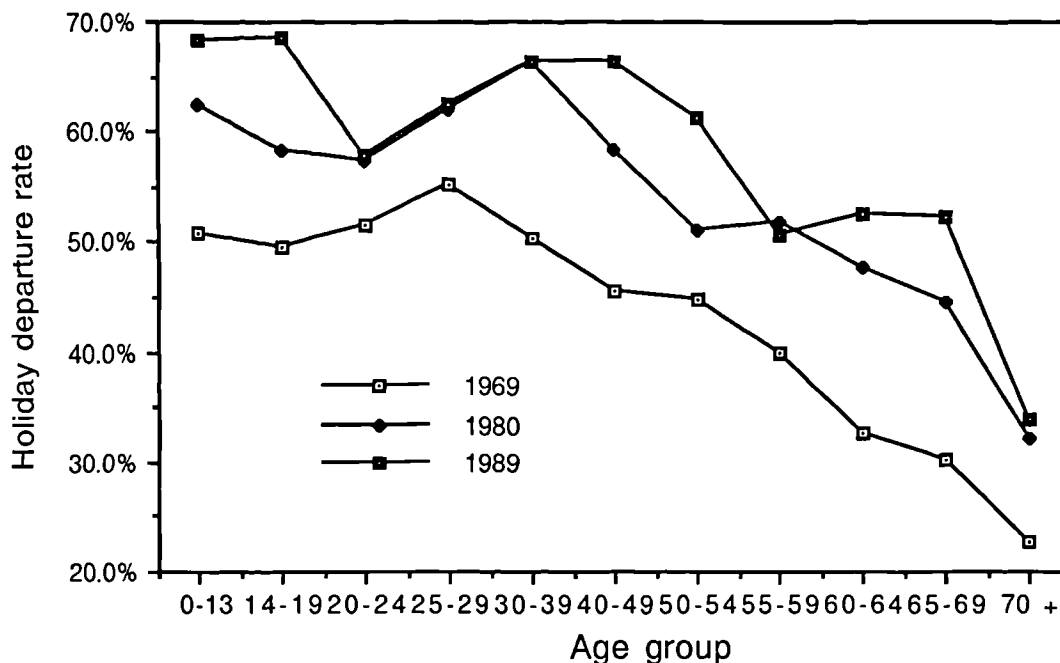


Source: data from UN (1992).

Generally speaking, the influence of age on the propensity to holiday is most obvious among the elderly. The presence of children, however, does not appear to play a major role, except in families with three or more children (D Pearce 1989:135). Statistics from France shows that departure rates on holiday tend to decrease with age, falling from a peak of 65 percent in the age group 30-39 to 49 percent in the age group 65-69 and to 36 percent for those aged 70 or more. However, the tendency for older people to take holidays, in France for example, has been increasing steadily (see Figure 38). There is no worldwide data in this respect, however, it could be suggested that the trends displayed in France is a global one since the older people across the globe are becoming healthier, wealthier and more

inclined to travel compared with their predecessors even though in the developing world the absolute level of holiday participation of the elderly is much lower than that in France.

Figure 38 Age and holiday departure rate in France



Source: data from TPR (1991).

The EC Omnibus 1986 survey indicates that in some prosperous countries with well developed travel industries specifically targeted at the elderly, the departure rates for the over 55s are pretty much the same as for younger groups. This is the case for instance in the UK where the over 55 departure rate was 58 percent compared with 63 percent for the 40-54 age group, while in Germany the comparable figures were even closer at 57 percent and 59 percent.

It is estimated that in America, the over 50s age group represents 25 percent of the population but control 70 percent

of the wealth. Research shows that when people retire, the number one thing they say they want to do is travel (Blazey 1992). The role of ever more numerous retired people in the developed countries has not yet been clearly defined, but it is clear that they constitute a prime section of the public for the redistribution of tourist flows through staggering holidays and travel throughout the years (WTO 1983d:31). It is also clear that the senior travel market is one with great potential for growth. It is no surprise, therefore, there has been increasing interest in examining the perceptions, preferences and travel behaviour of the senior or retired travellers (see, e.g., BTA/ETB 1988; Capella & Greco 1987; Hawes 1988; Forbes 1987; Romsa & Blenman 1989; Tongren 1980). Comparatively, there have been less interests in studying the youth market (Roberts 1983) and still fewer studies carried out in a comparative fashion (Anderson & Langmeyer 1982; Javalgi et. al. 1992).

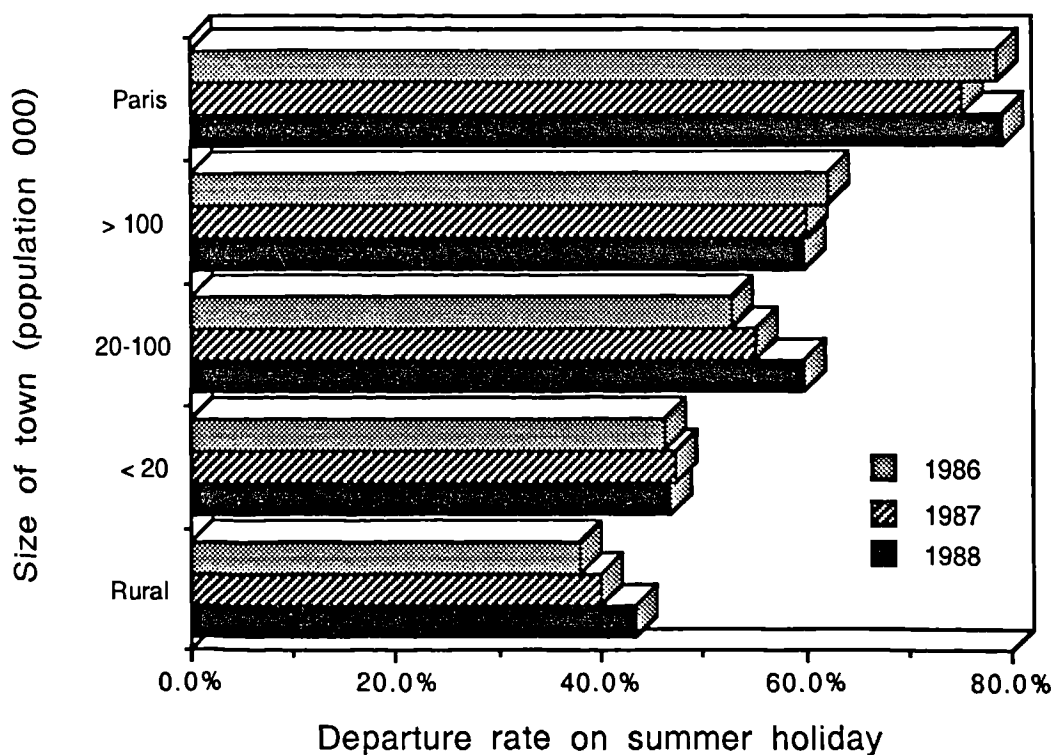
(ii) Spatial structure. The spatial structure of population, the pattern of distribution of population across the territory by region and especially the level of urbanisation, has a strong influence on the size and distribution of demand and tourist attractions and facilities.

Urbanisation is often seen as a symbol of economic development and cities themselves are often major tourist attractions appealing to millions of people. "Residents in the major cities are also more frequent holiday-makers than those people living in small or medium-sized towns or rural areas" (Tuppen 1991:194). The higher holiday participation rates in

cities may be given rise from a host of interrelated factors, such as higher income level, smaller households, more crowded living space, salaried occupations, greater mobility, more travel opportunities, and so on. “Inhabitants of large urban and industrial cities are the main group of ‘escapees’ at weekends and on annual holidays... Inhabitants of rural areas, on the contrary, do not usually feel that need for escape” (Wahab 1975:27-28).

Figure 39 shows the close association between summer holiday departure rate and place of residence in France. It is clear that there is a positive association between the size of town and holiday departure rate as in 1988 the holiday departure rate in

Figure 39 Holiday departure rate by place of residence in France



Source: data from TPR (1991).

Paris was 79 percent whereas in rural areas it was 43 percent. The similar pattern could be observed in many other countries. In Spain, for instance, while the holidays departure rate in Madrid and Barcelona was 63 and 58 percent respectively, in the less urbanised southern regions it was only 21 percent.

Low level of urbanisation in a country may affect its citizens' preferences of tourist attractions, in particular it is inclined to an lower level of appreciation of the countryside landscape. Such as the case of America in the early 19th century, where, according to the observations of Alexi de Tocqueville in 1831: "in Europe people talk a great deal of the wilds of America, but the Americans themselves never think about them; they are insensible to the wonders of inanimate nature" (cited in N Smith 1984:8). Indeed, from ancient times to the present day, attitudes to the countryside have been shaped by a response which we can term the pastoral. The pastoral is a view of the countryside from the town which comes only with the development of urban centres (Short 1991:30).

(iii) Ethnic structure. The relevance of ethnic structure of the population and tourism is most obvious in two areas: ethnic minorities and their cultures are an important components of tourist attraction, and tourism development may affect ethnic relations in many countries.

The traditions, life patterns, community organisations, and other aspects of the culture of ethnic minorities, aboriginal

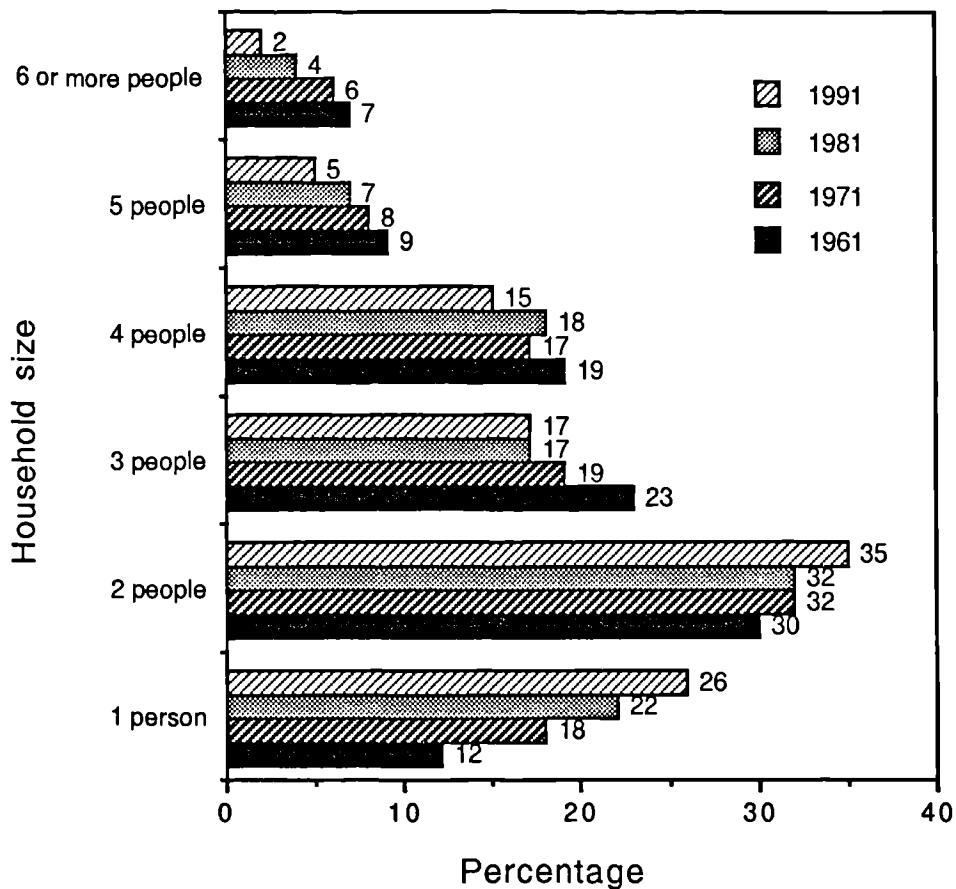
peoples and primitive tribes have been widely reported as unique attractions to many, especially western tourists (Cohen 1989; Roville 1988; VL Smith 1989). Although it has been described in very negative terms as creating a situation akin to a “human zoo” or “cultural zoo”, in which natives, willy nilly, make a spectacle of themselves (van den Berghe 1992:235; Urbanowicz 1989:113), ethnic tourism has been actively promoted in many parts of the world in which the cultural exoticism of the natives or the ethnic connections is the principal attraction (Jagusiewicz 1990; Kraskiewicz 1990; Stainton 1990; Wood 1984). The ethnic connection between two countries could also lead to large flows of VFR travellers, such as that between the UK and India, Australia and South Africa. It has been claimed that “being an Arab country is a significant factor in Saudi people’s outbound travel decision” (Yavas 1987).

Tourism development, the frequent contact between tourists and the ethnic minorities may also improve rather than damaging the ethnic relations in a country or region. Most of the reported cases show, however, that tourism has positively affected the ethnic attitude and relations between, for instance, Israeli and Egyptians (Amir & Ben-Ari 1985; Milman et al 1990).

(iv) Family structure. The family is the basic institution for meeting the needs of individuals and the organisation of any society. It is an institution that reflects transformation occurring within societies and which also contributes to social

change. The relations between tourism and the features of family — the size, life cycle, employment level, member relationships—is not always clear. However, it has been found in many studies that family travel behaviour, in terms of decision making, resort perception, holiday pattern and spending level, is influenced by its life cycle (Cosenza & Davis 1981; Fodness 1992; Hill et al 1990; Lawson 1991; Michie 1986).

Figure 40 Changes in the UK household size (1961-1991)

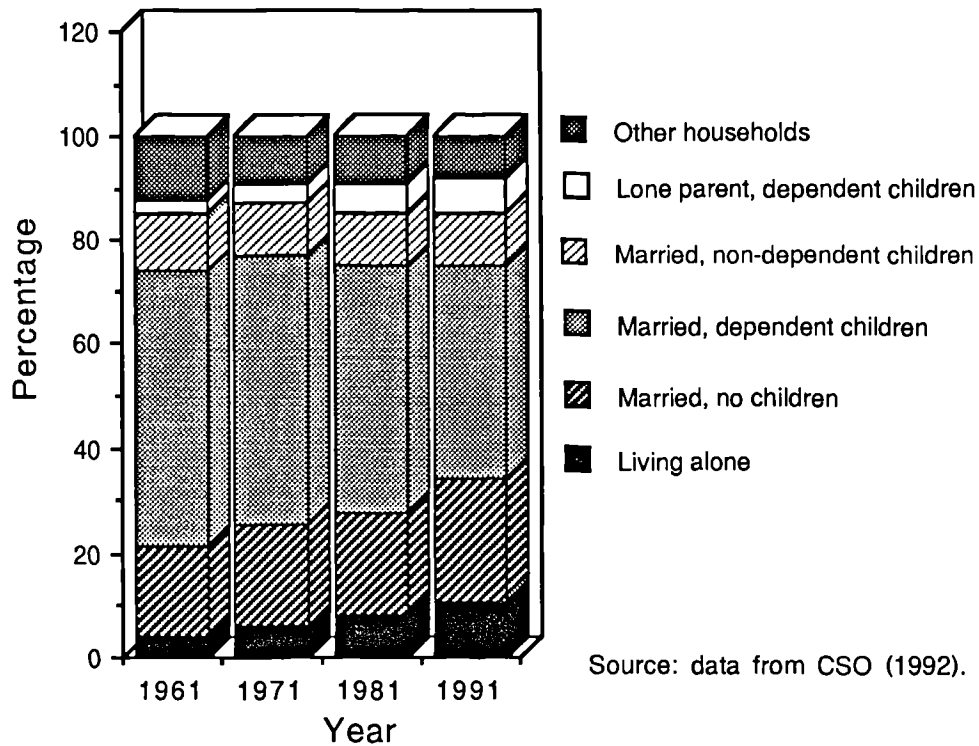


Source: data from CSO (1992).

The size of family may also affect the timing of holidays, the size of travel groups and the average holiday spending level.

There has been a rapid reduction in family size in many societies in the last a few decades. Figures 40 and 41 show the trend of family size and pattern changes in the UK since 1961.

Figure 41 Changes in the main types of household in the UK



It is clear that the size of the British household has been decreasing and that the share of the traditional nuclear family in total households has been shrinking. However, the full implications of the decreasing family size and increasing household numbers on tourism is still remain to be explored. There is no evidence that tourism may necessarily be able to benefit from this trend because firstly, disposable income will not be adequate enough for each single-parent family and, secondly, the amenities that were built over the last few

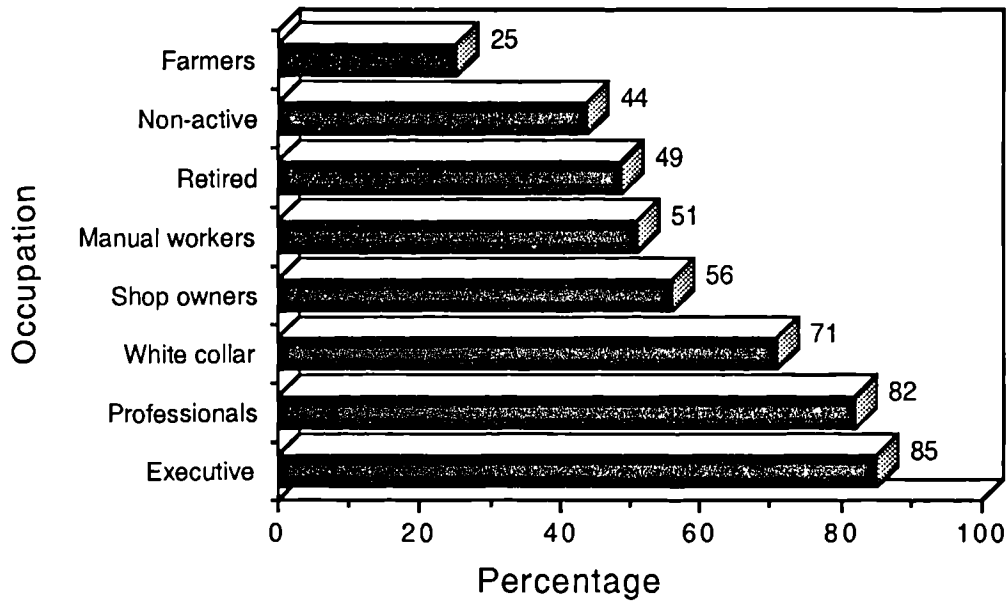
decades will have to adapted in accordance with current trends (WTO 1983d:29).

(v) Educational and occupational structure. As a person's occupation is often closely related to his/her education level, the educational and occupational structure of population may be conveniently considered together.

Education and occupation are important factors in influencing the perception of attractions, motivation of and demand for holidays (Pearce & Moscardo 1985). Difference in educational level affect the types of new experiences including travel experiences a person is willing to accept (McIntosh and Goeldner 1990:133). For example, "visitors to heritage sites are disproportionately from white collar groups, and particularly from professional and intermediate white collar groups" (Prentice 1989:58).

Surveys in Western Europe in 1985 shows that the propensity for holiday-making, and especially multiple departures, is much higher in the upper occupation and income categories while regular non-holidaymakers are much more numerous in the low-income groups and amongst farmers and fishermen. It can be seen from Figure 42 that over 80 percent of professionals and executives had taken at least one holiday in 1985 while the same rate for farmers was 25 percent and that for manual workers was 51 percent.

Figure 42 Percentage for taking at least one holiday in 1985

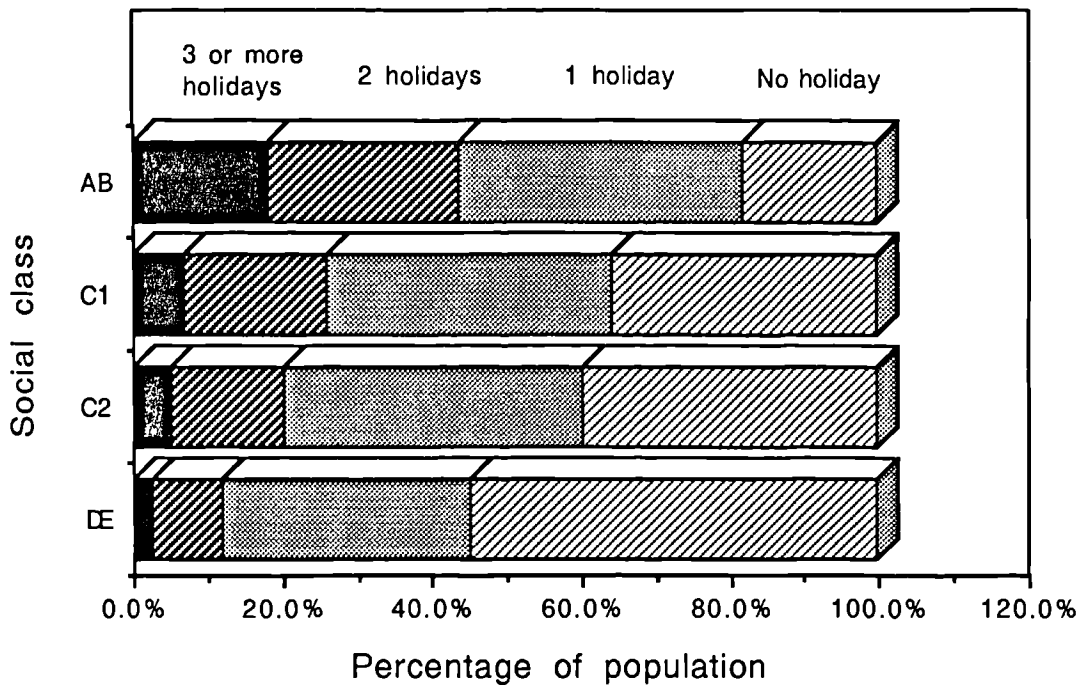


Source: data from the European Omnibus Survey 1986.

Figure 43 indicates the different holiday taking patterns of the different social groups (the classification is mainly based on *occupation*) in the UK. It is clear that the AB groups have not only a high level in holiday participation, but also high level in taking several holidays in a year; while the DE groups have the highest level of non-participation rate and the lowest levels in both single and multiple-holiday taking annually.

It is obvious that the different levels of holiday participation of various occupation groups may be caused by the differences in their income as well as education and vocation. But it is still not clear that to what extent the occupation variable alone is accountable for the different levels of travel demand, in particular for leisure travel, across the social groups.

Figure 43 Holiday taking and occupation groups (UK 1991)



Source: data from the British National Tourist Survey 1992.

5.4 FUTURE TRENDS IN THE SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Changes in a society are difficult to measure and even more difficult to predict as they are caused and influenced by so many different but interwoven variables. This section attempts to highlight some of the significant trends in social, cultural and demographic development in the world.

Social Trends

It has been argued that the industrial societies are rapidly moving to a condition where “leisure will be the happy hunting

ground for the independent spirit” (Kerr et. al. 1973:276). The leisure society is an ineluctable consequence of what they call the “logic of industrialisation”. Others consider mass participation of leisure and tourism as one of the key characteristics of post-industrial societies (Bell 1973) where generally more than 50 percent of their population practice tourism (usually defined in statistical data as at least four or five days away from one’s usual place of residence). This is, for example, the case in most Western European countries (Krippendorf 1987). It has even been suggested that in the leisure age, work may well come to be treated as spare-time activity (K Roberts 1970:20).

(i) More leisure time and its more flexible use will be a major factor in determining the pattern of holiday taking in the future. The trends of increasing leisure time and decreasing work time in many societies is well established (Parker 1975), the question is how quickly the work time is decreasing. The predicted four-day workweek (Conner & Breitena 1979) has failed to be realised and there may even be another episode in the future in which the shorter-work hour movement ended and people work more for higher consumption (Hunnicut 1988). Although paid leave entitlement is likely to continue to increase in the West, it appears that there is now less demand in many developed countries for further increases in annual leave entitlements than was the case a decades ago. Trade union pressures have turned more to achieving reductions in the working week—so creating more leisure time to be spent at home or for weekend trips (A Edwards 1985:140). However,

the prospects of increasing paid leave in developing countries, especially in those newly industrialised ones, is more promising (WTO 1983e).

Generally speaking, more people will have increasing volumes of leisure time and greater flexibility in utilising this time due to rising paid leave entitlement, increasing common job sharing and flexible working hours, and declining retirement age and longer longevity. Longer paid leave, nevertheless, will not automatically be translated into longer holiday trips and the Western European experience indicates that it will often result in more frequent (usually short) holidays (WTO 1990:34)

Flexible working patterns are likely to be another key factor in determining the structure of future holiday taking. One such system, known as flexitime, has been introduced in Thomas Cook for more efficient operations. The impact of this change is that employees are happier on the whole with the flexitime system and the organisation thus benefits from having a motivated and contented workforce. Flexible working hours and part time and temporary work will grow in popularity (Leisure Consultants 1982; Lockwood & Guerrier 1989; Stanworth 1991).

(ii) Tourism development in the future will be under greater influences from consumerism and environmentalism. Consumers are getting more sophisticated and demanding, especially in the travel field. Consumers' wants are being

translated into needs and needs are being looked at as rights. This is consumerism. The travel industry is frequently criticised on three main issues: (a) airlines and hotels oversell seats and rooms without proper care of consumer interest; (b) travel agents give inaccurate and misleading or completely wrong information; and (c) promotional literature published by official tourist organisations and tour operators and even airlines glorified the destination promising more than what can be delivered. The tourism industry should assume a proactive approach to identify and rapidly respond to changes in the market. However, as one study indicates, UK tour operators in the UK have been not very active in responding to consumer requirements (Gilbert & Soni 1991).

One trend of the development in consumerism is that its field of interest is tending to be wider and wider. The traditional consumer concern for "value for the price" has broadened to encompass responsibility for the environment. This has been recognised at the 13th IOCU World Congress in 1991 which *adopted a resolution on green consumerism* (UN 1993:118). The past decades has seen an increase in environmental awareness. Research has shown that "85 percent of the industrialised worlds citizens believe that the environment is the number one public issue" (Wight 1993) and 60 percent of Australian travellers have a strong affinity to "green" or "ecotourism" (Moore & Carter 1993:123). More and more people are concerned about environmental problems, such as chemicals and sewage on beaches and in rivers and sea; oil spills ; loss of species and habitats; radioactive waste; tropical

deforestation; acid rain; loss of trees and hedges; greenhouse effect; drinking water quality; loss of green belt; traffic fumes; litter; noise and so on.

(iii) Tourism is increasingly affected by fashion. It is important to establish some of the major trends within the tourism market. Up until the 1950s leisure time was primarily for relaxation after hard manual work. The 60s and 70s was a period characterised by the consumption of package tourism. However the 80s has seen a maturing in the tourism market and an increase in the number of independent travellers. Tourism is changing, since the origin of mass tourism, tourists are becoming more critical, the number of tourists has increased, tourists are more educated, people have better consciousness of health and tourists want more active participation. The mosaics of leisure style and travel behaviour are increasingly elusive, inconsistent, and contradictory. Because of the tremendous amount of market segmentation that is occurring throughout the tourism industry, leading forecasters emphasise that the multiple-profile consumer is here to stay.

With regard to the relative growth potential, the role of beach-based holiday may gradually decline. Beach-based vacationing, which, anyway, is a relatively new fashion, may have its limitations—particularly as people become better educated and want more than lying idle on an overcrowded beach. The ozone gap will represent an underlying threat to beach-based

tourism if the correlation between lengthy exposure to sun and skin cancer continues to be established.

Activity and special interest tourism will remain sectors experiencing fast growth and types of tourism that will develop, include spas (where Central and Eastern Europe is perhaps the market leader) and trekking (which may well include destinations such as the Alps, the Great Wall, the Himalayas and Northern Scandinavia). "Society is in the midst of an unprecedented increase in popularity of adventure based recreation" (Ewert & Hollenhorst 1990). Leisure shopping is also "becoming more significant to tourism, both as an area of spending and as an incentive for travelling" (Martin & Mason 1987:96).

Cultural Changes

Even though each culture has unique characteristics that differentiate it from other cultures, separate societies may also share cultural characteristics in common. These similarity may be the result of geographic proximity and frequent contact, or long-term political ties, as is true for former colonies. There has been a recognisable trend of cultural convergence in the world. This is caused by the development in telecommunication and transportation; the growing internationalisation of news and entertainment media; the increasing movements of people between countries; and the growing dominance of English as the international language; all of which helps to create a global culture (Featherstone

1990). "Ancient differences in national tastes or modes of doing business disappear. The commonality of preference leads inescapably to the standardisation of products, manufacturing, and the institutions of trade and commerce" (Levitt 1983:93-94).

Demographic Changes

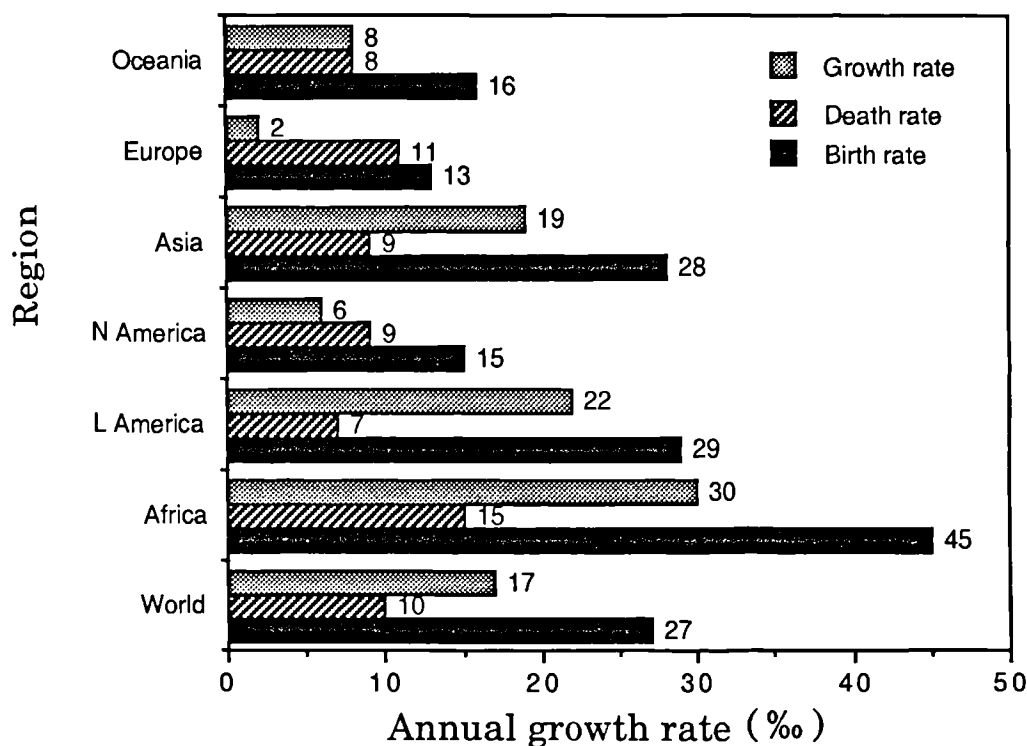
Population is an area in which data are relatively full and accurate and available in a form that enables forward projections to be made with a reasonable degree of confidence. The following trends have been identified and believed will continue in the near future:

(i) The world population will continue to grow but with uneven rates in different regions. Population growth is conditioned by four main elements: mortality rates and fertility rates, which together give the natural change in the original population; and at the national level, inward and outward migration flows, which together give the net migration rate. These four factors jointly determine the total changes in a country's population.

In most of the industrial countries both fertility rates and mortality rates have been falling over the past century and the net effect has been to produce populations which are now ageing and no longer growing in total size. In most of the Third World countries, in contrast, the fall in death rates has come later, and the fall in fertility rates much later still. This has resulted in a much younger age distribution and a high rate of

population increase. Figure 44 shows the average annual birth, death and growth rates of population in main regions between 1985 and 1990.

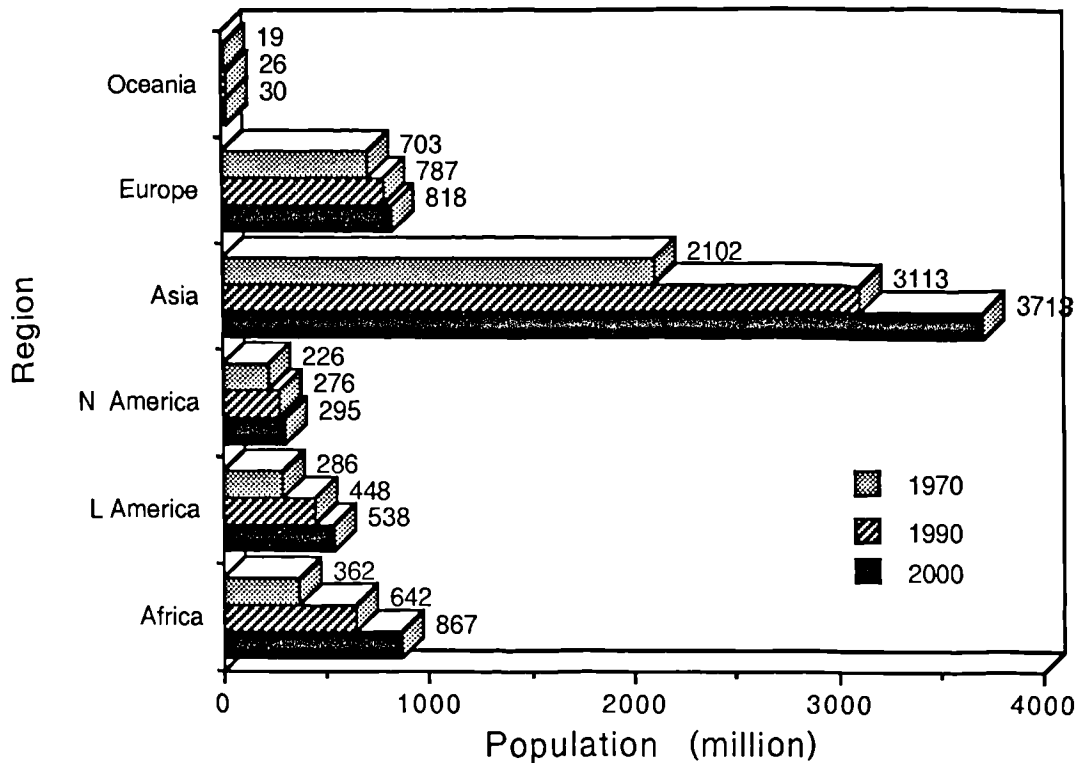
Figure 44 World population growth rate by region



Source: data from UN (1992).

It is now expected that over the next two decades world population will increase by more than 90 million people each year (Sadik 1990), and most of the increase will be in the countries of the Third World. The total population in the main regions of the world is exhibited in Figure 45. It is clear that between 1990 and 2000, countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America will witness much higher population growth rates than those of Europe and North America.

Figure 45 The regional distribution of world population

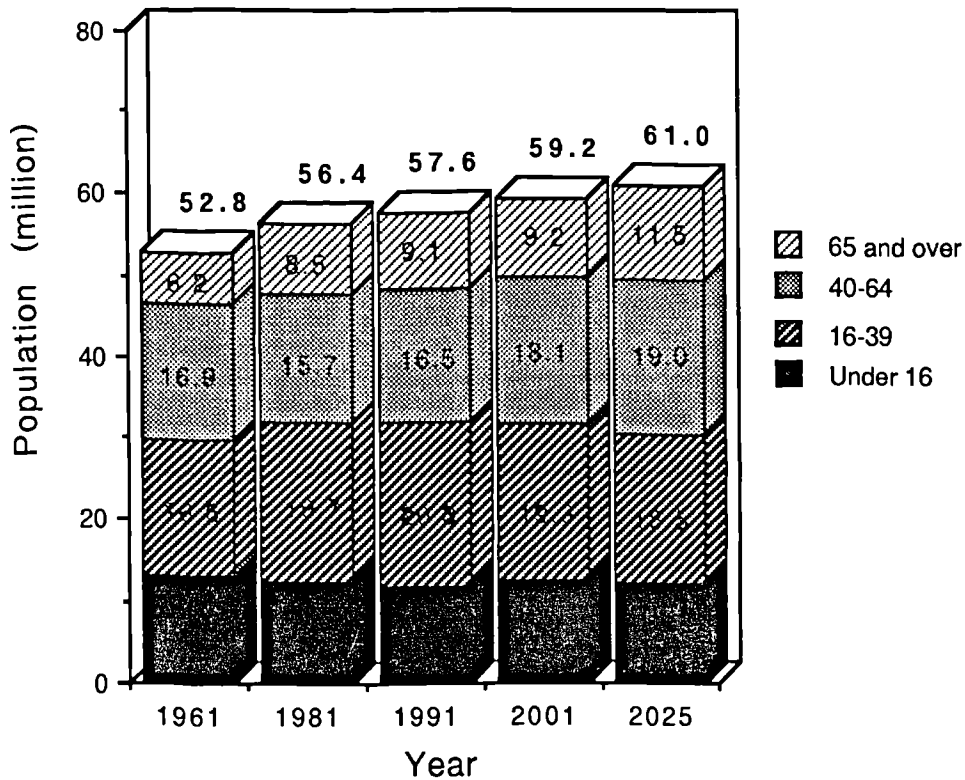


Source: data from UNESCO (1991).

(ii) The world population will become more mature. It is not news that the population of industrialised countries is becoming more mature. The declining birth rates since the 1960s and greater life expectancy have resulted and is likely continue to lead to the middle aged and elderly constituting a higher proportion of the population. Figure 46 indicates the actual and projected changes in the age structure of the UK population. The same patterns in changes can be observed in other developed nations. UN demographers expected that, in time, developing countries would follow a similar pattern.

(iii) An increasing proportion of the world population will live in urban areas. The combination of rising total population,

Figure 46 The age structure of the UK population



Source: data from CSO (1992).

rising productivity in agriculture in the countryside and expanding employment in industry and associated services in the towns is already leading to a large-scale movement of people from the countryside into the towns in nearly all developing countries, and this is expected to continue. The proportion of the developing world population living in towns has risen from 17 percent in 1950 to 33 percent now, and is expected to reach about 46 percent by 2010. While this proportion is low compared with the more-developed countries, where more than 75 percent of the population already live in towns, the large population densities in some Third World countries imply the growth of some very large

cities (UN 1990a). Rapid and higher level of urbanisation will increase environmental pressure and the appreciation of natural attractions.

(iv) Other established demographic trends may including: rising educational levels; changing employment and occupational structure; more working women and two-income-earning households; more single adults; later marriage and families; and more childless couples. All these changes will affect tourism in some way. For example, the changes in family structure, may lead to increasing household income and more travel spending (working women); the expansion of “singles” holiday travel market (single member); and the growth in travel by couples without accompanying children (childless couples). Increasing educational level will usually lead to more sophisticated travel demand which may result in greater demand for cultural, activity, and special interest tourism. It could also help to alleviate the shortage of educated and skilled labour in tourism and other industries.

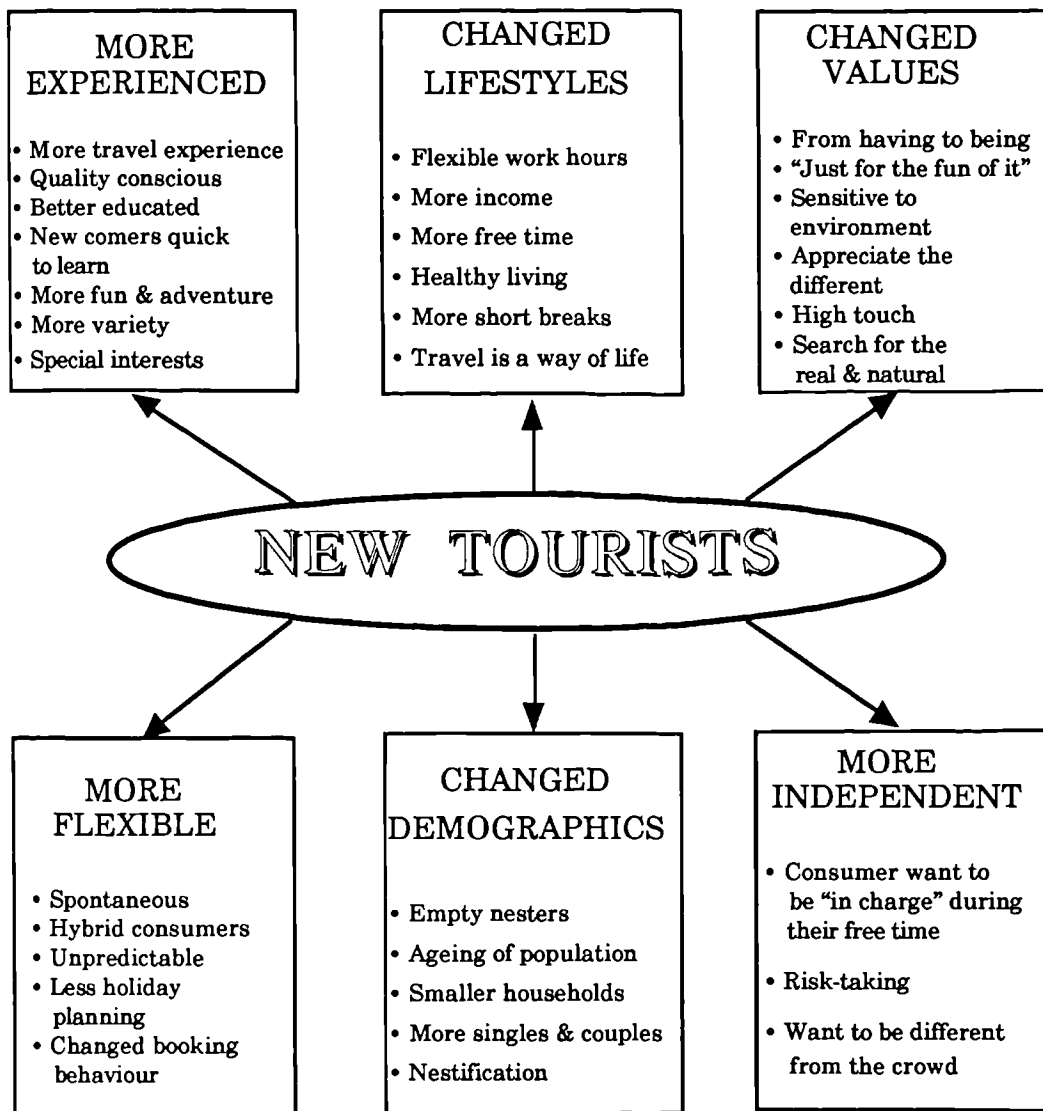
5.6 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The social, cultural and demographic trends discussed above will have significant implications for tourism development at both industry and enterprise levels, of which the following are considered as of strategic importance.

First of all, changes in the socio-cultural environment will provide a driving force for a “new” generation of tourists. According to Auliana Poon, the “new tourists” are fundamentally different from the “old tourists” in terms of motivations, attitudes and interests. “They are more experienced, more ‘green’, more flexible, more independent, more quality conscious and ‘harder to please’ than ever before” (Poon 1993:9-10). The main characteristics of the new tourists can be seen in Figure 47. Obviously, the increased travel experience, flexibility and independent nature of the new tourists are generating demand for better quality, more value for money, greater flexibility, more environmentally and culturally conscious in the travel experience.

The shift in the function of tourism from rest, through entertainment, to development, provides an underlying and unifying, guide to the nature of the tourism product that will be in demand in the 90’s. It implies that all types of destination and tourist packages that offer more than just a chance to enjoy the weather, the surroundings, the view and the company, will succeed. Activities, experiences, participation, and learning will all be key elements in the future of the tourism product. For example, the accommodation sectors, various types of “parahotel”, such as holiday clubs, parks and villages have to be developed at higher than average hotel growth rates and the traditional hotels will have to develop new product strategies to match the growing demand for more active tourists.

Figure 47 The features of the “new tourists”



Source: adapted from Poon (1993:115).

Secondly, the increasing share of the elderly in total population, together with the falling retirement ages in the developed countries, represent an expanding mature travel market. The present and future retiree is better educated, has less constraints, is more affluent, in better health, more active and more experienced in participating in travel. The substantial growth potential of the mature or senior market has attracted

much interest in tourism studies (see, e.g., Mintel 1991; de Rooij 1986; Shoemaker 1989). The senior travel market could provide substantial growth in holidays of long duration, long haul and a variety of content and forms. According to the *European Travel Monitor*, the senior travel market is one of the fastest growing sectors of the European travel market. It is now approaching some 200 million trips a year, of which about 50 million are international trips. International travel alone among the 55-plus age group is forecasted to increase by 35 percent from 1990 to 1995 and by 78 percent from 1995 to 2000 (Cockerell 1993).

The expected changes in age structure are potentially more important in their implications to human resource development. In the UK, the dependency ratio (the non-working population as a percentage of the working age population) is expected to worsen by 2010. The fall in numbers in the younger working age groups and the rise in numbers in the older working age groups will mean that the average age of the labour force will be higher than the present level. It is likely in many tourist sectors, especially in food services, to have a "grey labour" force (Lyon & Mogendorff 1991; Reid 1985). One consequence of a further tightening of the supply of teenagers may be to push up juvenile wage rates; another may be increasing employment of women and creation of more part-time jobs.

Thirdly, in recent years public interest and subsequent government action in industrialised countries has resulted in a

range of consumer “protection” measures setting conditions of trading and marketing within which the marketing and sales operation must work. The growth in consumerism and environmental consciousness may represent a market opportunity for businesses, which can promote their “green” activities. Tourist enterprises should not only respond to the consumer needs—access, safety, choice, information, redress, representation, and value for money (NRC 1986:27-31), but also have an environmental ethic and need to ensure the environmental integrity of their operations via procedures such as environmental impact analysis and green auditing (Cater & Goodall 1992; Fox 1991). The tourism industry should develop regulations and rules to protect and improve environmental quality, such as the Code of Environmental Practice for the tourism industry developed by the Australian Tourism Industry Association (ATIA 1990).

In conclusion, tourism development is conditioned by a host of social, cultural, historic and demographic variables. Any changes in these factors will inevitably affect the prospects and patterns of tourism development. The tourism industry must adopt a pro-active approach in monitoring, assessing and adapting to the new developments in its socio-cultural environment.

CHAPTER SIX

GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT

As a geographical phenomenon, tourism and travel involve the movement of people across space from the place of residence to the place of destination. Indeed, travel is motivated by unknown and different places and “essentially tourism is about an experience of place” (Ryan 1991:2). It is no surprise therefore that geographical variables are significant to tourism development and geography is one of the key area in tourism studies, in fact, geographers are among the pioneers in tourism studies. During the last two decades, there have been an increasingly interest in research on the various geographical issues of tourism (e.g., H Robinson 1976; Sinnhuber & Julg 1978 & 1979; Boniface & Cooper 1987; S Smith 1983; D Pearce 1987).

The current author does not intend to discuss here the relationship between tourism research and geography as it has been very well discussed elsewhere (see e.g., Fagence 1990; Mieczkowski 1978; Mitchell 1987; Mitchell & Murphy 1991; Smith & Mitchell 1990). The main objectives of this chapter might be defined as follows: to identify all the main geographical variables which affect tourism development in

one way or another; to investigate the various effects of these factors on tourism demand, supply and development; and to discuss and predict the trends of geographical changes and discuss their possible impacts on future tourism development.

6.1 THE PHYSICAL SETTINGS AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

“The key to successful tourism is the quality, location, and perception of that natural asset. The support services can enhance or detract from its appeal but the basis is still the natural resource itself” (Gray 1982). Most importantly, physical attributes such as climate and landscape may have a major bearing on the attractiveness of an area which will influence the type of tourism which develops. It may also facilitate or limit accessibility by different modes of transport.

Tourism and the Natural Environment

It has been argued that natural environmental assets are the “very foundation upon which all tourism rests” (Gunn 1989:1) and “are usually the most successful in attracting tourists” (Coltman 1989:59). Pleasant climates, scenic wonders, beautiful coastlines and beaches, majestic mountains and valleys are all part of the natural environmental attractions that cause large movements of people worldwide (Edgell 1990:77).

Natural assets or resources can be classified into four main groups: ubiquities, which occur everywhere; commonalties, which are widely occurring and often occupy extensive areas; rarities, which occur in very few places; unquities, which occur in one place only. This classification demonstrates that resources have place utility (Healey & Ilbery 1990:34). As most raw materials of tourism are restricted in their spatial availability. They are localised rather than ubiquitous (available everywhere). Indeed, every area has its own unique combination of natural resource features such as climate, topography and scenery.

Natural resources are also dynamic in that they are constantly changing as the circumstances of appreciation and exploitation alter. The concept of a resource is both functional and cultural. The perception of any resource does not rely on physical properties, but on a range of economic, technological and psychological factors. Spooner (1981:9) summarises the situation well: “the term resource does not apply to a material or an object, but to a value placed upon a material, in view of the function it may perform or the operation in which it may take part”. Resources are not, they become (Zimmerman 1951). They are inseparable from human wants and capabilities and change in response to an increase in knowledge and economic and social development.

The perceptions and values of natural attractions in tourism also changes over history (Lindberg 1991). “Prior to the middle of the 18th century, nature was not regarded as an attraction.

The Alps were to be avoided during the Grand Tour. The Romantic movement changed this attitude. Now it became fashionable to enjoy the scenery rather than ignore it” (Mill 1990:57).

The most powerful influence of nature on tourism is reflected in its special type—nature tourism which is directly and mainly based on natural resources. Nature tourism, or ecotourism or green tourism, has been increasingly popular in recent decades and this fastest-growing sector of the tourism industry offers tourism companies and Third world destinations alike the prospect of capitalising on the comparative advantage of these nations in terms of unspoiled natural environments (Durst & Ingram 1988; Lindburg 1991; Place 1991).

Topography and Tourism

Topography and physical features determine the distribution of natural resources, the condition and distribution of transport network, and often influence the climate in a country.

The types of landscape may be divided conveniently into three groups:

- Landforms: continents; hills, mountains, ranges; islands; trees, forests; coast, coastline; plains; peaks, valleys; deltas; peninsulas; capes; and archipelagos;

- Water forms: oceans; rivers and creeks; lakes and ponds; bays and inlets; gulfs & harbours; ports; water falls; channels, sounds, straits, and seas; isthmuses; and rivers systems; and
- Man-made features: streets and roads; bridges; buildings; boundary lines; cities; railroads; highways and route-markers; capitals and county-seats; airports; and canals.

In recent years a substantial amount of literature has developed concerning the assessment of landscape quality and attractiveness. Almost unanimously, studies have shown that water is one of the most powerful elements in enhancing preferences and numerous studies reported that trees or vegetation play a special role as a specific content in enhancing preference (Young & Brown 1992:472). Water is an indispensable element of life, and water resources are highly sensitive to climate variability and change. Water resources are essentially the products of climate but significantly influenced by land forms. Water in the different domains of the earth displays different rates of turnover and so reflects climatic fluctuations occurring at different time-scales.

Nevertheless, there are clear evidence that preferences for landscapes are not always objective (Craik 1972a) and are influenced by factors such as psychological (Craik 1972b); cultural (Nasar 1984; Zube & Pitt 1981); social values and fashions (Cosgrove 1984; Thomas 1973); every-daylife conditions (Ethridge 1983), and demographic factors (Hill et al 1990). It has also been changing over time (Barker 1982;

Conzen 1990; Hoskins 1965; Sidaway 1990). Therefore, there appears no single criterion for evaluating a universally suitable landscape for tourism. Places are “multisold” for tourism (Ashworth & Voogd 1990), often through “packaging” which assembles and wraps the place product in a number of ways so as to please different consumers (Ayala 1991:287).

Principle recognition factors of landscape evaluation are: form, space and time, variability, observer position, distance and sequence. These recognition factors were used in defining six different landscape or “compositional types”: panoramic, feature, enclosed, focal, forest, and detailed (B. Mitchell 1989:129). Litton (1968) made a special study of the visual travel landscape and identified and classified the following types: panoramic landscape, feature landscape, unclosed landscape, focal landscape, canopied landscape, detail landscape, and ephemeral landscape (cited in Gunn 1987:241).

Different forms of landscape have significant influence on the accessibility and the cost of access to a destination and the transport routes and networks within the destination. Mountain ranges and extensive plains, river valleys and expanses of swampland provide differential resistance to movement. Variations in physical conditions often “lead the location of particular routes almost entirely in terms of the influence of such physical conditions” (Dicken & Lloyd 1990:113).

The resiliency and suitability of the natural environment for development are also of importance in that affects not only the feasibility but also carrying capacity of tourism. This could be examined in terms of its physical characteristics—soil, vegetation, relief, aspect, fauna, slope or dune stability, river and water bodies and the variability of climate—and the dynamics of the relationships between these (D Pearce 1989:185).

Scenery and Touristic Landscape

Scenery is attractive landscapes. Scenic landscapes are a key tourist attraction especially to the sightseeing tourists. Indeed, much of the tourist activities is sightseeing which is based on the appreciation of natural and man-made scenery (Adler 1989; Dunn & Iso-Ahola 1991). Studies in Turkey and British Columbia indicate that the highest ranked attraction criterion for tourism is “natural beauty” (Gearing et al 1976; Var et al 1977). “There is a fair amount of evidence suggesting that scenery is, overall, a primary tourist attraction” (Dearden 1983:79).

Scenery can also be classified as landforms, water, and vegetation. The size of the Grand Canyon or of Mount Kilimanjaro cannot fail to impress. Water is important not only for its effect on the attractiveness of the area but also because of the recreational possibilities it opens up. Swimming, boating, and fishing are all activities enjoyed by many. The moors of England, the fall colours in New England, and the

tulip fields of Holland all attract the tourist. Two important points can be made in regards to scenery. First, it does not cost the tourist anything to enjoy it. There is no “admission charge”. Second, the variety of scenery is important. An area that offers a different type of landscape every few minutes can successfully compete with such giant landforms as the Rockies and the Grand Canyon (Mill 1990:58). Nevertheless, “landscape beauty may be a ‘whole’, that is more than the sum of its parts” (S Smith 1983:20).

Considerable efforts have been made to classify and evaluate the landscape and scenery preferences (e.g., Abello et al 1986; Bourassa 1990; Eleftheriadis et al 1990; Penning-Rowsell & Lowenthal 1986; Schroeder 1984). Various techniques have been designed for assessing the relative scenic quality and quantifying scenic beauty (Carlson 1977; Deardon 1980; Linton 1968) of the landscape and the impact of various environmental modifications upon quality. One of the most influential studies has been Fines’ (1968) work on landscapes in East Sussex. He defined the quality of scenery into spectacular, superb, distinguished, pleasant, undistinguished, unsightly six types based on a geometrical scale between 0 and 32 (Fines 1968).

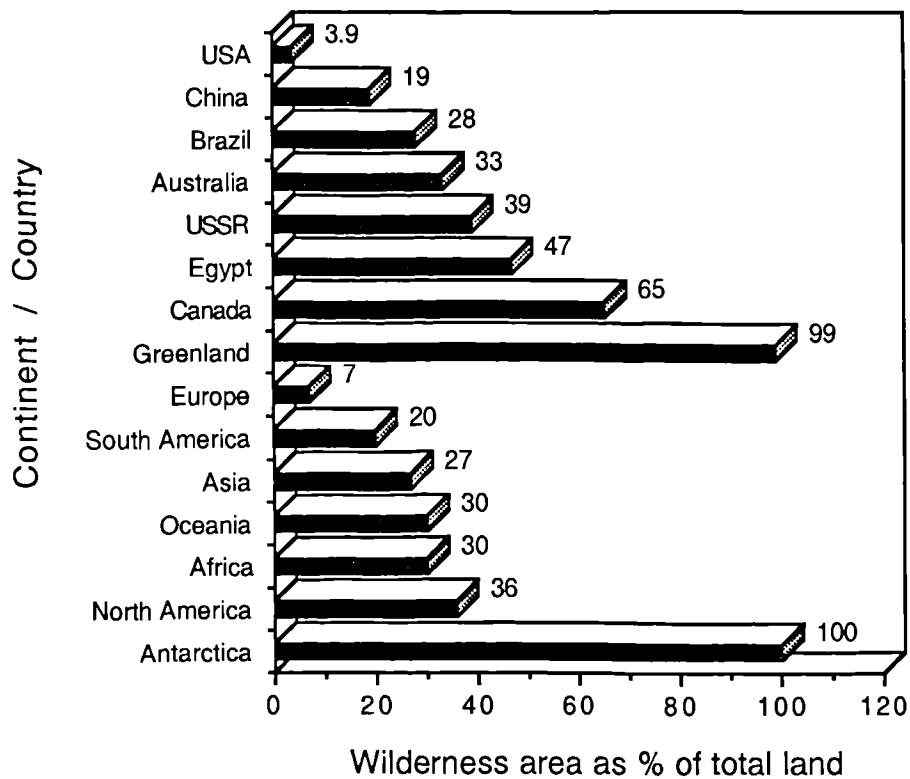
Some special forms of landscape are of particular importance to tourism; they are pleasant beaches, snowy mountain slopes, health spas, wildness areas and attractive urban areas. The dominant importance of beach and ski resorts in mass tourism is indisputable and very well documented. Spas played an

important part in the historical development of tourism and have been regaining its popularity as a tourist attraction since the late 1970s (Becheri 1989; Goodrich & Goodrich 1991; Hembry 1989).

Wilderness areas are another landscape form attracting tourist. Although people's opinions and preferences of wilderness are different and changing (Virden 1990), there is a link between wilderness and tourism (Doeleman 1990; Hammitt & Cole 1987). According to the US Wilderness Act of 1964, wilderness consists of those areas "where the earth and its community of life are untrammelled by man, where man himself is a visitor who does not remain". However, "wilderness is not only a geographical feature or an environmental situation. It is also a state of mind, a psychological feeling of space that can differ from one individual to another" (Martin & Inglis 1984:62). Figure 48 exhibits the percentage of wilderness area in total land in major countries and regions. It is clear that the less developed countries and regions have great potential in developing those forms of tourism which based primarily on the observation and appreciation of the nature itself.

The close association between the built environment—city and urban scene—and tourism development has also long been recognised (Mullins 1991; Newcomb 1979; Pocock & Hudson 1978). Cities have been praised as the prime tourism magnets (Rosenow & Pulsipher 1979). "The very size and complexity of the big city is for some people part of the attraction" (Short

Figure 48 Wilderness areas by major geographical regions



Source: data from McCloskey & Spalding (1987).

1991:43). From the dawn of recorded history, urban areas are special places because of the dynamic environment they provided for social, economic and political interaction and the tremendous variety of amenities they offer. In recent decades, urban tourism has been widely used as a means to regenerate and revitalise the declining urban areas (Beioley 1981; Law 1992). The features and potentials of urban tourism are increasingly attracting research interests from a variety of authors (e.g., Ashworth 1985; 1989; Jansen-Verbeke 1986; Vetter 1985).

Flora and Fauna as Tourist Attractions

Wild plants and animals are a source of beauty, wonder, joy, and recreational pleasure for large numbers of people. It is no doubt that wildlife is a type of major tourist attractions (Davies 1990, Duffus & Dearden 1990) though the tourists' perceptions of wildlife could be different and has been changing (Kellert 1984). Many people travel to view animals in captivity or in their natural surroundings and others travel to hunt them. Natural endowment and distribution of species of animal and plant could shape some forms of tourism, e.g., special interest tourism which is often based on unique wild animals and plants.

Each year, almost 50 percent of the American population and 84 percent of the Canadian population participate in bird watching, photographing, and other non destructive forms of outdoor recreational activity involving wildlife. Wildlife tourism is important to the economy of some least developed countries, such as Kenya and Tanzania. One wildlife economist estimated that one male lion living to seven years of age in Kenya leads to 515,000 dollars of expenditure by tourists (GT Miller 1992:412).

The physical environment sets broad limits within which tourism development takes place. It is possible to relate patterns of tourist activity to the opportunities and constraints presented by the physical environment. The degree of dependence on physical environment as attraction, however, is varied with different forms of tourism. It is within the resort

sector, and especially in nature tourism, that the constraints of the physical environment in particular are most apparent while the influence of the natural conditions on VFR and business travel is limited.

6.2 CLIMATE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Although the relationships between tourism and climate have long been recognised, little research has been directed specifically at the nature of these relationships (Mieczkowski 1985; Perry 1972; Singh 1979; Yapp & McDonald 1978). This section looks at the influences of climate and its variations on tourist attractions, seasonality and operations.

There are four general views of the role of climate in socio-economic life: (a) Climate as setting. One sense of climate is as the setting for the processes of biophysical and socio-economic systems. It is a given and stable backdrop to life on earth. (b) Climate as a determinant which views that climate as a dominating influence in the moulding of natural and social systems, such as social structure, settlement patterns, and human behaviour. (c) Climate as hazard. This long-standing view treats climate as a hazard to be suffered, accommodated, or mitigated. Extreme climatic events—drought, avalanche, cyclone, flood—with magnitudes outside the normal spectrum, may pose severe and unexpected stresses upon the society. (d) Climate as natural resource. This contemporary view of climate holds that as a natural resource, climate could be

exploited to enhance human productivity, health and comfort though climate is essentially a “free resource”, available to all economic actors at a given location (Kates et al 1985). All these four views are relevant to tourism development for climate is a setting, a determinant, a hazard and a resource in tourism.

Climate and Tourist Attractions

“Climate is the long term weather conditions at a particular location. It is determined by three main factors: latitude; continental or marine influences; and relief” (Boniface & Cooper 1987:18). Temperature, humidity, the duration of sunshine, the frequency of precipitation, and winds are all important climatic variables influencing tourist activities.

Pleasant climate conditions are one of the major tourist attractions. Sun and sea are main attractions to the mass tourist, as is snow to winter resorts. “One of the most significant impulses in the development of tourism has seen the search for sun” (Peters 1969:3). The growth of mass tourism in Europe is explained by the fact that there are large urban areas in the north of Europe that experience cool and cloudy weather and relatively under populated areas in the south with warm, sunny weather. As a result, the summer months see major movements of Germans to Spain and Italy to bask in guaranteed sunshine at the beach (Mill 1990:55).

Is there a universal attractive touristic climate? Certainly, different tourist attractions and resorts have different climatic

requirement. Crowe (1975) developed a general index for a range of summer activities, e.g. landscape touring, vigorous activity and "beaching" by combining such factors as maximum temperature, humidity, cloud cover and precipitation. Mieczkowski (1985) constructed a global tourism climatic index based largely on comfort considerations. Hoppe and Seidle (1991) designed an integral bioclimatic index the Physiological Equivalent Temperature (PET) to assess the climate at seaside resorts. Although as yet far from perfect, these attempts to define tourist climates suggest that it is insufficient merely to consider a single element, such as temperature, or a series of elements, as has often been the case in the past. Some attempt must be made to combine particular parameters into a more general index and one which is related specifically to particular recreational or tourist activities.

Tourism is also affected by climatic reliability and changes in weather, for example, mild weather and low snowfall in several years in 1980s had disastrous effect on many ski resorts in Scotland and North America (Ewing & Kulka 1979; Perry 1971; Sadler 1983).

The climate in a country also affects the potential and distribution of domestic tourism and the outbound travel flow. "The exchange of home climate for a more favourable one... underlies the popularity of sunlust tourism to Mediterranean, Caribbean and Pacific destinations" (D Pearce 1989:152). In the UK, the growth of foreign package holidays is often

achieved partly at the expense of traditional domestic seaside holidays.

Climate and Tourism Seasonality

Tourism is a highly seasonal industry (BarOn 1975; Soesilo & Mings 1987). Seasonality arises from both the timing of holidays and from the seasonal nature of some forms of tourist attraction, especially summer sun and winter snow. Climate is the key natural forces shaping the seasons of the tourism attractions whether it is a beach or ski resort, even the institutional causes such as school holidays are also related to the cycles of climate change.

Seasonality of tourism is especially serious in some islands and coastal and mountain destinations where the major attraction is sun and snow. In other areas, such as Zambia, the cycle of rain and dry seasons also check tourism business (Teye 1988; 1989). Seasonality will lead to underuse of tourism facilities in off-peak season and overstretch the supply capabilities of the industry in peak times. It also gives rise to higher development costs when the construction period is limited by rainy seasons or harsh winters and higher operation costs where extreme temperatures increase the need for central heating or air conditioning.

Cyclic climate change thus seasonality will have different effects on different tourist regions and different forms of holiday. Seasonality will become more important as the

dependence on climatic factors increases. The length of season will be more critical for coastal and winter sports resorts than for capital city tourism (D Pearce 1989:153).

Although there has been efforts, especially from the EC, to reduce seasonality in tourism by measures from both the social institutional side (staging holidays), the industry's effort (seasonal price differentiation) and the creation of artificial summer and winter amenities in leisure centre. But in general, they are in a small scale and either inconvenient or with high cost. The influences of climate exercised over tourism development is still very significant.

Natural Hazards

Natural disasters or hazards are caused and associated with many other factors other than climate, but they may be conveniently examined here. Natural disasters, such as floods, droughts, cyclone, earthquake, volcano and landslides, claim an average of 40 billion dollars in global resources and at least 250,000 deaths a year (Kates et al 1985:xv).

Natural catastrophe tends to occurs regularly, but with higher frequency in some particular areas or countries (especially earthquakes, floods, volcanic eruptions, typhoons, cyclones) and extremely rare in some others. The negative and sometimes disasterous effects of natural hazards on tourism are frequently reported. South Pacific island tourism is extremely vulnerable to natural disasters because the beach

front or coastal locations of many tourist facilities often bear the brunt of high winds and seas. “Cyclones , for example, checked the expansion of arrivals in both Fiji and French Polynesia in 1983” (D Pearce 1989:132).

Man-caused disasters, such as desertization, lower level of ground water, and nuclear accidents (Three Mile Island, 1979; Chernobyl, 1986), chemical accidents (Bhopal, 1984), acid rain, oil spill (Exxon Valdez in Alaska 1989), and so on, had similar disasters effects on socio-economic life and tourism.

Diseases also have an impact on tourism in that they may affect the ability of tourists to travel and the safety and perception of tourist destinations (Lewis 1989; Pasini 1989). Certain diseases are related to specific climate, such as the tropical climate. Malaria remains one of the major health problems in the world, being present in more than 100 countries. Over 2 billion people are at risk of the disease, especially in poor African countries (WHO 1992:15). Malaria has been considered as one of the main factors of the lack of tourism development in Papua New Guinea. Other tropical and parasitic diseases represent an important public health burden to and constraints on tourism development in developing countries.

However, disaster analysis and planning has rarely tackled in the field of tourism studies (Murphy & Bayley 1989). The disasters or hazards study is mainly a type of risk assessment. It aims to identify those hazards, estimate the threat they pose

to humanity and the environment, and evaluate such risk in a comparative perspective. While hazard identification focuses upon what constitutes a threat, the estimation or measurement of risk attempts to determine both the likelihood of an event of a given magnitude occurring as well as the likelihood and nature of the associated consequences (B. Mitchell 1989:193).

6.3 COUNTRY LOCATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The location of a country, as far as tourism is concerned, has three dimensions: geographical situation; relative distance to main tourist generating and receiving countries; and position in the global transport and communication network.

Location is important in tourism development because monetary, physical, and temporal resources have to be invested to overcome the friction of distance, which is a constraint in tourism destination selection decisions (Anastasopoulos 1991). Typically, distance would be seen as a negative to travel. The further the distance between the destination and the market, the less travel we would expect between the two. Factors accounting for this distance decay include increasing costs in time, money and effort, together with decreasing awareness of opportunities available. Obvious distance decay effect can be observed in international tourist flows, with intraregional traffic predominating in many parts

of the globe and reciprocal flows developing between countries, particularly neighbouring ones.

Although there is a good deal of agreement that the flow of tourists declines with distance, there is far less unanimity regarding the rate at which such falloff occurs. In other words, what is the “frictional value” of distance (i.e., b in the gravity model $I_{ij}=k \cdot P_i P_j / D_{ij}^b$)? “Almost certainly, there is no uniquely correct exponent of distance” (Dicken & Lloyd 1990:79). It is likely to vary from one type tourism to another; from place to place, depending on such factors as the efficiency of the transportation means and organisation; and from time to time because as transport improves the frictional effect of distance is likely to decline.

Furthermore, distance is a far more complicated concept than merely the straight line between two points on the earth. It is not just an unchanging (absolute) units of miles, kilometres, and so forth. Stephen Smith (1989:223) observes, “Distances... are measured as straight lines on a map. In reality, this ignores the effects of perceptions, border, physical barriers and transportation networks....perceptual distance or accessibility as substitute”. There are many new elements of the concept which will reflect the relative location and relative distance in stretchable, shrinkable spaces in the world. There are many kind of differences—physical distance, temporal distance, economic distance, social distance, and cognitive distance (Gatrell 1983; Mayo & Jarvis 1986).

Time distance is shrinkable in that improvements in transport means and networks ensure the time distances are historically fluid and places “move” with respect to each other. As a means of formalising the well-known adage that “the world is getting smaller all the time”, Janelle (1968; 1969) introduced the concept of time-space convergence. Convergence is certainly not a simple linear, or even continuous, function of historical time, since when new services are introduced there is usually an abrupt change in time distance. In tourism studies, there have also been several attempts to evaluate the time distance and the values and opportunity costs of travel time (VK Smith et al 1983; Truong & Hensher 1985; Walsh et al 1990).

Economic distance is the monetary cost incurred in overcoming geographical distance. Travel cost is one key variable in travel decisions. Clearly, it is not a simple function of distance but incorporated travel time as well as other factors. There is a fairly clear relationship in the case of passenger flight cost, one that is curvilinear rather than linear (Lowe & Moryadas 1975:36). Geographical distance acts only as a surrogate for the variables that jointly determine price. These include the costs of providing the service (for instance, the type of aircraft used) and “a very delicate and complicated multinational bargain within the International Air Transport Association (IATA)” (Gwilliam & Mackie 1975:323). Both these influences serve to explain apparent “anomalies” in the cost-distance relationship such as the high prices within Europe and cheap fares across the Atlantic (A. Gatrell 1983:59-60).

Social distance is closely related to the economic, social, cultural and ethnic connections and the size of the exchange flows between two countries which has been discussed in the previous chapter. Cognitive distance is defined as the distance estimates made by individuals based on the use of information stored in their memory and their beliefs. The implication of cognitive distance to tourism demand has been discussed by many writers (e.g., Ankomah & Crompton 1992; Beaman 1974; Cook & McCleary 1983). There are two possible outcomes from cognitive distance distortion—overestimate and underestimate—both of which may adversely impact a destination.

Geographical Situation

The geographic situation of a country on the earth measured in degrees of longitude and latitude largely determines its topography, climate and other natural features. Location will correlate with trade theory in terms of comparative advantages in tourism. Isard (1956:207) states that “trade and location are as two sides of the same coin”.

The more developed countries formed a belt occupying mainly the temperate regions of the northern hemisphere, with a few “outliers”—Australia and New Zealand—in the more temperate regions of the southern hemisphere. It appears that development is related to location and climate, especially that the cooler environments of the temperature zone have

somehow encouraged development whilst tropical conditions have hindered it.

There is no doubt that tropical conditions (that is, the absence of a cold season) appear to have certain effects that make some kinds of development more difficult than they seem to be in more temperate lands. "Tropical climates appear to have hindered the improvement of agriculture, handicapped mineral exploration, and subjected populations to disease" (Courtenay 1985:16). While the tropical and subtropical regions have been considered to be unfavourable for general development, they are excellent for tourism development. As the opposite attracts and as the major origin areas of the world are in temperate regions, the passion for sun and sea makes the tropical regions key areas of tourist attraction and they become the tourist's sun belt. This sunbelt is the destination of most of the sunlust tourists while the high latitude regions possesses most of the winter resorts.

When a nation-state has no direct access to an ocean, it is said to be landlocked. Although located at or near the centres of their continents, most of the landlocked states are on the periphery of the world economy and three-quarters are being classified by the UN as least developed countries (UNCTAD 1989:149). This is because not only a landlocked state has to bear the high overland transit-cost, it is also vulnerable to disruptions of transit routes resulting from technical breakdowns, natural disasters, labour disputes, political upheavals in their coastal neighbours, such as the experiences

of Nepal and Mozambique (UNCTAD 1992:15). Another disadvantage confronting landlocked states is their lack of access to the resources of the oceans, in the case of tourism, sea and sand.

The relationship between tourism development and islands are well documented (e.g., Archer 1989; Bastin 1984; Britton 1987; Gabby 1988; Wilkinson 1987 & 1989). Generally speaking, island, especially small island states have done comparatively better in tourism than in many other industries. The island status is always related to sea and beach which are the prime inputs for tourism activities. Islands, however, have significant geographical constraints resulting from a small land area and separation from other states. Small islands tend to have limited agricultural and mining potential, limited water supply, high cost in transportation and communications, especially those scattered mid-sea island states, and limited domestic markets preventing them from gaining economies of scale in many industries (Latimer 1985; Melamid 1978; Milne 1992; Srimivasan 1986). They are also prone to natural disasters, such as tropical cyclones, earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. This often leads them to be specialised in a few industries, of which tourism is usually a viable option (Poon 1990).

Distance to Main Tourist Generating Regions

A country's relative location in terms of the distance to other countries usually has an significant effect on both its international (inbound and outbound) and domestic tourism.

The distance to the main tourist originating centres are most important though the distance to main tourist destinations and the conditions of the neighbouring countries are also relevant.

Of course, the relative distance to other countries is also multi-dimensional and may be measured in terms of miles, time and costs. At the international level, proximity to industrialised and urbanised countries with high standards of living will be important. The nearness of large urban areas and the characteristics of their populations (age, income) will be deciding factors at the national and regional level. Therefore, the tourism booms in countries like Austria, Switzerland and Spain is attributable to advantageous location as most of their neighbours are large tourist generators; while in Africa, it has been claimed that “the widespread poverty virtually precludes travelling within the continent and well-off nationals prefer the industrialised countries” (Menck 1991).

A great distance from the major tourist-generating areas of the world and the existence of many intervening opportunities—countries offering the same type of attractions—between South America and the tourist-generating countries are among the major causes accountable for South America’s failure in attracting more inter-continental tourism. Distance and cost have meant that tourism in Asia and the Pacific has been slow to develop.

It is possible to construct a “locational condition model” to measure a country’s locational advantage or disadvantage, based on the gravity model, as follows:

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{GA_i}{D_{ij}^a} P_j H_j$$

- C_{ij}: the locational advantage (disadvantage) of destination i;
- G, a: coefficient to be estimated;
- A_i: attracting and carrying capacity of destination i
- D_{ij}: distance between destination i and originating country j;
- P_j: population of originating country j;
- H_j: foreign holiday participation rate of originating country j.

The flow and distribution of international tourist movements could be understood as a movement from a few central places (namely, Western Europe and North America) to fan out over to other regions. These processes could be termed as spread effects which exist and operate in a very uneven geographic manner and are constrained by two important factors: the effect of geographic distance and the distribution of tourism resources. The spread of tourist flows tends to fall off very rapidly with distance from their source. In other words, the spread effects exerted by the development of a tourist originating centre are most effective in areas close to the centre itself. The desire of tour operators and travellers to minimise transportation costs has led to the exploitation of the nearest resources first, whether these are seaside resorts or cultural attractions. The mass tourist movement from the generating centres has been predominately directed toward

the edges of such centres rather towards new centres in the periphery.

Certainly, different types of tourism development will demand differing degrees of market access and tourists will be prepared to travel different distances for different types of holiday or attractions. Some remote destinations could well develop its small scale but high per visitor spending tourism by promoting its unique cultural and natural attractions to carefully selected target markets.

Situation in the Global Transport Network

Access and travel cost are not always proportional to physical distance, the availability and efficiency of transport routes are often more significant in determining the economic, temporal and cognitive distance.

The spread effect, or the tourist gravitation does not work on an isotropic plain but on an uneven surface of the globe with virtually unique features in every area. The regional, national and global transport networks are not evenly distributed but are complex systems of hierarchically ordered centres with evident functional and locational characteristics which can be identified on a variety of scales. There are continuous changes in the relative position of cities, countries and regions in the global transportation system as it is responding to the demand of different areas. However, because of the nature of incremental change, the present shape of existing transport

systems are fully explicable only in terms of historical process, the result of the distribution of demand for transport as it existed in past periods and the future structure of the transport network is based on the present one.

The global transport network is not evenly distributed across countries and most transport routes, like the location of tourist originating centres, tend to cluster together in certain central places. Christaller suggested that such central places could be organised according to what he called the traffic principle which “states that the distribution of central places is most favourable when as many important places as possible lie on one traffic route between two important towns, the route being *established as straightly and as cheaply as possible*. The more unimportant places may be left aside. According to the traffic principle, the central places would thus be lined up on straight traffic routes which fan out from the central point” (Christaller 1966:74).

It is desirable for a destination to have more than one form of transport. The higher a destination's position on the transport network hierarchy the more competitive its position in the tourism market, for a few routes and nodes dominate the system. A destination's level of accessibility is conditioned by the transport technology and hierarchies which have preceded it (Murphy 1985:51-59).

The existence of a route increases the accessibility of a destination and the land along the route. There are three

useful measures of tourist accessibility—highway accessibility, regional accessibility and point accessibility (S Smith 1983:45-46). In international tourism, air routes are especially important. The availability, frequency, cost, closeness to key nodes and major routes, provision of both charter and schedule flights, all have significant impacts on the physical, temporal and economic accessibility of a destination. A recent study in the Caribbean ascertained that tourist destinations depend on international air services (Jemiolo & Conway 1991). Nevertheless, relative isolation will only be an advantage where the emphasis is on a luxury market and the exclusion of mass tourism.

The above three dimensions all have significant impacts on tourism, but comparatively, the geographical situation is a fixed factor which no human efforts could change; the relative distance to main tourism centres is changeable but it is up to the other countries' development; only the position in the global transport network can be changed to a certain extent by development efforts of the destination itself.

6.4 COUNTRY SIZE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The size of a country to a certain extent determines the options, impose thresholds, and influences the patterns of a nation's economic and tourism development. The relationship between country size and tourism development is a neglected issue in

tourism studies. This section attempts to analyse the influences of country size over the various aspects of tourism development, including the national background, the tourism resource base, the level of tourism demand, the significance of tourism in the economy, and the impacts of tourism development.

The Measurement of Size

Country size is a relative and somewhat ambiguous concept. It exists in comparison and is usually taken to refer to the size of its territory, the size of its population, the size of the national income, or a combination of all these elements. That is, country size often has geographical, demographic and economic dimensions. Since the implications of GNP size are closely associated with that of the development level which has been discussed in Chapter 3, the size discussion here is focused on the population and territory dimensions.

As the gap between large and small countries is so wide, it is desirable in cross-state comparative research to categorise countries into various size groups and study their behaviour at group level. However, as the dividing line between what is considered large and what is small varies over time as well as with analytical purposes, there is no universally accepted “hard and fast line” and it appears clear that “the demarcation of sizes is bound to involve some arbitrariness” (Jainarain 1976:47).

The present writer has also to tackle the problem of size measurement in an arbitrary fashion. Among some 270 territorial units in the world, 200 independent states have been chosen here as the sample based on their importance and data availability. The result of these classification is presented at Table 6 and Figure 49.

Table 6 The distribution of countries by population, area and GNP size

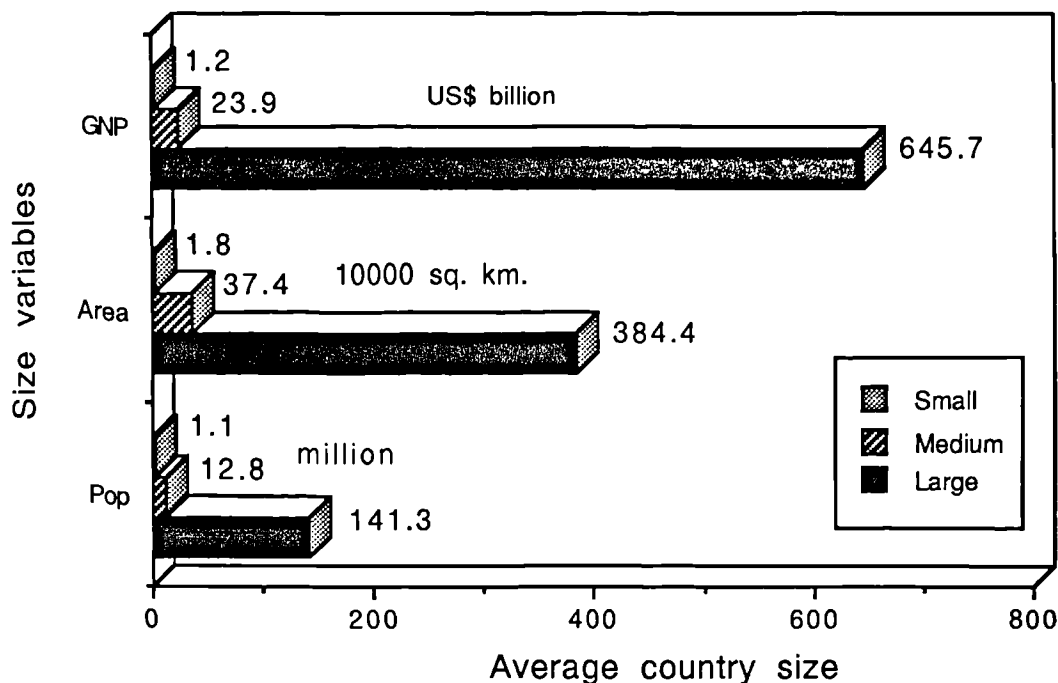
Size group	Population		Land Area		GNP	
	Range (million)	No. of countries	Range (1000km ²)	No. of countries	Range (US\$ bn)	No. of countries
Large	> 30	31	> 100	27	> 80	30
Medium	5-30	64	10-100	72	4-80	70
Small	< 5	105	< 10	101	< 4	100
<i>A</i>	> 100	10	> 200	12	> 300	11
<i>B</i>	30-100	21	100-200	15	80-300	19
<i>C</i>	10-30	37	30-100	39	20-80	33
<i>D</i>	5-10	27	10-30	33	4-20	37
<i>E</i>	1-5	35	1-10	42	1-4	42
<i>F</i>	< 1	70	< 1	59	< 1	58

Sources: data derived from UN (1992) and the World Bank (1992).

Country Size and National Socio-Economic Background

As a social activity and an economic sector, tourism is an element in the socio-economic system. Its development is undoubtedly conditioned by the national economic, political and social background. The size of a country has a clear bearing on these overall characteristics.

Figure 49 The average size of three size groups



Source: data derived from UN (1992) and the World Bank (1992).

First of all, size dictates the endowments of productive factors of a country. The availability in both quantity and variety of natural resources, such as minerals, climate, land and water, is largely a function of area size. The size of human resources is indicated by a country's total population though it is also affected by the structure of the population in terms of age, education level, skills and work attitude. The supply of capital and technology in a country is mostly associated with the size of the economy.

Secondly, from the demand side, the domestic market of a country is proportioned to its population and GNP size. The size of population points out the number of potential consumers while per capita income indicates the average effective

demand of each consumer and GNP determines the maximum capacity of the internal market. Large countries generate relatively large domestic markets which enable them to achieve economies of scale in serving their own citizens. Whereas insufficient domestic demand makes it economically unviable for many industrial sectors to be developed in small states.

Thirdly, though sometimes nebulously, country size tends to have certain links with a nation's political and social features. Because of their smallness, small states are usually more dependent on the external environment than large countries would be. (a) Politically, they are more vulnerable to external pressure and individually weaker in international affairs and often suffered from internal instability (Chubin 1991). (b) Culturally, they have less unique national identities and often parasitise on and imitate the world's main civilisations. (c) Historically, most of the small states are ex-colonies of the Western metropolitan countries and have only achieved independence in the last half a century. In contrast, large countries often have more influences on global affairs and their long attained independence is supported by economic and military powers as well as political sovereignty.

As a natural result of the above three influences, small states typically have less diversified industrial structures and rely more on foreign trade to take advantage from specialisation, whereas the larger countries can benefit from both supply facilitated and demand driven development from within its

boundaries and have a more complete economic system. The inverse relationship between the size of a nation and the overall degree of openness of its economy is well established (see e.g., Robinson 1960; Kuznets 1966) and it is a proposition beyond dispute that “the larger a nation’s population, the lower is the share of foreign trade in that nation’s GDP” (Perkins & Syrquin 1989:1705).

Thus, the general features of a country may influence the various aspects of tourism development explicitly and implicitly, such as the necessity, feasibility and priority; the nature, conditions and patterns; and the performance and impacts of tourism development. The following discussion could be deducted to some extent from these background attributes.

Country Size and Tourism Resources

Tourism resources may be roughly categorised as either natural or manmade both of which are closely linked to the area, population and economic size of a nation.

Natural resources are the major attraction to and the “backdrop” for tourist activities. Each country is blessed with a unique combination of natural resources, which takes in the physical features, the climate, and the natural beauty of the area. Although these features are generally conditioned by location and topography, it is the size of a country that dictates the diversity of environment and climate regions in the

territory (Cater 1987). For example, while the dominant features of desert, mountainous terrain, or urban scene in Yemen, Bhutan and Singapore curtail the range of options of their tourism development, the wide variety of natural attractions in countries such as Australia, China and the USA may meet every type of the nature-lust tourist demand.

The cultural and social resources of tourism in a country are the result of the successive effort of the past and present generations of the population. It is self-evident that the population size of a country has a positive link to its social and cultural assets. The large nations, often with a longer recorded history, have more glorious achievements in various fields and possess a long established and more unique national identity. In these countries, numerous archaeological sites, historical buildings and exotic crafts, folklore and customs as well as music, art, museums and theatres could be capitalised on as attractions to tourists.

On the contrary, a small country often has a comparatively short history and less distinguished identity and image in the world (such as the case of many African, Caribbean and Oceania states). The culture in many small states is often either one of indigenously originated with lower level of development, or one which was imported from the metropolitan countries with little differentiation. Both these traditional or parasitic forms of culture are usually less significant in global tourism though the cultural primitiveness

or similarity could sometimes be an attraction, especially to Western tourists.

Country Size and Tourism Demand

The absolute number of travellers that a particular country generates is determined by its population size and the travel participation rate of the population, which will depend mostly on income level. The demand for tourism is distributed between domestic and foreign destinations. It appears evident that the significance of domestic tourism is positively linked to the population and area size of a country. On the supply side, the tourist resources and facilities are closely associated with country size. A large territory will possess a wider variety of landscapes and climate; a larger population will be correlated with richer historical heritage and more cultural attractions; and a larger economy will lead to better infrastructure and superstructure as well as purpose-built tourist attractions. Whereas in a small state, attractions tend to be limited or monotonous and facilities are often inadequate. In many small poor countries, even though some high standard amenities were built, they are often enclaves for foreign tourists as the high price prevents the nationals from having access to them. In some small territories (especially those mini-states with a land area of less than 10,000 square kilometres), the very short distance involved in domestic travel often makes the majority of the travellers day trippers hence the average level of spending tends to be very low.

In spite of the lack of adequate statistics of domestic tourism and comparative studies in this field, there are sufficient reasons to believe that due to stronger “pull” and “push” force, domestic tourism will normally be better developed in a large country than in a small one. This statement can be borne out by a comparison of the relative importance of domestic tourism in countries of different sizes in 1988 (see Table 7).

Table 7 The relative importance of domestic tourism

Share of domestic tourist nights in total tourist nights		Per capita domestic tourist nights in hotels, etc.	
Country	Percentage	Country	Nights
Germany	86.25	Canada	9.92
UK	74.50	UK	8.85
Canada	73.40	Denmark	2.40
Austria	24.32	Luxembourg	0.54
Luxembourg	9.60	Mexico	0.41
Brazil	84.00	Morocco	0.28
Senegal	6.86	Senegal	0.01
Cyprus	2.89	El Salvador	0.007

Source: WTO (1989).

The size of a territory affects adversely both the desirability and feasibility of foreign travel of its population. On the one hand, area size and thus the diversity of attractions will largely determine the degree of travel demand being met domestically. On the other, area size dictates the accessibility to foreign countries. In a large country, particularly in its interior areas, long distance needs to be crossed to just reach the borders and this leads to longer time and more costs for foreign trips. On the contrary, the easy and quick access to foreign lands and a high

proportion of unsatisfied travel needs will make people in small states to have a higher propensity for foreign travel. This may be the principle explanation why the USA, the largest tourist country, generate fewer international travellers than West Germany does because the proportion of trips taken abroad in the USA was only 7 percent while in Germany it was 64.8 percent in 1988.

Table 8 presents the number of trips taken abroad per 1,000 population in selected countries in 1987. It is obvious that the foreign travel participating rate of a country is directly related to its GNP size and inversely linked to its area and population size. Thus, if the high rate of Sweden and Switzerland is attributable to their high income, the higher rate of Barbados and Jordan could be explained by their small size; likewise, if the low rate of Kenya and Thailand is caused by small GNP size, the low rate of Australia and USA is definitely due to their

Table 8 Number of trips taken abroad per 1000 population

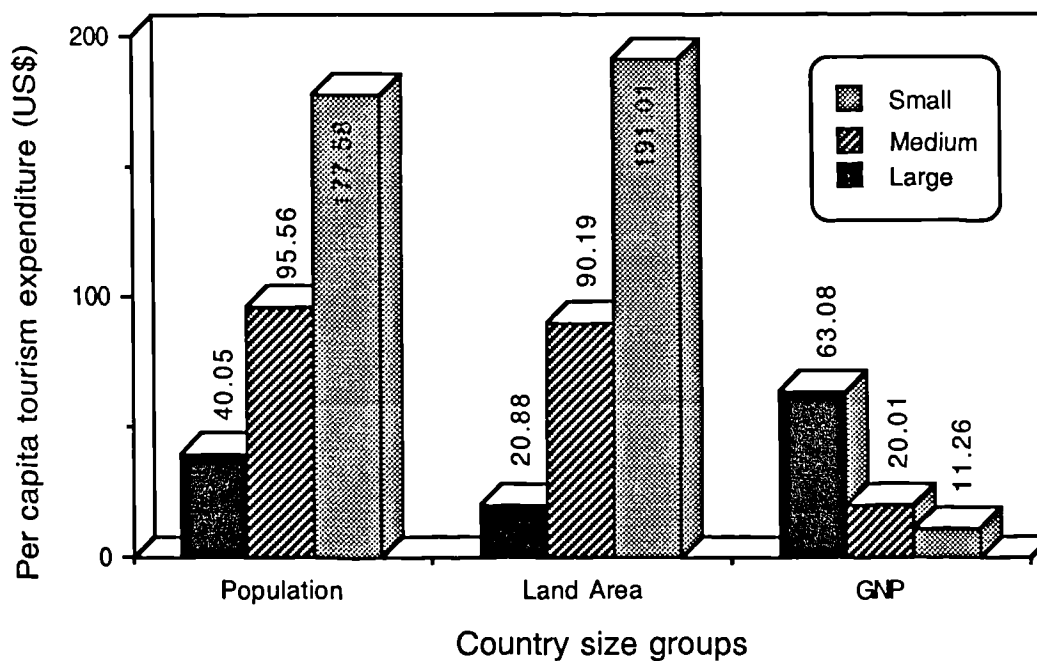
Country	No. of trips	Country	No. of trips
Brunei	2706.2	New Zealand	190.3
Barbados	2114.2	Malaysia	125.1
Bermuda	1482.4	Australia	98.1
Sweden	829.8	USA	61.3
Switzerland	717.9	Mexico	34.8
Netherlands	542.7	Kenya	28.5
Iceland	455.3	Thailand	11.9
Jordan	291.4	Brazil	7.6
Cyprus	246.0	India	2.6

Source: data derived from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

large land area; and the combined effect of high income and small area leads to extremely high rates in Brunei and Bermuda whereas the joint force of low income and large territory results in the exceptionally low rates in Brazil and India.

The overall relationship between country size and the average per capita tourism expenditure abroad can be seen in Figure 50 which clearly exhibits per capita travel spending is positively related to the GNP size but inversely linked to the population and territory size.

Figure 50 Country size and tourism expenditure per capita

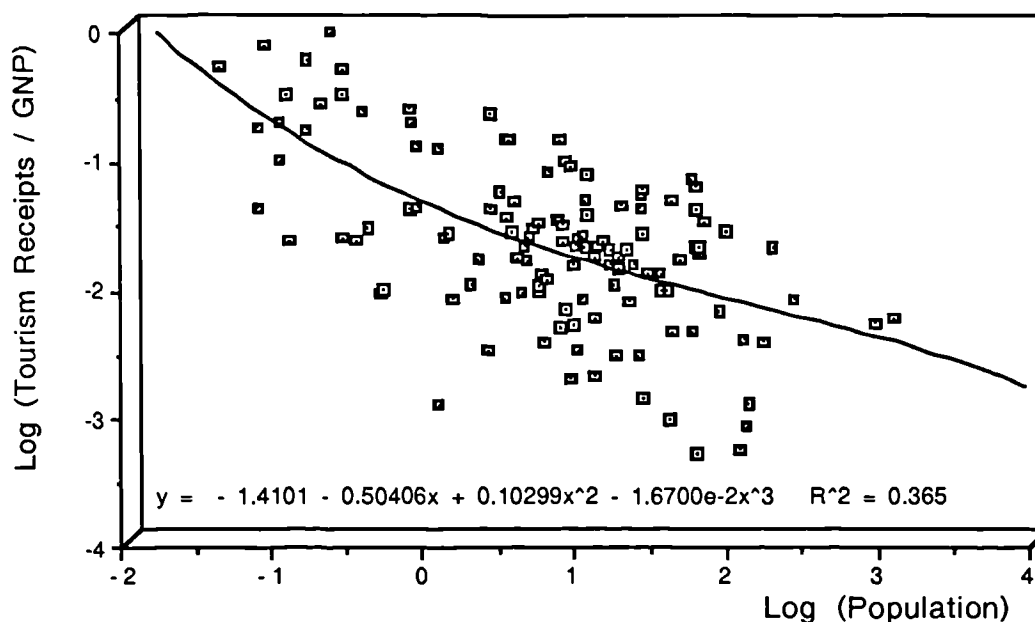


Sources: data derived from UN (1992), the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

Country Size and the Position of Tourism in the Economy

For a large country, on the one hand, a wide-range resource base and large domestic market will justify itself in seeking to achieve a balanced structure in the economy, tourism will never be the only available development option and seldom be the most important industry. On the other hand, the relatively small world demand for international travel, even faster growing, makes it impossible for a large country to rely on tourism as a main source of income generation or economic growth. For example, the share of international tourist receipts in GNP in two thirds of the 31 most populous nations in 1990 was under 1 percent and the highest was 6.38 percent. Figure 51 indicates the inverse relationship between population size and the significance of the tourism industry in the economy.

Figure 51 Population size and the share of tourism receipts in GNP



Sources: data derived from the World Bank (1992) and WTO (1992).

In contrast, small countries, usually with a biased resource endowment and a specialised economic structure, will often depend on foreign markets for economic growth. But their exports, 75 percent of which are primary products (Perkins & Syrquin 1989:1716), have been suffering from price fluctuations and a worsening terms of trade which strongly constrained their growth opportunities. Accordingly, tourism, with higher demand elasticity and less trade barriers, has been favoured by many small states to be either an alternative or a means of diversification of visible exports.

In conclusion, although no accurate and comprehensive measurement on a cross-nation basis of priority given to tourism has been made, it is reasonable to suggest that the smaller the country, the higher the priority would normally be given to the development of the tourist industry.

Country Size and the Impacts of Tourism

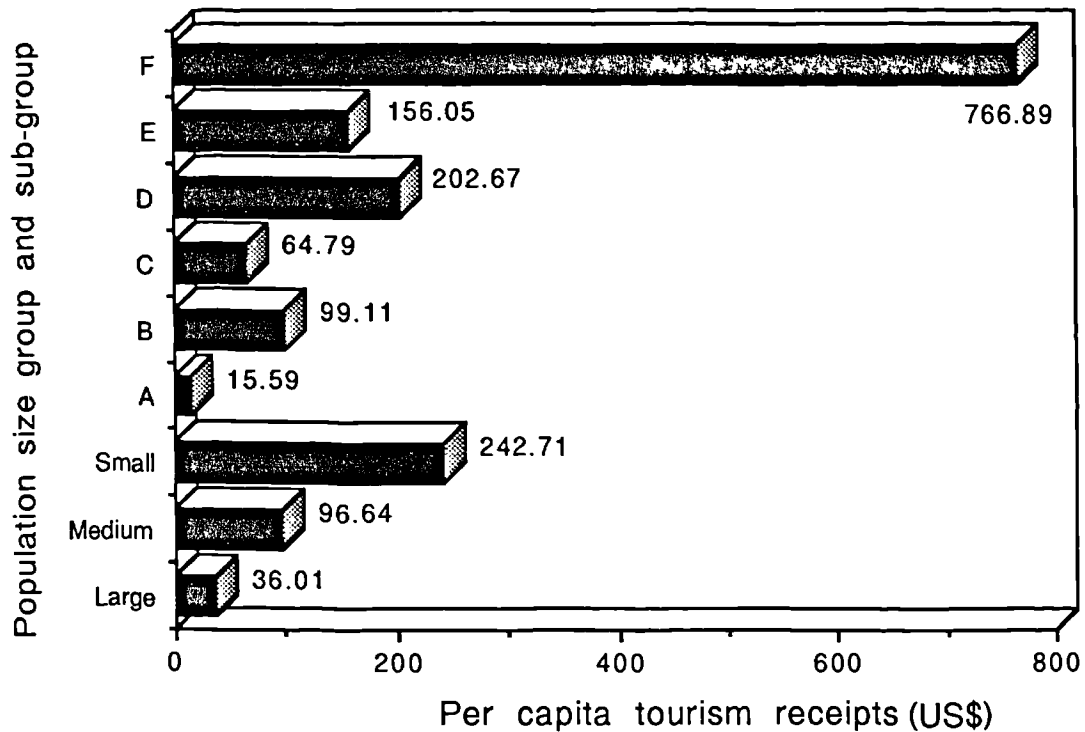
Tourism has widespread impacts on society. The extent and intensity of tourism impacts are determined by a number of factors, the most critical being the nature, scale and stage of the industry, the level of economic development and the size of the country. There has been little attention paid to assess the part played by the size of a country in influencing the impacts of tourism development though it has been hypothesised that “there is an inverse relationship between population and the positive impacts of tourism (Wilkinson 1989:159). Some of the

tourism impacts which are obviously related to country size are as follows:

Foreign exchange generation. In terms of the direct economic effect of tourism, large countries usually have a larger tourist revenue than small ones. For instance, the international tourism receipts of the USA was over 40 billion dollars while Sao Tome and Principe recorded a mere 1 million dollars in 1990. However, in terms of per capita receipts, the picture is just the opposite. For example, the Bahamas enjoyed a tourism receipts per capita of 5,126 dollars whereas the same figure of India and China was under 2 dollars; and Austria earned a per capita tourism receipts of 1,691 dollars while the USA had only 162 dollars. Therefore, with a high level of per capita tourism receipts, many small states can rely on tourism as a major industry, a main income source and a key foreign exchange generator whereas in most large countries tourism can only be expected to play the role of a complementary sector in the economy. Figure 52 presents the average per capita tourism receipts in different size groups in 1990.

In the case of the indirect economic impact, or the multiplier effect of tourism, the influence of country size is more uniform and direct—the larger the country, the higher the tourism multiplier. This is because the magnitude of the multiplier depends largely on the degree of tourist goods and services supplied domestically and how closely the various sectors of the economy are linked.

Figure 52 Population size and tourism receipts per capita



Sources: data derived from UN (1992) and WTO (1992).

In a large country, a more diversified resource base and a complete industry system, will allow it to enjoy both a high level of inter-industry linkages and a low level of leakage for most of the tourist demand can be met by domestic products. Whereas in a small state, the small scale and limited variety of industries limit the range and volume of linkages; moreover, through a high import propensity the linkages could “jump” well across its boundaries to other countries. For example, in some Caribbean islands over half of the food and 60 percent of the beverage consumed by tourists were imported (CTRC 1984).

Furthermore, as the degree of foreign involvement in the tourist industry is inversely related to the size of country, other

forms of leakages such as the repatriation of interest, profit and the commission and salary paid to aliens, will be more sizeable in small countries than in large ones. In small less-developed states, according to Cleverdon (1979), net foreign exchange earnings only accounts for less than 50 percent (in small island economies such as Mauritius, even under 10 percent) of the total tourism receipts, whereas in large economies, the proportion is usually over 70 percent. The direct relationship between country and the levels of linkages is reflected in Table 9 through the index of tourism income multiplier in a selection of countries.

Table 9 Estimated tourism income multipliers

Country	Multiplier	Country	Multiplier
Turkey	1.98	Hong Kong	1.02
UK	1.73	Malta	1.00
Ireland	1.72	Mauritius	0.96
Sri Lank	1.59	Singapore	0.94
Jamaica	1.27	Antigua	0.88
Egypt	1.23	Bahamas	0.88
Dominica Rep.	1.20	Fiji	0.79
Cyprus	1.14	Iceland	0.64
Bermuda	1.09	Solomon Islands	0.52
Seychelles	1.03	Western Samoa	0.39

Sources: Archer (1982); Fletcher (1989); Fletcher & Snee (1989).

The negative economic impacts, such as inflationary pressures and economic dependency, are again related to various extents to the size of a country. The inflationary pressures are found to be more severe in small countries. For example, the increase in

food demand caused by tourism in Bermuda and Cayman Island are well over 15 percent (Phipps 1986:77) while in large countries this is seldom the case.

The danger of depending exclusively upon tourism for economic development has often been related to small nations (see, e.g., Oglethorpe 1985; Jafari 1986; Wilkinson 1987). This is because, firstly, only small countries are likely to depend on tourism as the key source of national income; of all the states with international tourism receipts accounting for more than 20 percent of GNP in 1990, most small in population. Secondly, the tourist attractions in small countries are less diversified thus more exposed to the disruption caused by fashions shifts. Thirdly, the biased economy makes small countries more difficult in alleviating shocks from a slump in the tourist industry. On the other hand, for large economies, there is little possibility of being overdependent on tourism as the highest ratio of tourism receipts to GNP in 1990 was under 7 percent. Furthermore, the tourist resources as well as the whole economy in a large country are more heterogeneous and more capable of avoiding, buffering and adsorbing the costs of economic disturbance caused by tourism or any other industrial sectors.

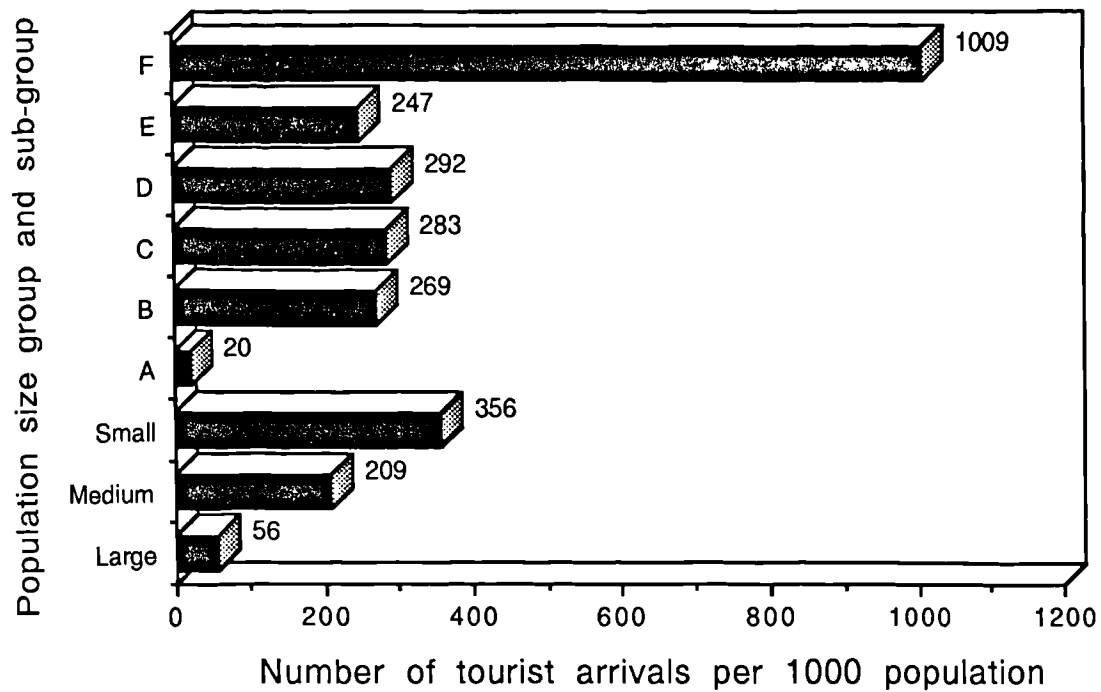
The social and cultural impacts of tourism are the effects on the people of host communities caused by their direct and indirect associations with tourists. The scale and intensity of these impacts are determined by a variety of factors, among which the size of the host country is an important one. It has

been suggested that “small countries”, with low levels of development, “are likely to experience more negative socio-cultural effects as a result of tourism development than are larger, more developed countries” (de Kadt 1979:17).

One of the most evident social impacts of tourism is expressed by that all-embracing concept the “demonstration effect” which causes the host population to emulate the consumption patterns and lifestyles of tourists. In most developing countries, the demonstration effect often leads to a “revolution of rising expectations and Western consumerism” (Lea 1988) and a “premature departure to modernisation” (Jafari 1974) with disruptive consequences. The magnitude of the effect is conditioned, among other factors, by the extent of host-tourist interaction, that is, the more frequent the contact the greater the effect.

The frequency and intensity of the host-tourist contact could be measured by tourist-host ratio, that is, the number of tourist arrivals per 1,000 host population. As a result of small population size and greater tourism development effort, the tourist-host ratio tends to be higher in small countries. For instance, in Bermuda the tourist-host ratio was over 7,000, in countries like China, India, Bangladesh, Brazil and Pakistan, the figure was under 10. As the disparity of the value of tourist-host ratio between small and large countries indicates (see Figure 53), the demonstration effect is bound to be more evident in the former than in the latter.

Figure 53 The average tourist-host ratio of different size country groups



Sources: data derived from UN (1992) and WTO (1992).

The tourist-host ratio could also be used as a measure of another social consequence of tourism — the tourist-host relationship. As the level of acceptance, tolerance and resentment of host population for the presence and behaviour of tourist are mainly conditioned by this tourist-host ratio, Bryden considers it as “an indicator of the degree of confrontation between tourists and indigenous” (1973:92), other writers name it as the “tourist irritation index” (Doxey 1976; D’Amore 1983) or the key factor in determining the “social carrying capacity” (Mathieson & Wall 1982:21-22). Needless to say, the rational level of this contact ratio, whatever is the figure, will more likely be exceeded in small countries. In larger countries, tourism will usually be more

concentrated, e.g., Goa in India and therefore the effects tend to be more localised.

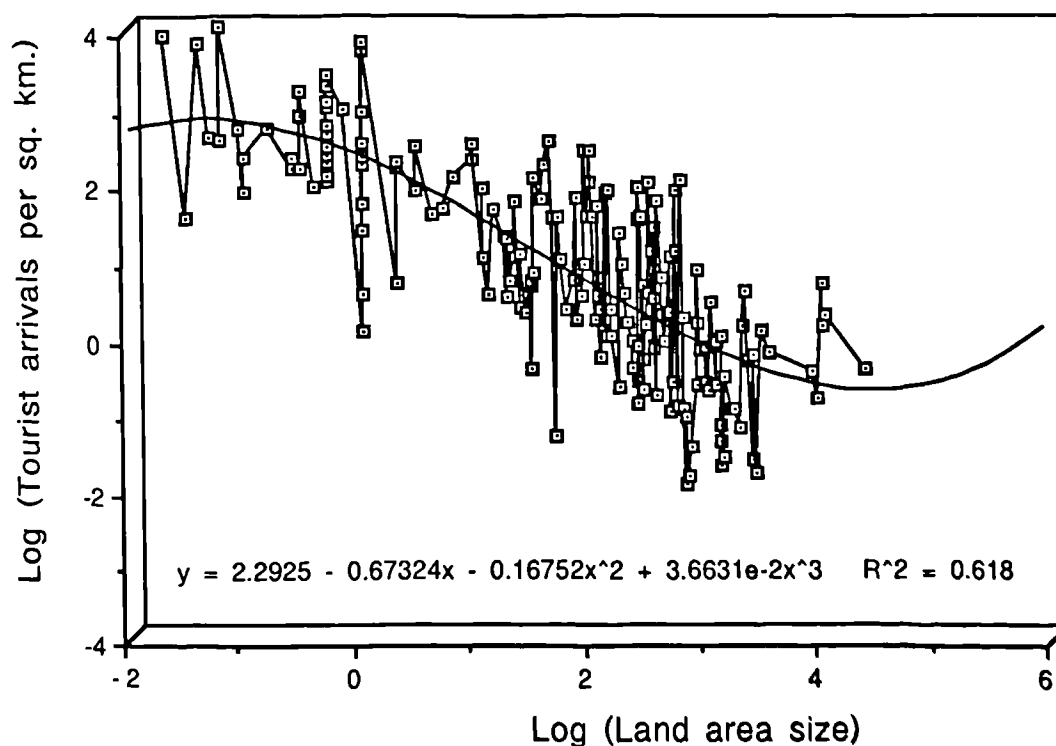
Moreover, as most of the small countries are ex-colonies of the Western powers, where most of the present international tourists originate, the servile relationship of the tourist employees to the foreign tourists can more often induce the perception that tourism is a new form of imperialism, colonialism or white intrusion and therefore aggravates the potential conflict with tourists (Matthews 1978).

Tourism development could result in both negative and positive effects on the physical environment of the host country. The nature and magnitude of these impacts are determined by a variety of factors, such as the intensity of tourist-site use, the resilience of the ecosystems, the pattern and degree of facility development, and undoubtedly, the size of the host country which, in the light of the following two observations, is inversely related to the intensity of environmental effects of tourism.

First, the tourist density, in terms of the number of tourist arrivals per square kilometres, is a good indicator of the level of tourist pressure on the physical environment. In this regard, it is certain that the natural and cultural landscape of small countries tend to be under greater pressure than that of large countries. For example, in 1990, the average tourist density in large territories was 0.93; in medium size groups, 9.46; and in small countries, 70.72. In 59 mini-states with land area less

than 10,000 square kilometres, the tourist density reached as high as 402.88. The number of per square kilometre tourist arrivals in small islands such as Bermuda and Malta was thousands times higher than that in large countries such as Australia and Brazil. However, caution should be taken to the fact that the above figure does not reflect the length of stay of tourist and the distribution of tourist across the country, so the low national tourist density not necessarily exclude the possibility of very high regional tourist densities in some areas. Figure 54 depicts the relations between the land area size and tourist density in 1990.

Figure 54 Territory size and the density of tourists from abroad



Sources: data derived from UN (1992) and WTO (1992).

Secondly, most of the small countries are located in the tropical and subtropical zones and many are small and isolated islands, their ecosystems are often extremely fragile and exposed to environmental disruptions. Moreover, the tourist attractions and activities in small countries are more nature oriented and usually concentrated on coastal areas with a typical pattern of “ribbon-like” development and a high site use intensity. In contrast, most large territories are situated in the temperate zones where the natural environment is prone to be more resilient and tourist attractions are more diversified and more scattered which may contribute to the alleviation of tourism pressures on the ecosystem. Therefore, the environmental effects of tourism in small countries will be more pronounced and severe than that in large countries.

The brief discussion so far indicates the development of tourism in a country is closely linked to its population, land area and GNP size. Large countries usually have more and richer tourism resource endowments but it is often in small countries where tourism has been developed with greater enthusiasm. Large destinations normally receive more tourism revenues but it is in small states where tourism is most significant in both per capita terms and in its share in the national income. The complex connections between tourism and country size is further complicated by the functioning of other interrelated determinants of the industry. Therefore, it is unrealistic to seek to discover and present a straightforward, linear and uniform relations between country size and tourism development.

Nevertheless, the findings in the previous sections and the correlation between country size and tourism listed below, let the authors believe that: country size, measured by all variables, is positively related to the size of the tourism industry in a country, with GNP size and outbound travel achieves the highest correlation value at 0.913 (see Table 10); while all size variables (except per capita GNP) are inversely associated with the relative importance of the industry in the country though at less significant levels (see Table 11).

Table 10 Correlation between country size and tourism

Tourism indexes	Population size	Territory size	GNP size	GNP per capita
Tourist arrivals	0.198	0.240	0.585	0.442
Tourist nights	0.205	0.435	0.778	0.381
Tourism receipts	0.169	0.238	0.790	0.527
Tourism expenditure	0.142	0.316	0.913	0.651
Tourist rooms	0.234	0.320	0.881	0.367

6.5 FUTURE TRENDS IN THE GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT

Changes in Physical Features

While the physical environment remains fairly static in the short to medium term, the extent to which it acts as a constraint on the location and distribution of economic activities varies over time, according to such considerations as

technological developments, urbanisation, changes in social value and fashion.

Table 11 Correlation between country size and the relative significance of tourism

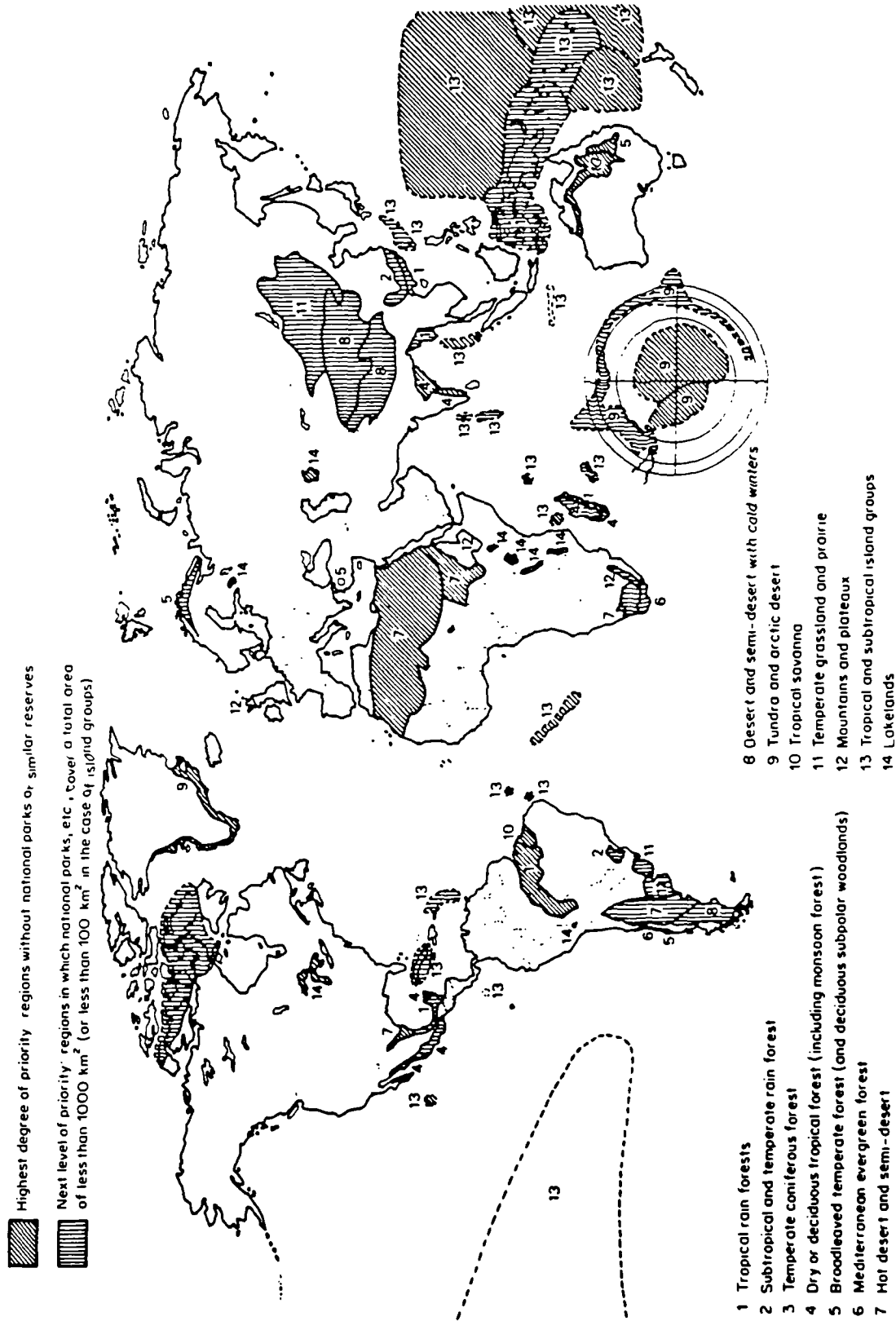
Tourism indexes	Population size	Territory size	GNP size	GNP per capita
Tourist arrivals per capita	-0.076	-0.089	-0.038	0.380
Tourist nights per capita	-0.077	-0.086	-0.016	0.247
Tourism receipts per capita	-0.095	-0.108	-0.031	0.305
Tourism expenditure per capita	-0.080	-0.079	-0.126	0.851
Tourist rooms per capita	-0.120	-0.114	-0.059	0.404
Tourist arrivals per km ²	-0.064	-0.082	-0.029	0.138
Tourist nights per km ²	-0.060	-0.093	-0.042	0.046
Tourism receipts per km ²	-0.059	-0.076	-0.029	0.137
Tourist rooms per km ²	-0.076	-0.101	-0.023	0.144
Tourism receipts / GNP	-0.114	-0.166	-0.102	-0.047
Tourism expenditure / GNP	-0.189	-0.198	-0.112	0.080

The future of the physical environment depends on human development effort as well as the change and evolution of nature itself. The creation of a successful built environment, and the maintenance of the natural environment, are of particular importance in any civilised society. There are also environmental problems that may give rise to increasing difficulties in the coming decades: overcrowding and congestion in both towns and country areas, dilapidation of buildings and overloading infrastructure, and threats to health and safety from pollution of air, water and land; and over everything hangs the long-term threat posed by global warming.

It is therefore important in industrial, residential and tourism development to consider a number of different areas including: the balance between different regions and between urban and rural areas; the transport facilities for movement between and within them; the attractions of the country of the countryside and the amenities of the towns and cities; the supply of homes to live in and of water and energy; the management of waste and the prevention of pollution and of threats to health and safety.

The extinction and depletion of species will appreciate the value of some wild animals and plants. "Many biologists consider the accelerating global epidemic of extinction we are bringing about even more serious than depletion of stratospheric ozone and global warming because it is happening more rapidly and is irreversible" (GT Miller 1992:411). The 1975 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES), developed by the World Conservation Union (IUCN) and administered by the UNEP and now signed by 103 countries, lists 675 species that cannot be commercially traded as live specimens or wildlife products because they are endangered or threatened. Figure 55 shows the regions of the world most urgently needing the creation of protected areas. Worldwide, botanical gardens and zoos hold about 90,000 plant species and 540,000 individual animals which could help preserve some of the genetic diversity and threatened or endangered species found in the wild. All the

Figure 55 Regions of the world most urgently needing the creation of protected areas



Source: IUCN, cited in F. Ramade (1984:204).

above measures and a more environmental sensitive population may help to slow or stop the extinction process of wildlife.

Changes in Global Climate

Climate change is inevitable and projected by many institutions and experts (Bryson 1974; Commonwealth Secretariat 1989; DOE 1989b). Pollution, deforestation, desertification, greenhouse effect (Arrhenius & Waltz 1990; K Smith 1990), global warming (Dornbusch & Poterba 1991; Walter & Ayres 1990) , ozone layer depletion (Miller & Cottrell 1990), and the increase of sea level (Dwivedi & Bhatt 1990; Klarin 1990) will affect beach and winter resorts and the increasing risk of skin disease and cancer could affect the attractiveness of sun and sea tourism. It has also been suggested that changes in global climate are beyond the control of the industry and will have far-reaching consequences for many current tourist destinations and for places contemplating involvement in tourism.

A build-up of gases in the atmosphere is intensifying the natural “greenhouse effect” and causing a long-term rise in temperatures which, if continued unchecked, will have seriously damaging effects (DOE 1989b; Everest 1988; Hansen 1988). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report (UNEP & WMO 1990), if we continue on a “business-as-usual” basis, there will be a mean global temperature increase of 0.3°C a decade (with an uncertainty

range of 0.2°C to 0.5°C), giving total increases above present levels of 0.6°C (0.4°-1.0°C) by 2010, 1.5°C (1.0°-2.5°C) by 2040 and 3.0°C (2.0°-5.0°C) by 2090.

The most obvious result of such warming would be a rise in sea level due to the thermal expansion of the oceans and melting of some land ice. Current models indicate that an increase in the average atmospheric temperature of 3°C would raise the average global sea level by 0.2 to 1.5 metres over the next 50 to 100 years. A significant rise in sea level would result in increased beach erosion, shoreline retreat, increased inundation and periodic flooding of coastal wetlands and other lowlands, and salt water intrusion into fresh water aquifers (Titus 1987). Approximately half of the world's population lives in coastal areas that would be threatened or flooded by rising seas. Even a modest rise in average sea level would flood coastal wetlands and low-lying cities and croplands, move barrier islands further inland, and contaminate coastal aquifers with salt. A one-third metre rise would push shorelines back 30 metres compared to 136 meters for a 1.5-metre rise in the average sea level. Only a few of the most intensively developed resort areas along the US coast have beaches wider than 30 metres at high tide. With a 1.5-metre rise many small low-lying islands like the Marshall Islands in the Pacific, the Maldives, and some Caribbean nations would cease to exist, creating a multitude of environmental refugees (Miller 1991:219).

Other significant impacts associated with global warming include altered precipitation patterns due to the EL Nino Southern Oscillation which leads to decreases in rainfall in some areas and increases in others and changes in the frequency and severity of tropical storms, longshore winds and cloudiness. In the course of the next 50 years warmer temperatures may bring a more Mediterranean climate to parts of Northern Europe and extend the range of cultivation in Canada and the Soviet Union, but they are also likely to make the Mediterranean countries much more arid, and to give rise to severe difficulties in already arid regions such as the Middle East. This will redraw the tourism map, especially in terms of beach holidays.

The use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) has led to a depletion of the protective ozone layer in the upper atmosphere, bringing increased UV solar radiation and incidence of skin cancers and possible risks to animals and plants (DOE 1989a; AH Lee 1989; Miller & Cottrell 1990). One estimate is that each 1 percent loss of ozone leads to a 2 percent increase in the ultraviolet radiation striking the earth and a 5 to 7 percent increase in skin cancer, including a 1 percent increase in deadly malignation melanoma (Miller 1991:224; Winpenny 1991:127). A report from New York shows that skin cancer rate has increased from 1/1500 in 1935, to 1/120 today and is expected to be 1/90 by the year 2000 (Miller & Cottrell 1990:265). This will have a significant effect on the behaviour of summer vacationers and seaside resorts which rely on sun and beach.

Changes in the Relative Location of Countries

Location is also a changing factor and the locational advantages or disadvantages of a country will be continuously changing. Although the location of a country on the earth is fixed, ever changing political and economic conditions alter the implications of location. For example, until at the beginning of this century, the US was on the periphery of the world, but today, it is in the centre. The Middle East became an area of world concern because of one resource—petroleum (Harries & Norris 1986). As far as tourism is concerned, changes in a country's locational advantages may be caused by changes in the following four areas: tourists behaviour, transportation conditions, destination development, and the distribution of generating countries. The decreasing importance of location in tourism development is due to the following changes:

(i) Changes in attraction preferences and travel behaviour. Changes in travel preferences and patterns have significant effects on the selection of holidays and tourist destinations. The booming of sun and sea holidays since the late 1950s and the consequent development of the tourist sun belt close to the major tourist generating centres, is a direct result of the mass "hunt for the sun". An increasingly educated, experienced and segmented travel market will, however, in the future more actively seek for higher quality of tourist product and expect a broader array of specialised travel services including more special trips to unspoiled environment in remote and less

developed areas. It has been already identified that one of the major changes recently in the evolution of world tourism is the shift from “sun and beach” holidays to more active and special interest ones such as cultural, adventure, festival and events holidays (A Edwards 1987; Gunn 1988; WTO 1987).

Meanwhile, there has been substantial extensions of travelling distances in all developed countries. As a result of that tourism, originated as mainly a domestic phenomenon, has now spread over the whole globe. This is indicated not only by the growing share of journeys abroad, but also by the growth of long distance tourism. In the UK, for example, travel distance has been increasing gradually from the day trips to suburban attractions and weekend holidays to coast areas; to mass holidays in France, Spain and other Mediterranean destinations; to increasing popular travel to the Caribbean, Middle East, East Europe and North America; and to the rising tourist flows to Far East and Australia. These trends will certainly affect some destinations more than others, and it is possible that many destinations not adjacent to the major tourist originating centres will benefit more than those traditional popular nearby destinations.

(ii) Changes in tourist destinations. The changes of tourist destinations are of two kinds: the maturing of nearby popular destinations and the development of newly opened (often remote) destinations. Tourist destinations, like any other product, is subject to the influence of life cycle (Butler 1980; Cooper 1992; Haywood 1991). Many popular Mediterranean

and Caribbean destinations have reached the stage of maturity and stagnation and some would possibly decline in the near future. This is because some mass tourist resorts have already reached or even exceeded their carrying capacity, overdevelopment and the consequent growing pollution, increasing familiarity, rising prices, all lead to decreasing tourist satisfaction.

Meanwhile, when the growing tourist demand requires the expansion of tourism supply, tour operators and transnational hotel groups will usually shift to new location for development if the current destination has reached its capacity limit or an expansion there is too expensive. This shift of tourism business will probably occur to a destination as near to the old destination as the area of induced expense will allow.

There is a clear tendency in the UK in recent years, for example, that the major tour operators are looking further afield than the traditional main summer destinations such as Spain and France for more attractive business opportunities in, for example, Greece, Portugal and Turkey. This shifting or spreading process of the expansion of tourist destinations is closely associated with the process of the spatial expansion of tourist flows. This shifting process is also accelerated by the more effective development of remote destinations. Since the 1980s, virtually all countries in the world have been promoting themselves as tourist destinations. As the newly opened destinations gradually move up the experience curve and achieve more effective and efficient promotion and

development, they are likely to gain an increasingly larger share of the international tourist market. The growth in tourist flows could in turn allow the new destinations to enjoy increasing economies of scale which may lead to lower prices and higher volumes.

(iii) More even distribution of generating countries. As indicated in Chapter 3, the different achievements and prospects of economic development in different countries and regions will inevitably result in constant changes in the world economic map. The economic miracle of Japan and the emergence of the newly industrialised countries in East Asia, for example, has boosted international tourism in the region. It could be said that even without its own purposeful development effort, a country's touristic locational conditions can be improved by the development of the neighbouring and/or nearby countries, that is by the mere increases in the value of the neighbouring countries' P (population) and H (foreign holiday participation rate) of the "locational condition model" (see page 276).

(iv) Progress in transport technology. Technological advances in transportation and communications have been reducing the friction of distance and it will continue to do so. The declined economic, temporal, social and mental distance between countries, regions and areas certainly affect the touristic locational conditions of a destination. As will be discussed in the next chapter, further decreases in the relative cost of transportation can be expected as we see larger and faster

aircraft come into existence. Since the key locational disadvantage of remote destinations is the high transport cost from and to the origin countries, any reduction in long distance travel cost will have a beneficial impacts for those destinations situated far from Western Europe and North America.

Changes in the Size of States

Country size is a relatively constant and stable factor in that the territory of a country does not normally change and its population and economic size only expand gradually. Of course, in some special cases, the land area of a country may change dramatically through integration or disintegration such as the dissolution of the former USSR and Yugoslavia and the unification of the East and West Germany and the possible creation of a super state of Western Europe which will influence tourism more than in its statistical sense. Indeed, the impacts on tourism of a frontier-free single market in Europe has already excited much discussion (see, e.g., CTRI 1989; Gauldie 1988; Lavery 1991; Lickorish 1989).

6.6 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The natural environment has always been an attraction, but as it is relatively stable in the short- and medium-term, the effects of its changes on tourism are often generated through people's perception and appreciation of the landscape and

landforms. For example, in the Middle Ages Western society had very strongly held prejudices against mountain scenery, vacationing in the Alps goes back less than two centuries and emerged as an economically significant sector barely a hundred years ago (Bernard 1978). Mountains, parks, nature reserves, and other natural settings are becoming increasing popular tourist destinations. According to one estimate, there are 1,164 national parks around the world, and an additional 3,297 nature preservation areas also attract millions of visitors (McNeely 1990:37).

The increasing level of urbanisation and technology development will constantly appreciate the value of natural attractions such as magnificent scenery, flora and fauna, and wilderness areas. The increasing awareness and regulation of ecological protection will on the other hand require the tourism industry to give high priority to the preservation (at least not to destroy) these natural resources. Because problems from nuclear waste, acid rain, the destruction of the ozone layer and global warming do not stop at national frontiers, international concern, pressures and regulations are likely to assume increasing importance in the years ahead, and what is done in country will be greatly affected by the provisions of international agreements. These changes will make environmental protection a statutory obligation of tourism developers and operators which may increase costs due to extra measures for pollution control and limit access to some ecological sensitive areas, such as national parks and nature reserves, due to the consideration of carrying capacity. The

changes will also open greater opportunities for the development of “nature tourism” or “ecotourism”.

The changes in tourist travel distance and preferences, progress in transport technology, and changes in the economic conditions of other countries will constantly change the locational advantages and disadvantages of virtually all tourist destinations. The decreasing importance of the physical location of a country in its tourism development may well lead to the restructuring of tourist flows, destinations and markets in the following decades. East Asia and the Pacific, with very varied tourism resources and increasing prosperity, has enjoyed the highest growth rate in the world over the last two decades and will continue to gain shares in global tourist arrivals, tourism receipts and expenditure. Tourism in Western Europe and North America will continue to grow but their dominant position in world tourism could be gradually undermined by the relatively higher growth rate enjoyed by other regions. Eastern Europe and Latin America are, in the long term, one of the regions which possesses the greatest potential for tourism development. The prospects of tourism growth in the other regions of the world such as Africa, South Asia and the Middle East are more difficult to predict as they are more prone to political instability and economic hardship. In short, the spatial distribution of world tourist activities in the future will tend to be more even than it is at the present.

Sustainable development of tourism depends on some quality related to climate—snow, sunny, clear skies, wildlife habitats,

forested land, water bodies. Climatic changes will have a direct impact on the environment in the form of altered patterns of rainfall, increased temperatures, changed growing seasons, changes in wildlife habitats, and innumerable complex relationships of an ecological kind. Decisions must be made regarding remedial measures that may be considered desirable or standards of human usage necessary to protect the environment. Such measures and standards will require careful scientific assessment of consequences, both in the short and long run.

The implications of these predicted changes vary according to the type of tourism considered. The length of the camping season would be significantly extended, while ski-resorts would experience a serious reduction in reliable snowcover. It has been suggested that ski-resort operators should take account of climate change and that a programme leading to diversification could be a wise investment for the future.

Climatic changes however tend to be very long term influences, and it is by no means certain that contemporary fluctuations, surprising as they may be, will have permanent effects in the next two decades or so. In the absence of reliable mode-based regional predictions of climate change, any consideration of the effects of greenhouse warming on tourism is highly speculative. Also, as with most other affected sectors, tourism will experience a complex mix of winners and losers in most areas. For example, although the ski season would be reduced, the opportunities for summer recreation would be

enhanced by a longer season. On a longer time scale, climatic change will influence the distribution of vegetation types, wildlife , and fish species on which some forms of tourism depend.

The disparities in the size of nations across the world and the increasing competitive international tourism market will make international cooperation between small countries more significant and urgent. This is especially true in regions such as the Caribbean, South Pacific, West Africa and Central America. Intra-regional cooperation among small countries (of course, could also be among large or medium states) in tourism has been mainly on joint marketing and promotional plans, with countries joining together to project a stronger regional image or undertake market research which otherwise would be inadequate or ineffective if done by individual States. An intra-regional approach can be especially important where the product promoted appeals to international circuit travellers or “multi-destination” tourists (Lue, Crompton & Fesenmaier 1993:290-291).

CHAPTER SEVEN

TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT

In its broadest sense, technology may be defined as “society’s pool of knowledge regarding the industrial arts” (Mansfield 1968: 10) or as “the ‘how?’ and ‘what?’ of production” (Perez 1985: 442); while technological change could be taken as involving an increase in the accumulated body of technical knowledge weighted by the number of firms or individuals who possess and use this knowledge (Goddard & Thwaites 1987). Technology has been subject to continuous development throughout history.

In varying degree, every industry and society may be affected by advances in science and technology. This is particularly the case in the tourism industry as “almost all inventions and innovations in the world have in some way contributed to the increased ability of people to travel” (Hudman & Hawkins 1989:3). Technology is said to have seven-fold roles in tourism — the contributor to tourism growth; the creator, protector, enhancer, focal point, and destroyer of the tourism experience; and a tool of the tourism industry (Stipanuk 1993). Therefore, no environmental study of tourism development would be complete without a consideration of the role of technology.

Since this is neither the time nor the place to consider the total body of knowledge possessed by a society, we will be concerned only with technologies directly affecting tourism. The specific aims of this chapter are: to identify the characteristics of technology and technological change; to examine the recent trends in technological development and the transfer of new technologies in the field of tourism; to assess various effects of new technologies on tourism demand, supply and management; to forecast possible technological changes in the future; and to discuss strategic implications to tourism development.

7.1 TECHNOLOGY AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LIFE

Technology is the driving force of social and economic progress. Technology development in general has increased productivity in countries across the world, which as a result has led to an overall societal economic growth. “There is clearly a linkage between overall economic growth, the growth of scientific knowledge and the rise of technology” (Stipaunk 1993). Economic growth has improved the living standards of societies and provided the time and economic means for people to travel.

Technology and the Economy

The world has been experiencing a scientific and technological revolution which affects every single aspect of social existence by generating changes in the forces of production and in the base and superstructure of society. Indeed, the “modernisation” of industrial society appears to have been in large measure synonymous with the march of technological “progress” (Bairoch & Levy-Leboyer 1981). Technological changes affect significantly both the inputs and outputs of the tourism industry.

(i) Technological progress improves productivity. Technological change is the volatile dynamic factor that permits a constant reevaluation of the production possibilities of various factor combinations, and allows for increasing productivity (Mowery & Rosenberg 1989).

A level of productivity that is sufficient to sustain leisure is the necessary cause of tourism. Historically, improvements in technology and the consequent increasing productivity have been leading to less working hours, more leisure time, higher educational level, higher pay, low commodity prices, all of which contribute to the increase of tourism demand. Spatially, as productivity is the key to tourism, the touristic process involves the generation of the touristic impulse in productive centres, i.e. the origins of tourism are to be found in conditions of higher productivity, especially in industrial society. “Higher productivity, associated with technological advances, has made possible the development of leisure classes as well as an improved material apparatus for travel” (Nash 1989:40).

(ii) Technological progress is the driving force of changes in economic structure. The widespread application of innovations, as a result of the recent technological revolution, has shown a profound impact on the structure of the world economy. Especially in the last three decades, we have witnessed a quiet revolution in the composition of economic activity in most major developed economies which has been termed as “services revolution”, “new service economy” and “de-industrialisation”. The service industry, “those activities which do not produce or modify physical objects (commodities or products) and purchases which are immaterial, transient and produced mainly by people” (Howells & Green 1986:89) has replaced the manufacturing industry as the predominant production activity of advanced economies. This change in economic structure has been increasing tourism demand at a fast rate than the growth of the whole economy has warranted (Slattery & Littlejohn 1991). It has also been enlarging the labour market for the industry.

(iii) Technology progress has changed the nature and structure of employment. One index of economic structural change is the change of employment structure. The disparity in the adoption of technology across various industries, in terms of scale, speed, intensity and efficiency, gives rise to the ever changing employment structure of an economy.

Clark (1940) and Fisher (1935) have long ago theorised that the rise of services in advanced economies was largely a

function of the rise in income and a tendency for productivity to rise more slowly in services than in the goods sectors, accentuates the tendency for service employment to rise disproportionately faster than goods employment as demand for services increases. The emphasis on productivity differentials was the basis for a well-known article by Baumol in which he suggested that, since higher productivity in the production of goods (principally manufacturing) tended to raise wages of workers employed in those sectors, labour costs in services would rise more than warranted by their productivity increases (Baumol 1967). The result would be a chronic tendency for the costs and prices of services to rise relative to goods, a result which he subsequently dubbed the “cost disease” of services.

Although there have been strong trends in the service sector toward more self-service (Gershuny 1978) and toward the “industrialisation” of services (Levitt 1976), the productivity in most service sectors including tourism is phenomenally lower than that in manufacturing industries (IMS 1988; Medlik 1987; Pine & Ball 1987; Witt & Witt 1989).

There has been much discussion over the last few years of the close association of technological change with employment. Despite the difficulties in assessing the impact of new technology on employment a few tentative observations may be made. It seems that employment loss is more likely to result from the application of process innovations than from the launch of new products (Healey & Ilbery 1990). Recent

research suggests that major periods of job creation follow periods of product innovation bunching; in contrast succeeding periods of process innovation lead first to stagnation, then to contraction of employment (Rothwell 1982).

New technology not only affects the availability of jobs, it also has a marked impact on the nature of work (Finn 1984), job motivation and job design (Bruce & Kahn 1989), working pattern (Lockwood & Guerrier 1990). For example, in the tourism industry the introduction of new technology changed the norm of work for booking and reservations in travel agency from using telex, telephone and mail in the mid-1970s to today's highly sophisticated automated reservation system (Bruce 1983; 1991).

Technology and Everyday Life

Technology and its progress affect every aspects of the everyday life in a society. Everyday life is here used to refer to clusters of recurrent, often routine experiences in work, home, leisure and ideas which we are confident would be recognised as commonplace in our society. Colin Chant's book *Science, Technology and Everyday Life 1870-1950* well documents the close relationship between technology and life quality, life styles and living standards (Chant 1989).

Technological progress and modernisation have brought the emergence of mass consumption by ordinary people of goods and services not strictly required for subsistence. One of the

most salient feature of which is the mass consumption of leisure and tourist services, indeed, tourism consumption is only a reflection of the conditions and quality of life (Bosiacki 1989; Cohen & Taylor 1976; Ethridge 1983).

Turner and Ash have written that today's mass tourists are "the barbarians of our Age of Leisure". They are the visible expression of the fourth of the great technologically inspired waves which have since 1800 changed the social geography of the world (Turner & Ash 1975:11). They refer to jet travel which has been preceded by the railroads, the steamships, and the automobile. The jet age has made remote regions of the world accessible and attractive to hordes of metropolitan workers.

(i) Technology development has created a mass consumption society. Technology advances have not only improved productivity and raised the income level of a society, but also created new products or improved the quality of products. Many products which the western societies take for granted are not available in developing countries as they could not be produced by traditional methods or primitive technologies. Many new consumer goods play a significant role in stimulating the demand for travel. For instance, in modern life, photography not only represents a major technological advance, but also forms a new and socially constituted "way of seeing" and is a major force in the manipulation of imagery (Albers & James 1988).

Change in production has come about in a number of ways, for example, as a result of technological change in connection with manufacturing equipment; as a result of changes in the structure and pattern of costs of production; as a result of changes in the capacity of labour to produce; or as a result of changes in materials used. Changes in the nature of products has come about as a result of changes in aspirations and tastes of consumers, and changes in marketing strategies.

(ii) Technology progress has substantially increased leisure time and leisure opportunities. Technological advances have been successively reducing work hours, changing work patterns and increasing leisure time for the mass population (Park 1975) with the exception of periods when people abandoned the shorter work hours movement for more work for high consumption (Hunnicuttt 1988). Technological progress also revolutionised house work by introducing more household machinery—cooking, washing, cleaning and gardening equipment—and more ready made food and clothes.

(iii) Technological advances have created a “mobile society”. High level of social, occupational and spatial mobility is another feature of a society with advanced technologies. Many Western industrialised societies are being called as “nations of wheels” (Naisbitt 1986) and increased car ownership has significant implications to people’s leisure behaviour (Abrams 1975). The relationship between private car and tourism has attracted wide interests from a variety of researchers

(Cockerell 1987; Green 1978; Holding 1989; Jakle 1985; PD Smith 1989; Wall 1973; Ward 1987).

(iv) Technology development has caused an “information explosion”. Advances in communication resulting from technological progress have been increasing media coverage and information exposure in a society. This has in turn created a modern mentality characterised by broadened horizons and increased psychological mobility. A “modern” person has broader horizons and is not confined himself to a narrow “place” thus is more prone to travel. If he lives in a modern city he may want to flee from its problems and travel is one of the common options (Cohen & Taylor 1976; Meyrowitz 1985).

7.2 TECHNOLOGY AND TOURIST AMENITIES ATTRactions

Technology and Tourist Attraction

Almost all types of tourist attractions and amenities are affected by technological developments. Technology progress affects the discovery, exploitation and full utilisation of existing attractions by introducing new and more efficient methods to open up the potential of tourism resources. Indeed, technology developments have been creating new attractions and new forms of tourism and help to fully capitalise on existing attractions.

Thanks to technological advances, increasing number of attractions have been brought into the circle of tourist activity. Technology creates resorts by increasing accessibility, especially the remote destinations, small islands, etc. Many seaside resorts grew by virtue of the Railway Age, the popularity of sea-bathing and the possibility of holiday excursions, such as to the hamlet of Bournemouth, Southport, Blackpool and Morecambe were entirely creations of the Railway Age. Technology has also created a variety of new tourist attractions: man-made wonders, theme parks, water sports, see at work, and so on.

The traditional industrial technology itself is also a significant source of tourist attractions although it demands innovative development to extend the boundary of heritage concern to include the remains of industrial civilisation (Alfrey & Putnam 1992). High-rise buildings, big dams, bridges and tunnels constructed by modern technology could also be, as a by-product of its primary goals, tourist attractions.

The roots of themed amusement parks extend to the pleasure gardens in 17th century Europe. But it was not until the 1873 Vienna World's Fair held at The Prater that mechanical rides and fun horses were introduced and until 1955 modern high technology such as robotics and artificial intelligence began to be adopted at the Disney World which revolutionised the theme-park industry and has envolved into a multi-billion dollar tourist segment (Brown & Church 1987; Graff 1986; Moore 1980). "Disney tells us that technology can give us

more reality than nature can" (Eco 1986:44). This technological ability to create new themes which appear more real than the original has now spread from tourist attractions per se, beginning with Disneyland, to shopping centres or malls. Some north American malls are now extraordinary tourist attractions in their own right and represent an exceptional degree of cultural differentiation. The West Edmonton Mall, a giant shopping complex in Alberta, Canada, attracted over 9 million tourists in 1987, making it the third most popular tourist attraction in north America after Walt Disney World and Disneyland (Urry 1990:147). Other leisure parks are also beneficiaries of technology development. They attract visitors due to the range of water facilities available such as wave machines, saunas and solariums surrounded by palm trees; and the tropical climate of 30°C that can be enjoyed all year round.

Many heritage attractions have also utilised the high technology provided at theme parks as a means of presenting the past to meet the increasing expectation regarding the standard of presentation. For example, in the UK, the Jorvik Viking Centre, York, uses time-cars, similar to those found in Disneyland, to transport visitors through a reconstructed Viking Street; and the White Cliffs Experience, Dover, utilises the medium of inter-action to present its displays.

With further development in technology, Arctic and Antarctic tourism and even space tourism could become an significant

sector in the industry (Ashford 1990; Snepenger & Moore 1989; Wace 1990).

The development of mass skiing holidays is also attributed to technological advances including the invention of the ski lift in the 1930s and the introduction of the safety binding in the 1960s. It has also benefited from the invention of snow making machines and improvement in ski equipment. The use of artificial snow making machines in ski resorts with poor snow conditions can both expand the skiable area and extend the ski season. The tourist submersibles which can conduct underwater sightseeing excursions are also beneficial to many ocean-side resorts and other tourist centres (NRC 1990). Technology has also enabled people to develop counter-attractions (for example, artificial ski-runs) to potentially overused natural facilities to alleviate the pressures on the carrying capacity of some tourist resorts.

Many of the recent advances in large scale tourist resorts have stemmed from environmental improvements, such as the drainage and reclamation of marshland, and the remodelling and re-use of waste gravel and clay pits, disused canals, and railway tracks. Advances in the processes of water purification and in control of pollution have created opportunities for the tourist use of reservoirs, catchment areas and rivers. In urban surroundings the trend has been towards the development of more sophisticated indoor facilities (sports halls, leisure centres) which allow tourist and recreational use

independent of time and weather conditions and provide scope for a wider variety of sport, social and spectator interests.

Technology and Tourist Amenities

Technology plays a role in providing amenities that will make the tourists experience more satisfying and safer. These would consist of facilities such as shops and services available and the planning of infrastructure to meet tourist needs. Technology has improved tourist facilities and brought about changes to all areas of the hospitality industry (AHMA 1983; Reime & Hawkins 1980) and has been considered as a “key to survival” (Lattin 1990).

Modern air conditioning and central heating are among some of the technological developments that have reduced the influence of adverse climatic conditions and improved the comfort of hotels, so helping to boost tourism. Technology advances may also improve many other aspects of accommodation facilities, electronic locking systems, closed circuit television cameras, scanning systems all contribute to providing a greater satisfied tourist. Table 12 indicates some of the important events which indicate the technological trends in the hotel sector.

Developments in food and catering technology have increased the variety and improved the quality of food and food services (Glew 1989; Kirk 1989; Nowlis 1990; Pine 1987; Storey & Smith 1990). Progresses in food processing, storing and

delivery, and especially the development of convenience food and fast food chains which provide both speedy and low cost food services have well served the needs of the ordinary tourists and contributed to the development of mass tourism. The biggest technological change in the foodservices business is said to be off-site preparation of food, analogous to “just-in-time” in manufacturing. The product comes to the catering establishment vacuum sealed which is often more cost-effective.

Table 12 Trend-setting firsts in the hotel industry

Year	Trend-setting Event
1846	Central heating
1859	Elevator
1881	Electric lights (2 years after being patented)
1907	In-room telephone (31 years after its invention)
1927	Radio in room (21 years after the first radio)
1940	Air cooling (mostly in public spaces)
1950	Electric elevator
1958	Free television
1964	Holiday Inn reservation system with centralised computer
1965	Initial front-office systems followed by room status reports
1970	Colour TV prevalent (invented in 1954)
1973	Free in-room movies (Sheraton)
1970s	(Early) electronic cash registers
1970s	(Mid) POS systems and keyless locks
1983	In-room personal computers

Source: Cahill (1986), cited in Gee; Makens & Choy (1989:298).

Technology progress has also facilitated travel in many other aspects, such as the improvements in advanced booking, travel counselling, health care, shopping and entertainment facilities,

all of which have made travel more convenient and enjoyable (Cockerell 1987; Cullen 1988; de Coster 1990; Feldman 1989; Hruschka & Mazanec 1990). In particular, the use of “plastic and electronic money”, such as credit cards, cheque guarantee systems, automated cash dispensing, and electronic credit transfer, has made payment for travel purchasing much easier, faster, safer and more flexible (Frazer 1985).

7.3 TECHNOLOGY AND TOURIST ACCESS

Access is the vital element in tourism and the accessibility of a destination is critically important in its tourism development. Gregory (1981) defined accessibility as the relative opportunity of interaction and contact. Geometrical aspects of this relationship were explored in classical and modern location theory, whereas the structuralist and welfare schools stress the social and economic dimensions of accessibility.

Developments in communications and transportation technology that have increased the speed and capacity and lowered the cost of communications have been a major force underlying international tourism expansion. Technological advances in transport, telecommunication and information processing have made possible the present \$2.5 trillion global mass tourism industry (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990:21).

Physical Accessibility

The relation between transport and tourism is multi-faceted: the availability, frequency, choice of modes, speed, fares, safety, comfort and convenience of transport all affect the demand of travel and the accessibility of a destination.

As the necessary precondition of and the vital link in tourism, transport has traditionally underpinned the worldwide development of tourism and it will continue to do so (Halshall 1992; Hoare 1991; Robinson 1990). Indeed, the three epochs in tourism development are identified with three transportation revolutions: railway, automobile, and airplane.

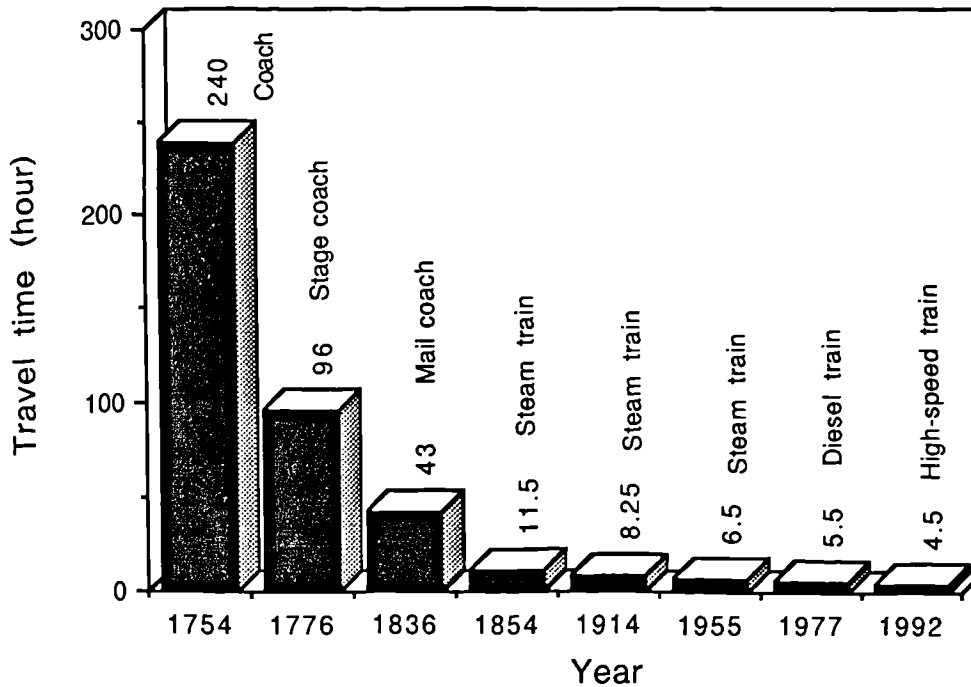
This is not the place for the current writer to indulge himself in a detailed discussion of transportation innovations, but it is worthwhile to take a brief look at such changes to provide a perspective from which to examine their impacts on tourism development. Development of the steam engine in the 18th century and its application in the early 19th century, first to water and later to land transportation in the form of the locomotive, was nothing short of revolutionary. The rapid spread of the railroads opened up the seaside resorts in northern and southern Europe. The introduction of the automobile and motorised public transportation in the early 20th century caused the second revolution and created the current symbol of Western urban-industrial society, and tourism to gradually lose its rather elitist image. In the late 1950s, the third revolution in tourism commenced with the introduction of jumbo-jets and air charter travel.

To travel, then, along the paths forged by those pioneers was an adventure. Today, in our efficient technological world, the dreams of the past regarding speed, frequency of service, comfort and global link-ups have become reality. In modern international tourism, the situation of air service provision is critical to most destinations (Heraty 1989; Jemiolo & Conway 1991; Lawton & Butler 1987; GD Murphy 1988; Wahab 1973). Transport changes the relative accessibility of locations thus alters their comparative spatial advantage, usually positively but sometimes negatively. For example, the Gulf region, traditionally a vital refuelling stop for airlines flying between Europe and the Far East, is in danger of being left behind by new long range aircraft (Sheppard 1991).

Time and Cost of Access

Technological innovations over the years reduces journey times between two points, a process known as “time-space convergence” (Janelle 1968). It measures the rates at which places move closer together or further away in travel or communication time. Whereas it took twenty-four days to cross North America coast to coast by a combination of rail and stage coach in 1850, this was cut to four days using direct rail by 1900. The same journey today can be done in less than five hours by jet aeroplane (Haggett 1983). Figure 56 shows the reductions in land travel time between Edinburgh and London since 1754.

Figure 56 Road travel time between London and Edinburgh



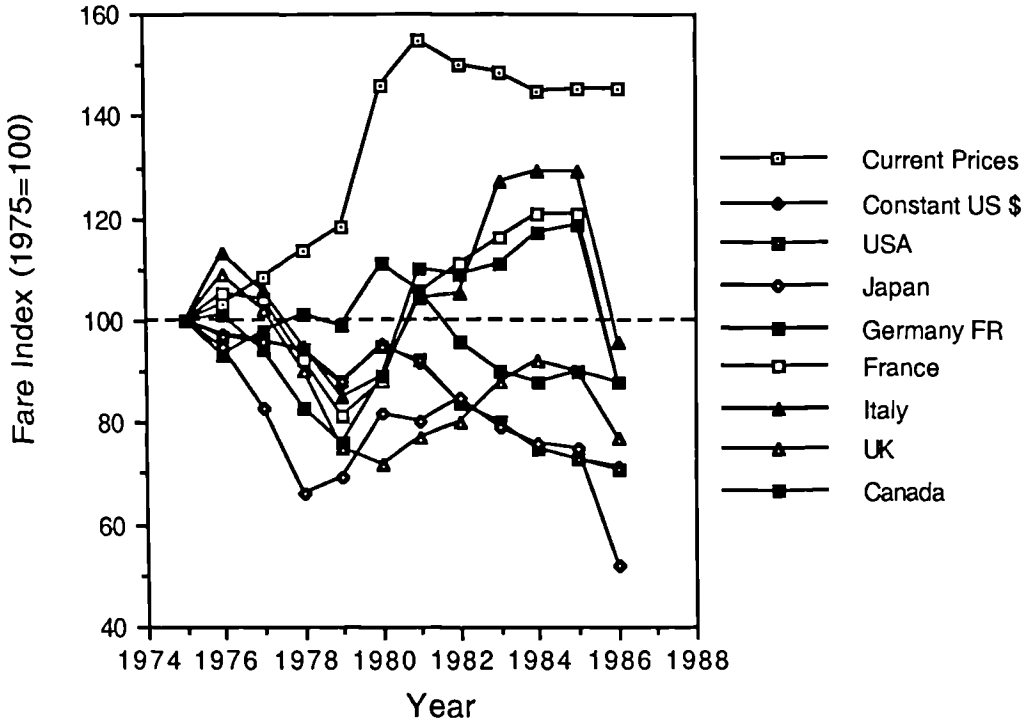
Sources: after Janelle 1968 and based on time-tables.

Accompanying the time-space convergence is a “cost-space convergence” (Alber 1971) though at a less remarkable degree. In recent years average international fares paid by air passengers world-wide have fallen by about 4 percent a year once allowance is made for inflation and exchange rate changes. This has been a significant factor boosting air travel, and appears to account for around 15 percent of its growth globally between 1982 and 1988. Declining real fares have been particularly important in stimulating long haul travel (A Edwards 1990:76).

There are similar evidence of a declining relative travel cost reported in many other studies (e.g., Bryan 1981; Cook & Frechtling 1976; Hay 1985; Peterson 1990; Roueche 1978).

Figure 57 depicts the changes in the relative level of air fares between 1975 and 1986. It is clear that although the nominal air fare increased by over 40 percent during the period, the real air fare were reduced substantially in all the G7 countries with that in Japan decreased by nearly 50 percent.

Figure 57 Index of average cost of air fares (1975-1986)



Source: data from A Edwards (1988).

Obviously in terms of time and cost distance the world is “shrinking”. The realm of space has been conquered and some remote corners of the globe are now accepted holiday centres. Distance is no longer so closely time and cost-related and the further we travel the greater the bargains. The global tourism industry has benefited much from this time-space and cost-space convergence as travel time and cost is one of major deterrents in travel decisions (VK Smith et al 1983; Truong &

Hensher 1985; Tucker 1990). This process of time-space convergence and cost-space convergence is, however, uneven. Some places, usually the more prosperous and the larger centres, benefit first and the foremost while in some periphery regions the progress is rather limited.

Modes and Patterns of Travel

Transport innovations have not only reduced the time and cost of linking places, they have also resulted in changes in the relative competitiveness of different modes of transport and lead to changes of the travel pattern of tourists.

The growth of air travel posed a serious threat both to long-distance railway services and international shipping services. The opening of the Channel Tunnel, scheduled for May 1994, will pose a threat to both the ferries and short distance air services (Page & Sinclair 1992). The biggest impact on tourism in the UK and in all other developed countries, has been the growth of private motoring. In 1950 there were some 2.34 million cars compared with the current figure of 19 million. The future growth of cruising seems confirmed as there is increasing demand on one hand and still more ships to come into service on the other.

The post-war period saw major airline competition start up in the form of charter airlines, run by private operators, which brought together the hotel and air fares, so offering lower rates than an individual traveller could obtain by himself. And so the

new form of holiday quickly caught on and in the 1960s, the package sector almost doubled each year. It has also reported that there is growing market for coach or bus holidays (Lowing 1990).

As the modes and patterns of travel increased, there is a urgent need for improving multi-modal passenger interchanges (Owen 1991) whether changing trains or from trains to plane, plane to coach, coach to ferry, metro to bus or from any these to car or taxi, the process tends to be regarded as the rough rather than the smooth of travel.

Access to Information

(i) Time and cost of communication. Communication is the basis of social development. It has been developed from the horseback courier system of the Persian empire, through a road system of the Roman empire and a safe sea mail service of the British empire to today's telecommunication based on global satellite system which pervades all fields of human life. Advances in electronics have accompanied changes in telecommunications. Better capacity and reliability resulted when microchips replaced transistors, while optical fibre development has widened the scope of telecommunications.

The reduced effect of distance on communications is even more dramatic than that on transportation. According to Abler (1975), placing a telephone call from New York to San Francisco, took fourteen minutes in 1920 but one minutes in

1960. The same call in 1920 cost \$15.00 while in 1960 cost \$2.50 and in 1970 cost \$1.35. Innovations in communications over the last 100 years—telegraph, telephone, telex, radio, cable, and satellite—have allowed almost instantaneous communication regardless of distance. Indeed with satellite communications the costs are the same, whether transmitting information 1,000 km or 10,000 km. However, like in transportation, this process of time-place convergence (Janelle 1969), and cost-space convergence (Alber 1971) is uneven.

(ii) Mass media, telecommunication and information exposure. High level of information exposure in a society can broaden horizon, expand spheres of interest, create a modern mentality and influence people's desire to travel (Coltman 1989:26). It can also increase awareness of travel opportunities, reduce the cognitive distances to tourist destination (Ankomah & Crompton 1992); improve tourist services (Mowlana & Smith 1990; Salomon 1985).

Writing in the 1960s, McLuhan proclaimed that as technology progressed, the effect on the world would be to make it a smaller place, "a global village of ever contracting size" (McLuhan 1969). McLuhan's vision was that of an information society where experiences and ideas would be shared instantaneously. According to Levitt, "A powerful force drives the world toward a converging commonalty, and that force is technology. It has proletarianised communication, transport, and travel. It has made isolated places and impoverished people eager for modernity's allurements.

Almost everyone, everywhere wants all the things they've heard about, seen, or experienced via the new technologies" (Levitt 1983:92).

In a futuristic book, Michael Connors (1992) claims that the information revolution is a great leap in the accessibility of information and his "Information Access Index" well reflects the technological level of a nation and the travel propensity of the citizens of that nation.

(iii) More effective advertising. Advance in communication technologies also makes the promotion of tourist services more effective and efficiency by adopting multi-media to convey the desired image (Bowen & Nelson 1989; Jacobson 1989; Palmer et al 1989). High technology facilitated commercial as well as brochures and video films have been widely employed as an effective part in charter operators' marketing operations which directly influences attitudes and increases impulse purchase (Albers & James 1988; Hanefors & Larsson 1993).

(iv) Telecom-travel trade-offs. Telecommunications are potentially a substitute for travel. In today's world, through various communications networks and new technology, information can be "beamed", "faxed", "telephoned", "cabled", or transmitted by tourists almost instantaneously. Electronic signals are more easily moved over distances than physical goods or persons. By making co-ordination more efficient the movement of goods may be reduced, while telecommunications may substitute for face-to-face meetings.

It is argued that the effect of this telecommunication-transportation trade-off, or T_3 , as it has been called (Jussawalla et al 1978; Nilles et al 1976), is to make industry and people locationally more footloose.

However, the limited evidence available suggests that telecommunications complement rather than substitute for the movement of people (Mandeville 1983). Indeed, by increasing the opportunities for interaction in society the use of telecommunications can generate more travel than it replaces (Goddard 1980). For example, a television programme about a remote place can be the starting point for planning a business or vacation trip. It is considered that both transport and communications will continue to grow to form a "high-info-mobility society".

One means for information transmission in the business world which has special implications to the tourism industry is "teleconferencing" or "videoconferencing". It is defined as "communication between people or groups of people at a distance from each other, an electronic device or medium being used to link them" (Fein 1983:279). Although with certain disadvantages over the conventional meeting, it allows for the maximum use of cost-effective information exchange over a geographically disparate area (Kupfer 1992; Miccariello 1982). The impacts of teleconferencing on tourism business is quite mixed. Broadly speaking, the airlines and tour operators see some loss of business while the hotel segment sees a

potential gain by offering the required facilities of teleconferencing.

(v) Cultural impacts. Information technology and mass communication has been contributing to the globalization and integration of cultures. Because only a few Western nations dominate the production and assimilation of information and entertainment media for world audience, many people view “global culture as Western culture”. People in developing countries see mass communication and “media imperialism” as threats to their cultural sovereignty” and their own sense of identity (Jenelle 1991). Having studied the New World Information Order, McPhail argues that information is the oil of the 1980s and there will be an “Electronic Colonialism” in the future just like military and mercantile colonialism of the past (McPhail 1981).

Mass media, and especially TV, also have a significant impact on human behaviour and lifestyle (Meyrowitz 1985). The enormously increased information exposure of the population has minimised the importance of the separate and distinct systems of information of different social classes. This increased circulation of the representations of other people’s lives through mass media enables people to adopt the styles of other groups, to transgress boundaries between different social groupings (Urry 1990:91).

The development in information technology and communications is a global phenomenon. There are,

nevertheless, suggestions that information revolution is leading to increased social and regional inequalities, dividing classes and regions into a dualistic society of the “information rich” and the “information poor”. For example, peripherality on both national and European scales is strongly associated with low levels of up-take of business telecommunications equipment (Gillespie & Hepworth 1988).

In conclusion, the effects of the progress in transport and communication technology have had on tourism may be broadly summarised in two particularly relevant categories: the acceleration of movement (physical, sensorial, mental); and the elimination of distance (both spatial and temporal). Nowadays, spatial mobility is also accompanied by an increase in both sensorial and mental speed, which has been heightened even further by the revolution in information. In real time communications codification and decodification take place at the same time, thus putting an end to the classical schema of transmitter and receiver. Transportation is now in three different, though connected, levels—the horizontal level, the vertical level and the psycho-spiritual level, which in turn was split into the individual and the social levels.

7.4 TECHNOLOGY AND TOURISM OPERATION AND MANAGEMENT

Progress in technology brings benefits and challenges to tourism management. There have been much discussion about

the effects of technology, especially information technology on the various aspects of tourism management (Bennet & Radburn 1991; Bowen 1990; Poon 1987; 1988; Var et al. 1986). Here, the role of technology is that of a tool of the tourism industry and it could contribute to improved efficiency, improved quality, development of new and flexible services, and the spread of new “best practice”. Effective and efficient tourism operation and management require a system of availability of transport and accommodation at short notice; of making immediate reservations, and cancellations on such facilities; of quoting complex fares and conditions of travel; of rapidly processing documents such as tickets, invoices, vouchers and itineraries, and of providing accounting and information. It has, therefore, been argued that “the tourism industry in general is ideally suited for computer technology” (Holloway 1989).

Information Technology and Tourism Management

“Information technology is the collective term giving to the most recent developments in the mode (electronic) and the mechanisms (computers and communications technologies as well as the software which drive them) used for the acquisition, processing, analysis, storage, retrieval, dissemination and application of information” (Poon 1988:533). Information technology thus includes computers, information networks, videotext, on-line databases, softwares, as well as fax machines, mobile telephones, satellite, cable television and other forms of communication. The different components of information

technology have been combined and integrated to develop computer reservations systems, management information systems, teleconferencing and other tourism specific applications.

The computer has obviously been the greatest single technological change this century to affect businesses (Sheldon 1987). Computerisation has contributed to the high level of automation in the travel industry (Booth 1983). "Research carried out for Utell in mid-1991 shows the following automation levels of travel agents: France, 60 percent; Germany, 65 percent; UK, 25 percent; USA, 96 percent; Japan 90 percent (Beaver 1992:15). Automation in the hospitality industry can be grouped into three main areas: operational, guest services and management information. Operational applications: food and beverage management; front offices systems usually incorporate reservations, registration and billing; Guest services encompasses communications, security, vending and audio-visual services and engineering (Gamble 1989; 1991).

The administration of the world tourist industry has been radically altered by the development of world telecommunications services including data, telefax services, and dedicated international data networks that provide travel agents with instant access to information about schedules, prices, flight availability, hotel and car rentals. Databases and dedicated programmes can analyse trends in traffic and bookings, or requests for new services, which can be rapidly

transmitted to company head office or the national tourist board.

Internal functions are increasingly performed by accountancy and administration systems, internal networks and extensive databases, while communication within the industry is now principally conducted through the medium of computerised reservation systems (CRSs) and viewdata, which together have already replaced the use of telephones and the post (Poon 1988).

Information technology, as Zuboff (1988) has pointed out, does more than automate, it can “informate” in that it provides vast amount of information which was previously unavailable. The available computer programmes especially expert systems in tourism permit better decision-making and more effective financial and strategic planning (Crouch 1991) and marketing strategies (Bruce 1989; Fletcher 1990; Willis 1984).

Technology and Airlines

The development of transport technology and its contribution to the airline sector have been highlighted in section 7.3, the focus of the discussion here is the role of information technology in the operation and management of airlines. Airlines have merged as the technology leaders in the tourism industry and computerised reservation systems (CRSs) initially and largely developed by airlines have emerged as the dominated technology in the tourism industry.

CRSs provide subscribers with up-to-date information on air fares and services and permit users to book, change and cancel reservations and to issue tickets. They can also store and retrieve information on consumers—their airline, ticket class, seating, dietary preferences, addresses, buying patterns, and so on.

While they were designed originally to provide travel agents with information on airline services, “the New CRSs have the capacity to broaden distribution systems to include all travel related products and hence increase the profit potential” (Sloane 1990:15). They now display information for a range of travel services and permit reservations to be made for hotel, car rentals, cruises, railways, tours, boat charters, theatre and sporting events, as well as issue travellers cheques, exchange currency, validate credit cards, write insurance policies and order flowers (Poon 1993:180).

As CRSs are so widely used in tour operating and travel retail sector (Collier 1991; Leslie 1991; Truitt et al 1991; Lindsay 1992), in airlines (Adam 1990; Boberg & Collison 1985; Feldman 1987; Wardell 1987), and in the hotel sector (Beaver 1992; Go 1992; McGuffie 1990) that join a CRS become the precondition for most suppliers of tourist products to survive in the increasingly competitive tourism market. Developing, owning and controlling large CRSs has been one of the key weapons in global competition. The tremendous benefits from and the high cost of developing effective CRSs mean that large

airlines could have considerably advantages over small ones and lead to changes in the market structure and the further concentration of the industry (Boberg & Collison 1985).

In recent years, CRSs have become profit centres in their own right as some airlines are actually making more profit from their CRSs than from their “principal” function of transporting passengers. For example, it has been asserted by Bob Crandell, head of American Airlines and Sabre that the CRSs have more potential to be profitable than the actual airline services (cited in PD Smith 1989:5). Consequently, CRSs have been seen as a major diversification strategy option for many airlines.

Technology and Tour Operators

Tour operators purchase separate elements of transport, accommodation and other service and combine them into a package which they then sell directly or indirectly to consumers. Technology, especially information systems, for tour operators is as important as the volume of traffic they have. The more holidays it offers, the more important a computer reservations system becomes. Once these are introduced by the tour operators then the companies need to keep their system up to date as it becomes their main selling method to the tour operators.

The major advantages of these computer systems are that they are very fast, adding to the efficiency of both the retailers and

also the operators. Information and availability are up to date at the moment the enquiry is made. Tour operators and the retailers can save time and reduce staff numbers as they do not have to wait for people to answer telephones. The largest UK tour operator Thomson estimated that since it made booking available to travel agents by interactive videotext and stopped all reservations via the telephone in 1986, the labour productivity increased by three times compared with that of 1978 (Poon 1993:193).

As most packaged holidays can now only be accessed through online viewdata terminals developed and provided by the major tour operators, travel agencies without having invested in the technology could not book those holidays. This gives the large tour operators, which often have its own chains in travel retailing, considerable competitive advantage over small and medium sized operators in terms of market access, economies of scale, and cost reduction.

One new development in the information systems is the destination management systems (DMSs) which provide both an information and a booking facility. It is a new breed of information technology that attempts to combine destination information and product databases with enquirer or client databases and offer a combined information retrieval and reservations capability (Archdale 1993; Vlitos-Rowe 1992). DMSs open up new opportunities for tour operators in tourist originating countries to organise and package travel products and for destination regions to market their products abroad

more efficiently. As DMSs offer computer based direct access to travel and holiday destinations which, with the imminent explosion of fibre optics, will change fundamentally the way travel is selected, reserved and paid for.

Technology and Travel Agency

The most recent and widespread technological changes in the UK travel retail industry has been the adoption of interactive videotext. With five years of its introduction to the industry late in 1979 about 90 percent of all UK travel agencies use videotext systems. Over 85 percent of all package bookings are now made through videotext. As interactive videotext offered significant advantages for improving the distribution of travel products and the opportunity of making electronic confirmation of reservations, it has become an integral part of the communications infrastructure of the travel industry. Thus it is not possible for any particular group of the industry to work effectively without interactive videotext (Bruce 1991). Although the 1980's was considered as the era of viewdata and videotext; the 1990's will be the era of electronic data interchange (EDI).

Retail travel agency is arguably one of the most technologically sophisticated segments of the retail sector. Systems already exist in the UK which allow travel agents direct access to the computers of nearly all their major principals, between 80 percent and 90 percent of their total business. This direct access, using viewdata technology, allows them to search their

principal's database, provide the customer with relevant choices, take out options, make bookings and confirm reservations (Hitchins 1991).

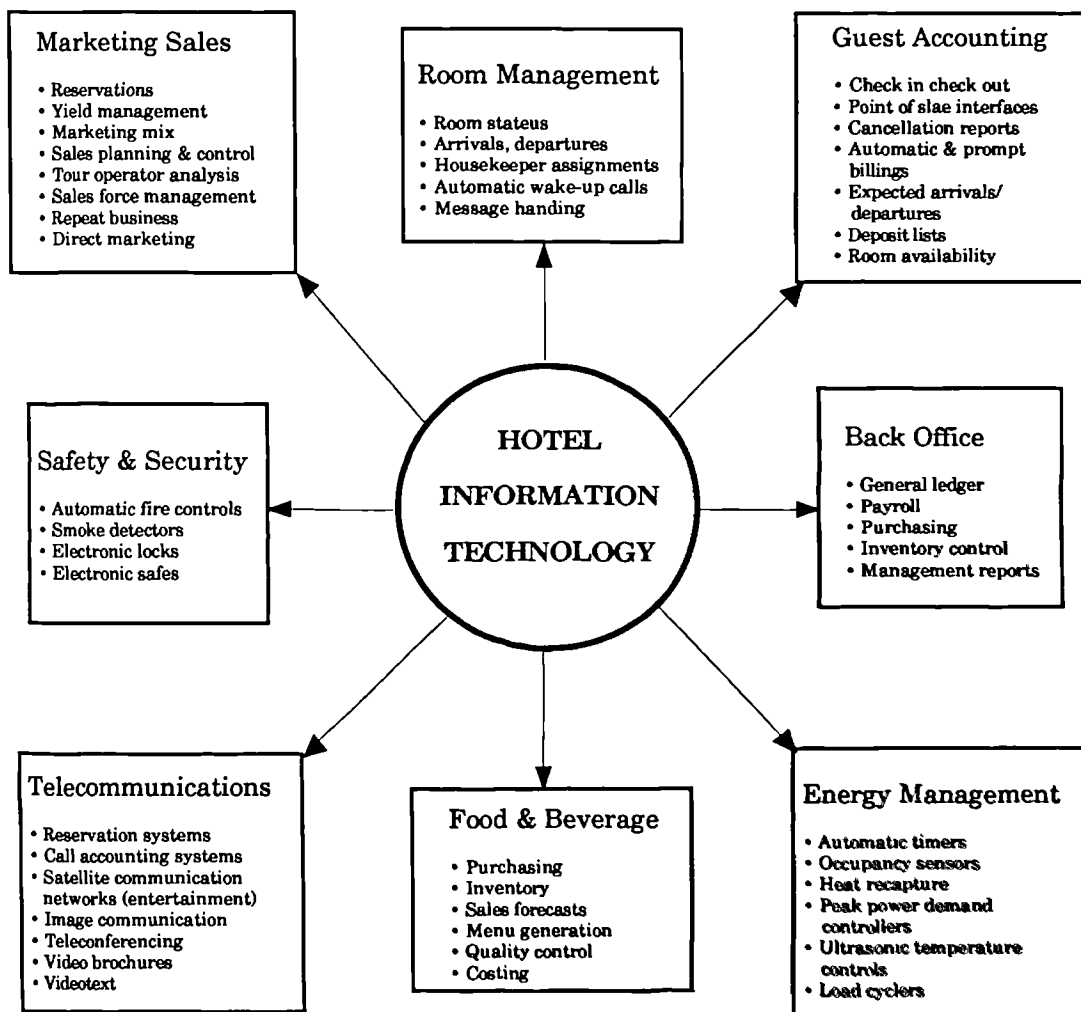
Information technology has not only been used in the front-office where systems are used to confirm the sale of travel products electronically, this involves information, reservation, ticketing, invoicing and itinerary production; but also in the back office where systems are used for accounting, demand forecasting, marketing, quality control, and so on. Worldwide, the use of information technology in the travel retail sector is most extensive in the US where 96 percent of the 40,000 travel agencies were automated with computerised reservations terminals in 1991, while the corresponding figure in Europe in 1990 is 44 percent, ranging from 25 percent in the UK (though 90 percent used videotext) to 61 percent in Germany (Poon 1993:191).

Technology and the Hospitality Sector

The influences of information technology on the management in the catering and lodging sectors are well documented (see e.g., Buergermerster & van Loenen 1990; Chanarasekar & Dev 1989; Gamble 1989; Kasavana & Cahill 1987; Sheldon 1983). The hotel sector lends itself well to the use of technology because of the large amount of information that has to be processed and communicated. Information technology has been widely used in reservations, guest accounting, room management; energy, safety and security management;

inventory control and financial management; and telecommunications. It has also widely reported that information technology helps to improve employee productivity, guest satisfaction and profitability. Some suggests that the wide adoption of new technology could reduce 15-20 percent of the jobs in the hotel industry (Sheldon 1983). Figure 58 exhibits the wide range of applications of information technology in hotels.

Figure 58 The role of information technology in hotels



Source: adapted from Poon (1993:195).

Of strategic importance to large hospitality companies, especially those transnational hotel and catering groups, is the possibility opened up by new information technology which may greatly facilitate their needs of global and expansion. "International connections via videotex helped to alleviate the high costs of international communications, and in some cases, permitted companies to access foreign markets previously too expensive to reach" (Steinfeld et al 1992:213).

Indeed, videotex appears to be adaptable to companies following either a global or a multidomestic strategy. For those pursuing a global strategy, international videotex interconnection allows firms greater flexibility in centralising certain aspects of supply, design and control while maintaining a marketing presence in each country. For those following a more multidomestic strategy, use of national videotex systems and local information providers, helps to achieve the benefits of customisation for each country context, while still centralising key information resources.

7.5 FUTURE TRENDS IN THE TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT

It is technology outside the normal sphere of tourism research that can affect most dramatically tourism demand and supply patterns. Technology breakthroughs are the wild cards in the planning process. They often seem to appear on the scene unexpectedly and create entirely new markets or significantly

segment current ones (Shafer & Moeller 1989:381). However, the future trends of technology development and its implications are rarely well studied except a few attempts (e.g., M Bruce 1987; Shafer 1987; 1989; Shafer & Moeller 1989).

The Nature of Technological Development

Technology progress seems to be intrinsic and indefinite progress as there is always something new and better to find. Following Schumpeter's famous trilogy, the process of technological development can be decomposed in three major stages: invention, innovation and diffusion. Christopher Freeman (1974) defined an invention as "an idea, a sketch or a model for a new improved device, product, process or system, which may be patented, but which not necessarily leads to technical innovation".

As to the nature of innovation, Freeman (1986) suggested a threefold classification: (a) Incremental innovations. These are relatively smooth continuous processes leading to a steady improvement in the range of existing products and services and the ways in which they are produced. (b) Radical innovations. These refer to discontinuous events which may lead firms in a particular sector to make serious adjustments. (c) Technological revolutions. These are changes leading to the emergence of a whole range of new product groups and having pervasive effects on many other branches of the economy by transforming their methods of production and their cost structures.

Much technological development is internal to a firm, industry or country in that new devices and ideas originated from within and become part of its operation, but “in very many instances technical change accrues to firms and countries essentially as an exogenous and often also an external constraint which requires them to adjust rapidly by adapting their production processes and products to the technological standards and levels of productivity set by leader firms and countries” (OECD 1985:39).

The process by which the innovation spreads across the industry, the economy and the globe are called technology diffusion. Generally, the diffusion of new technology will not be even and immediate but in “epidemic” fashion which is underlain by the course of information dissemination and is determined by a whole range of factors such as the utility, cost, attitudes, supporting facilities, government regulation, and the nature of society (Healey & Ilbery 1990; Schnaars 1989). Diffusion occurs at three levels: inter-firm, inter-industry and inter-country.

The diffusion of new technology between firms in one industry is mainly a function of firm size and firm strategy. The key equation here is the capital cost of the new technology and its labour saving potential. As the relative price of labour (wage rate versus rental cost) rises, the threshold required firm size moves downwards, allowing more firms to switch to the new technology. This is especially the case in the tourism industry

where the airlines, large tour operators and hotel chains are the first to adopt new technologies while the small hospitality firms being the latest.

The key factors influencing the inter-industry diffusion of new technology is the adaptability and cost of the new technology. The tourism industry usually is users of new technologies developed in other industries, be it computers, telecommunication facilities, transportation equipment, or in new materials for hotel and resorts, entertainment, food and catering equipment.

The diffusion of new technology across countries is influenced by wage level, investment financing possibilities, managerial attitudes, level of technical expertise, market conditions, government control, etc. The general trends in inter-country technology transfer in the tourism industry is a flow of hard and soft technologies from the developed to the developing countries. Among the various forms of international technology transfer, probably the most important is cross-border transfers within multinationals between companies in the group located in different countries. Another is transfers between separate companies on a licence basis. A third is through joint development projects involving companies in different countries. And a fourth is the more informal transfer which takes place through individuals going to other countries for technical education or training (Marton 1986).

Future Trends in Technology Development

As Bell (1973) has pointed out, post-industrial societies are characterised by technology, information, the speed of change, and a projection toward the future. Advances in science and technology are environmental forces that firms, industries and governments must anticipate, influence, but ultimately not control with great precision. Despite a long history of usage, technological forecasting has remained a judgmental art with unsatisfactory accuracy. This section attempts to predict the major changes in the next two decades in transport, communication and other technologies and discuss the implications to tourism development.

(i) Future transport technology. The two major trends in transportation innovations have been, first, the development of improved means of transportation and, second, technical developments within the transportation media themselves. The effects of such developments have been further enhanced in recent years by improvements in co-ordination and linkage between the different transportation media. The areas of which possible technology breakthroughs are of interest to the tourism industry may include the following:

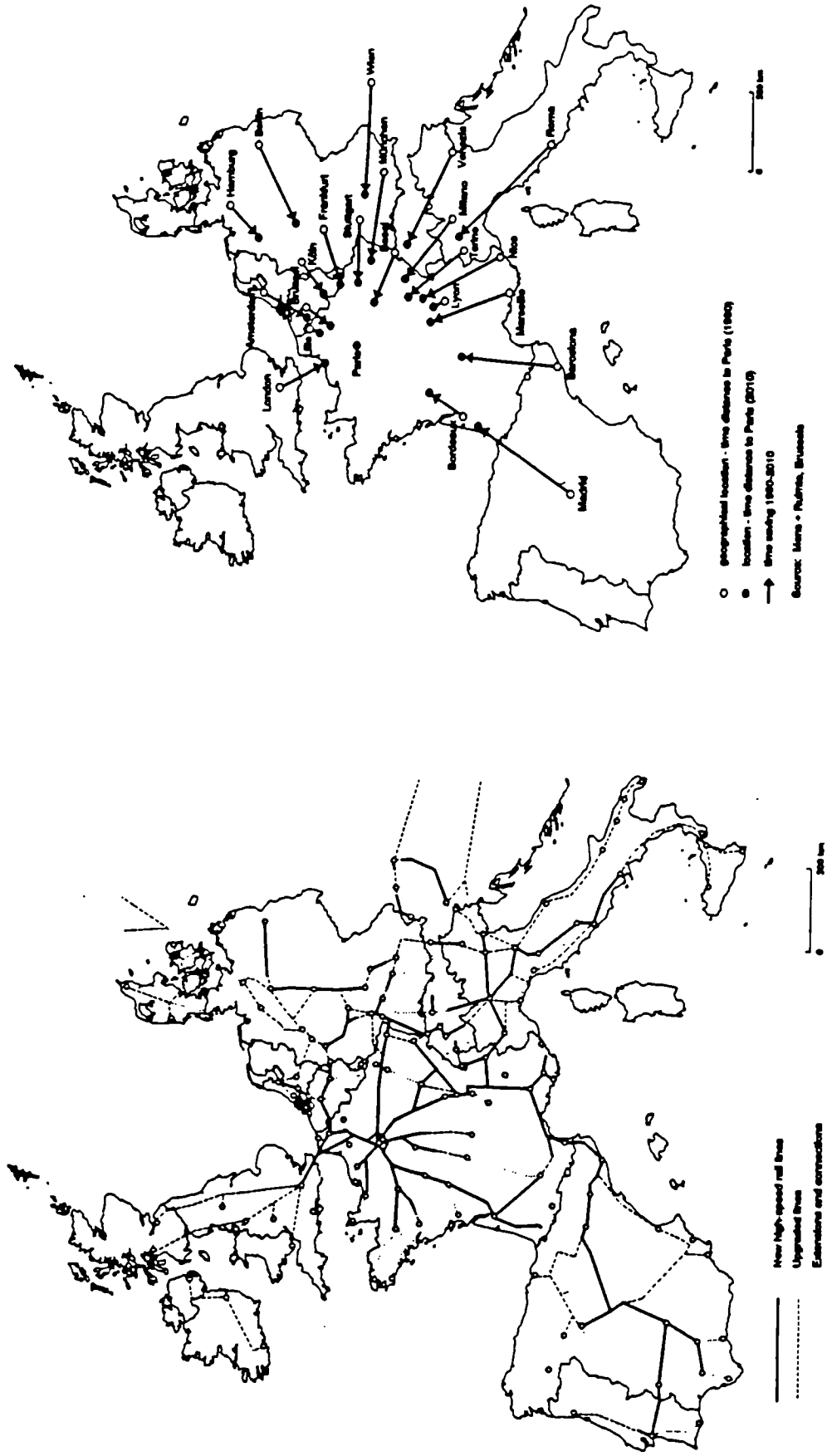
Air transport. The manufacturers are producing larger, quieter and more fuel efficient aircraft. Some aircraft commentators are forecasting super hypersonic jumbos within the next 20 years, carrying up to 600 passengers and travelling at 4,000 miles an hour (Loomis 1987; RC Mill 1990). If manufacturers can come up with a hypersonic plane that can

be operated economically it will undoubtedly stimulate international long-haul travel.

Rail and road transport. Magnetic trains or “tracked hovercraft” — trains that running at speeds of 400 km per hour or more between cities on cushions of electromagnetism — will make short trips faster than airlines can manage today and the heavy express passenger traffic on the orthodox railway would be completely diverted (Shafer & Moeller 1989). By 1988, 14 different countries in Europe were already planning a trans-European high-speed rail systems interconnecting 26 cities, containing 6,000 kilometres of railway lines and affecting 60 million people. This network will lead to major reductions in train journey times (Masser 1992). Figure 59 shows the projected high-speed rail network in Europe and the time savings after its completion. Possible progress in road transport may include new fuels, new materials and many of the sights, sounds and comforts for vehicles and the creation of high speed highway systems.

Space technology. A passenger module will probably be developed for the space shuttle that will carry passengers to an orbiting space hotel or act as a hotel module itself (Alcestic 1983; O. Davies 1985; Eskow 1986). The first passenger flights to space could take place 10 years from the start of serious development, given adequate funding and starting now. Thereafter space tourism would expand rapidly, and eventually becoming a major sector of the tourism industry (Ashford 1990:99-100).

Figure 59 The projected high-speed rail network and the possible time savings in Europe



Source: Masser et al (1992)

(ii) Future information technology. The inevitable arrival of ever cheaper, ever more powerful computers and easier, more useful software will continue to break down technology's once forbidding barriers. In terms of hardware, the trend reflect a demand for faster and more powerful processors capable of high-volume, rapid calculations necessary to support high-resolution graphics displays. Information systems are likely to continue their progression to an end-user focus within a user-friendly environment. There are three important trends in software developments: high-quality graphics; increased connectivity and "interface" with users; special applications such as expert systems (Gamble 1989; Pilcher et al 1987).

Virtual reality, the technology that allows users to enter, manipulate, and travel through computer-generated, interactive, three-dimensional virtual worlds, will enable tourists "travel in hyper-reality" (Eco 1986). It might seem like science fiction, but it represents the vonvergence of several nonfiction science disciplines, including human-computer interface design, simulation and data visualization, robotics, computer graphics, stereoscopy, and computer-aided design. The further improvement and popularization of virtual reality in the future may both substitute and stimulate some types of travel demand.

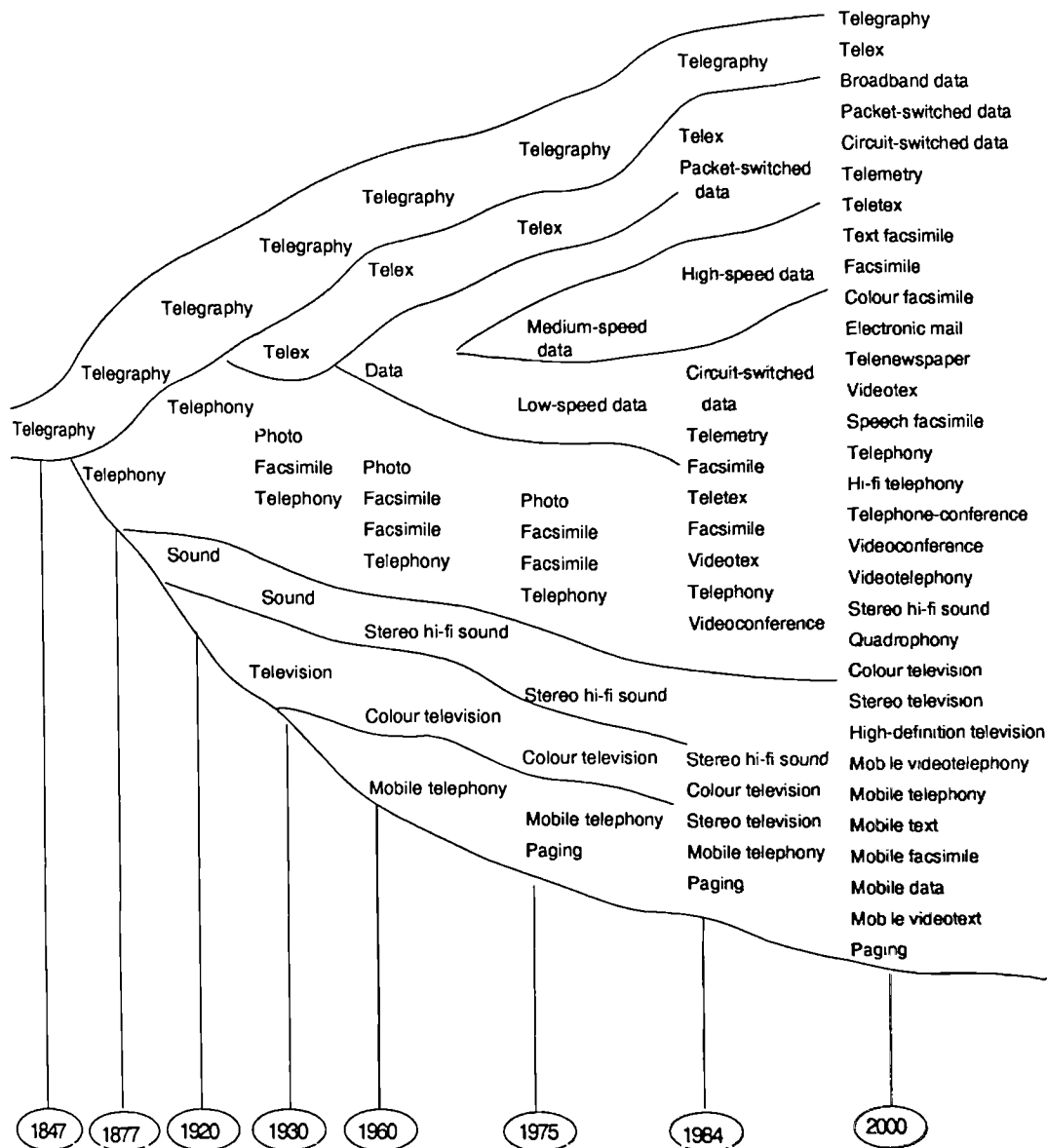
Breakthroughs in computer and satellite technology enable telecommunications over global distances without cables, and fibre optics in conjunction with digital transmission and high-speed electronic switching equipment which opens the way for

new commercially viable broadband communications networks. The introduction of broadband Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) opens up the possibility of a variety of new information services beyond the ones in use today, such as videotelephony, two-way television, high-speed data communication, high-speed facsimile, colour facsimile, moving picture documents, teleshopping and high-resolution document and film retrieval. Figure 60 provides a historic perspective of the development of telecommunication technologies since 1847 and predicts its potential progress in the future.

A trend that is likely to become more prevalent in the future is the interfacing of different information systems in the hotel, airline and tour operating sector (especially reservation systems). Gilbert Archdale (1993) identifies four closely interwoven trends in the multinational CRS world: commercial and regulatory pressures; globalisation; expansion of "travel-related" sales; and development of new applications at the point of sale.

Many researchers believe that artificial intelligence is the key to exploiting the power and performance of modern microcomputers in management terms through the creation of expert systems. An expert system seeks to capture the knowledge that experts use to solve problems and, through organising that knowledge symbolically on a computer, makes it available as a resource for solving problems. Such systems will be noted for their advanced data distribution capabilities,

Figure 60 An example of a telecommunications service taxonomy



Source: Consortium British Teleconsult, cited in Bruce (1987:117).

user interfaces, and adaptability (Kaynak & Venkataraman 1992). Expert systems are expected to show a nearly doubled market base by 1995 (Wang et al. 1991).

Robots will be built in the form of buildings that provide most of the services of modern hotels and that are run by an administrative computer. Robots will eventually figure greatly in planning many tourism related facilities and services, such as restaurants, landscaping, park design, and entertainment. Robots will be used to perform hazardous tasks such as rescue operations in remote environments.

(iii) Future developments in other technologies. Biotechnology is a cluster of technologies based on developments in microbiology, genetics, biochemistry and fermentation technology. A number of important developments are likely in the course of the next two decades. Medical developments include new protein therapies, new vaccines and diagnostic test kits (for example for AIDS) and new methods of drug delivery; and the possibility of widespread use of gene therapy for treating genetically-related diseases such as cancers. Medical advances will enable people to live longer, healthier lives. Consequently, the tourist population of more mature, physically active, healthier individuals who will seek a greater level of adventure and physical challenge than ever before (Northcott 1991; Shafer & Moeller 1989).

The wide use of biotechnology in agriculture will increase yields and improve natural environment. Microbial methods can be used for oil and mineral extraction, breaking down wastes and cleaning oil spills. Development in processing technologies for manufacturing industry which are as clean and economical with energy and resources as possible will

contribute greatly to pollution control. The resultant increase in environmental quality will stimulate demand and supply for leisure activities in natural environments.

There are also many current and potential applications in the food and drink processing industry. Continuing work on the development of new materials promises to lead to applications of superconductors, ceramics, plastics and alloys with important advantages over traditional materials (Northcott 1991).

Other areas of technological change are likely to have a direct impact on tourism includes new man-made attractions, hotel construction and furnishing, outdoor recreation equipment, catering equipment (Light et al 1987; Shafter & Moeller 1989; Storey & Smith 1990).

7.6 STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

A whole system of information technologies is being rapidly diffused throughout the economy. As tourism is very information-intensive, indeed, information has even been called as “the vital cement” of the industry (Poon 1993:154). Therefore, no player, both at the macro- and micro-level, in tourism could escape its impacts.

Actually, the impact of the information technology revolution has already had a profound effect on the travel services business, but even greater chances seem likely over the next 20 years. For example, up to now, computerised booking and marketing systems have largely been confined to large firms — airline, tour operator and hotel groups. As yet, only 14.6 percent of the reservation made for hotel rooms in the world in 1991 are made via a CRSs (Horwath 1992:3). Only 25 percent of the 7,775 travel agencies in the UK were automated with Travicom and Galileo systems in 1990 (Poon 1993:159). This is to some degree a reflection of the nature of technology diffusion in the tourism industry where information technology has its greatest impact on the information-intensive area of tourism (such as in airlines and tour operators, and in distribution, etc.) and lesser impact on the service and human-intensive elements.

During the next decade, however, increasingly sophisticated and interactive systems for electronic data interchange (EDI) will be much more widely available, not only to large firms, but to independent travel agencies, hotels and other providers of travel service. Even the hospitality sector, which has traditionally been craft-oriented, will be transformed into a more technology-oriented industry (Olsen et al 1991:214).

The potential of information technology developments in reducing costs, increase efficiency and enhance competitive advantage has been discussed extensively (see e.g., Blois 1987; Earl 1989; Fletcher 1990; McFarlan 1984; Ward 1986). It is

generally held that information technology offers the following advantages: (a) reduced costs of information handling; (b) increased speed of information transfer and retrieval; (c) increased customer involvement in and control of transactions; (d) greater flexibility of product specification and greater reliability of information transferred; and (e) increased product depth and width (Bennett & Radburn 1991).

It is believed that “the outcome of technological change will be a continuation of efforts to cheapen the communications costs for the distribution of travel products and to improve the purchase process” (Bruce 1987:119). The more information intensive the activity, the greater will be the impact of technology. Adoption of IT will be vital in the organisation, management and marketing of tourist operations. One report (WTO 1988) claims that the key to success lies in the quick identification of consumer needs and in reaching potential clients with comprehensive, personalised and up to date information.

It has been revealed that the central reservation systems are being used much less than their full capacity to market tourist destinations as they were designed more for business travel than leisure travel, and tend to favour larger travel suppliers who can afford the substantial fee to be listed on the CRSs or have their own reservation system that can be interface with the CRSs. The national tourism offices and suppliers in destinations could promote their products much more effectively through Destination Information Systems (DISs)

which can be interfaced with a CRS and turned into a Destination Management System (DMS) (Sheldon 1993).

Table 13 Features of travel products listed on CRS and DIS

Features of Products	Central Reservation System	Destination Information System
Main user	Chain companies	Independent companies
Data coverage	Large companies	Small and medium companies
Composition of products	Homogeneous products	Heterogeneous products
Type of products	Business travel products	Leisure travel products
Price level	High price products	Low price products
Market orientation	International market	Domestic market
Time of purchase	Products that booked in advance	Products that are booked at time of use
Payment arrangement	Products with cross-border payment procedures	Products that do not necessarily have to cross border payment procedures
Degree of standardisation	Standard travel	Customised travel
Mode of travel	Travel with an air component	Independent travel by private automobile

Source: adapted from (Sheldon 1993).

Table 13 summarises the characteristics of travel products that tend to be listed on CRS and those for which a DIS may be better suited. Several destinations, such as Canada, Denmark, Ireland and New Zealand, have already developed comprehensive electronic destination databases that are

available to a wide range of users, ranging from information only to fully incorporated with reservations (Archdale 1993; Vlitos-Rowe 1992). This will be even more important in the future as more and more independent travellers are able to research their trips through personal computer access to travel databases.

The growth in CRSs, DMSs and in access to both via personal computers in homes and offices, an increasingly computer familiar, confident and more sophisticated independent traveller market suggests that direct purchase is likely to become more widely prevalent which will threaten the very existence of travel agents. This possibility of bypassing the travel agent sector is now encompassed in a recently coined phrase "disintermediation". However, the travel agent sector will not be doomed to extinction. Because how far and how soon the role of travel agent will diminish in the future is depend on—how flexible and innovative the travel agents can be and the costs of CRSs and DMSs to the user and to service providers. Thus it can be stated that opportunities do indeed abound for travel agents to change its traditional image and become the travel information manager for tomorrow.

A recent study (McGuffie 1994) suggests that future success for hotels wishing to market themselves internationally culminates in the judicious marriage of an in-house property management system (PMS), incorporating yield management to maximise income from the sale of bedrooms, with a flexible CRS, which is capable of "seamless" communication with both

third-party reservation technology and the global distribution systems (GDSs).

The effectiveness and efficiency of the information systems in tourism could be improved substantially by integrating the different functions and link their computers together in an information network which allows individuals and firms at different computer stations to share information to achieve greater coordination (Bean 1991). The full realisation of the potentials of the information system, however, depends on the introduction of expert systems in tourism. Expert systems are computers that use “artificial intelligence” to approximate the decision-making process used by the human brain (Bowen & Clinton 1988). An expert system could assist in the transformation of information from the data base into a usable form; improve the decision process; ensure greater coordination between decisions; and assume responsibility for transmitting information among the unit, franchisee, and franchiser (Durocher & Niman 1990).

Future transportation will be faster, bigger, more comfortable and more fuel-efficient (Magnay 1987). Efficiency may be gained from both more fuel efficient engines and weight savings composite materials. Technological progress in this respect will alleviate the cost pressures on airlines arise from the needs for tighter security, improvements to air traffic control facilities and the proliferation of taxes on air transport (see e.g., Abeyratne 1993; Gillen et al. 1990; Villiers 1990) all of

which will translate themselves in due course, either to higher costs for airlines, or dilution of existing revenue.

Technology development will continue having an impact on the availability of jobs, on the nature of work (Finn 1984), on the requirements of staff skills, training and education (AIEST 1990; Ankomah 1991), on employee's job motivation and satisfaction (Bruce & Kahn 1989) and working patterns, especially the possible popular "home working" (Holcomb 1991; Gold 1991; Lockwood & Guerrier 1989; Miles 1988). The key to the full realisation of new technologies in the tourism industry is sufficient and adequate staff training and development as failure in this respect leads to the partial, inefficient and over expensive use of new technology (Travel Business Group 1987).

The tourism industry and enterprises are under constant pressure to invest in the latest developments in technology and to upgrade their products and systems to gain competitive advantage. The role of technology in tourism development should be fully recognised and better and more detailed research is needed to identify and measure the true benefits and costs of using various types and levels of technology; to examine the decision process and factors involved in technology introduction and application; to achieve an improved understanding of technology changes from outside the industry having an impact on tourism.

In conclusion, technology progress in the future will further increase productivity and raise living standards, improve the conditions of transportation and communication, create new attractions and amenities, all of which will continuously provide new opportunities for tourism development. The use of new technologies, however, could also be fraught with problems. Capital cost of investment and labour cost of education and training are among the key constraints that prevent the potential of technology being fully realised in the tourism development. This is especially the case of small tourist enterprises and the tourist industry in developing countries. Therefore, an appropriate technology policy should be formulated which embodies the choices the tourism sector makes about acquiring, developing and deploying technology to help reach the goals of its development strategy.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SYSTEM AND ENVIRONMENT: THE INTERRELATION

This chapter aims to provide a holistic and dynamic view about the interrelationship and interaction between the tourism system and its environment. The first section re-examines the environmental factors with a comparative perspective as well as presenting a checklist of the main variables. In Section Two, an attempt is made to discuss the typologies of tourism development environment. It is followed by an analysis of the dynamics of tourism development and the relations between tourism and its environment. The final section highlights some of the key issues in the scanning, monitoring and management of the tourism environment.

8.1 A RE-EXAMINATION OF THE TOURISM ENVIRONMENT

Tourism development is conducted in an ever-changing environment, a blend of economic, political, cultural, technological and geographical realities and events. The central task of development is to keep a dynamic fit between the development opportunities and industrial capabilities both of which are determined by its external and internal

environment respectively. By adopting the systems approach, the researcher examines the development of tourism as a dynamic process of interaction between the internal and external environments of the industry. The environment of tourism industry has been partitioned into three distinct but interlocking levels: the internal environment, the operating environment, and the macro environment. The macro-environmental factors, the emphasis of this study, have here been categorised into economic, socio-cultural and demographic, political and legislative, geographical, and technological five groups. These five different dimensions of the macro-environment of tourism development have been discussed separately so far. A re-examination of the macro-environment and its interaction with the tourism system is presented in this section.

A Checklist of the Main Environment Variables

We know that tourism development is subject to the influences of a host of factors. But how many? One study (WTO 1976) identified 133 factors exerting an influence on tourism demand and its distribution classified in three major categories: socio-economic factors; psycho-sociological factors; and technical factors. The current writer believes that tourism development is subject to the influence of all these factors in one way or another and each of them is only part of a single whole. These environmental factors can only be adequately analysed in a holistic context as these factors do not intervene

in tourism in a straight forward process of succession but occur through an aggregate or counter-balancing process.

The reality of tourism development conditions is multi-dimensional and the dialectics existing between the various component factors constitute a chain of inter-reactions in which no single factor can influence or control the others. Changes in social patterns, development level, economic structures, cultural forms, political and technological situation are irreducible both in terms of each other and in overall terms. It must be stressed, at this juncture, that it is not possible to isolate the effects to tourism development of each and every single factor; indeed, it is even not possible to present an exhaustive list of all the factors contributing to tourism development. Furthermore, "the naming of factors is always a problematic exercise, and whatever validity the labels have depends entirely on the variables that go into the analysis" (Young 1974:658). Consequently, emphasis has been placed on a better understanding of the overall relationships and a detailed analysis of the main factors rather than on a exhaustive list or an elaborated model of tourism environment.

Table 14 is a brief checklist of the main macro-environmental variables that are affecting tourism development in various ways. In Table 15, the relations between the main environmental factors and the various aspects of tourism are indicated. As the grouping of numerous macro-environmental variables into five dimensions and 19 categories is somewhat arbitrary and each category still contains many interrelated

Table 14 A brief check-list of the main macroenvironmental variables affecting tourism development

Category	Examples
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic system • Economic development strategy • Economic policy (fiscal, monetary, industrial, etc) • GNP per capita and trends • Income distribution • Wage and tax level • Level and structure of consumer expenditure • Inflation, unemployment, interest rates • Industrial structure by output and employment • Trade balance and exchange rates • Terms of trade and protectionism • Capital, energy, material and goods supply • Regional economic issues
Political and Legislative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political system • Political ideology • Power structure • National, regional and local governments • Interest and pressure groups • Political stability • Legislation and regulation (general and specific) • International relations
Socio-cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social classes and structure • Social value, morality and ethics • Leisure time and recreation activities • Lifestyle and fashion • Social movements • Historical background and ties with other nations • National identity and psycho-graphic profiles • Attitude towards work and consumption • Religion • Global cultural convergence
Demographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Population size and density • The age, spatial, educational, family, and ethnic structure of population • Regional, national and international migration • Labour force availability • Population growth
Physical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topography and landscape • Natural tourist resources: scenery, beach, spas, wilderness area, etc. • Climate and its changes • Flora and Fauna • Physical and relative location of the country • The size of the country
Technological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information technology • Transport technology • General technology • Emerging new technologies • Technology transfer • Technology application in tourism

Table 15 A check-list of the relationship between the main environmental factors and the key aspects of tourism

Environmental Factors	Tourism Demand		Tourism Supply		Tourism Management			Tourism Impacts			
	Size and Level	Structure	Attraction	Amenity	Access	Industry Structure	Govem' Role	Foreign Role	Econo-mic	Social	Ecolo-gical
ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT	●	●	*	●	●	*	●	●	●	*	○
Economic Development Level	●	●	*	●	●	*	●	●	●	*	○
Economic Strategy and Policy	○	*	*	*	*	*	○	*	*	*	○
Business Cycle	●	●	+	+	+	+	○	+	+	+	+
Other Economic Variables	●	●	*	○	*	*	○	○	*	○	+
POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT	○	*	*	○	○	*	●	●	○	*	○
Political System and Ideology	○	*	+	+	+	○	●	●	+	*	+
Political Climate	○	+	*	*	*	+	*	*	+	+	+
Legislation and Regulation	*	●	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
International Relations	○	*	○	+	+	+	+	*	+	○	+
SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT	●	●	●	○	○	○	*	*	○	●	○
Social Conditions	●	●	●	●	+	○	*	*	○	*	○
Culture	○	*	●	○	+	○	*	*	+	●	○
Historical Background	○	*	●	+	○	+	*	*	+	*	+
Demographic Variables	●	●	*	+	+	+	○	○	+	○	+
GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT	○	*	●	○	*	○	○	○	○	○	+
Physical Settings	○	*	●	+	*	+	+	+	+	+	●
Climate	*	*	●	+	○	+	+	+	+	+	●
Country Location	○	*	○	+	●	+	○	○	+	+	*
Country Size	●	*	●	○	+	*	*	*	○	*	*
TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT	*	●	*	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○
General Technology	○	●	○	●	*	+	+	○	○	+	*
Transport Technology	●	●	○	○	●	+	+	○	+	+	○
Information Technology	*	*	*	●	*	●	○	○	+	○	○

● — very closely related * — closely related ○ — related + — no general relationship

factors, these relationships are extremely difficult to illustrate. The table should be read with caution and understood in connection with the theoretical discussions in the study.

Although there appears widespread agreement that all these factors and many others, are influential in tourism development, little has been done to quantify the importance of each of the explanatory variables, much less their interaction. It would be highly useful to know how much of the difference in tourism development levels between two countries is attributed to income level, how much to attraction endowment and how much to development efforts. Definite answers for these questions are beyond the scope of this chapter. A comparative analysis of the factors is, however, helpful in understanding the interaction between tourism and its environment.

A Comparative Analysis of the Environmental Variables

The environmental variables identified in the previous chapters are similar in that all of them affect tourism development directly and indirectly but they are actually different because the nature, extent and patterns of their influences on tourism are divergent. The various environmental factors tend to differ in the following aspects:

(i) The relevance and significance to tourism development. Although it could be said that all macro-environmental factors are somewhat related to tourism directly or indirectly, the

closeness of their connection to, and importance of their role in influencing the industry are widely varied. For example, in terms of the effects on tourism demand determination, income level and paid leave entitlements are far more important than most of the other environmental factors; whereas the marketability of ecotourism is more often associated with the increasing environmental awareness in a society.

(ii) The nature of the impacts on tourism development. The environmental variables could be classified into two groups: positive or motivational factors which often stimulate demand and create development opportunities; and negative or hygienic factors which usually impose or reduce environmental threats. These are analogous to the motivation and hygiene factors in Herzberg's theories of motivation. Some environmental factors do not positively motivate tourists and attract tourism development but where they are absent tourists will be put off. Good examples are sewage facilities, safe roads, crime incidents, social and political stability. Tourists are unlikely to visit a destination merely because it has good clean sewage treatment, less crime, safe roads, and a stable political climate but if these conditions are not there then tourists will go elsewhere. On the demand side, increases in disposable income will usually lead to higher travel demand while government imposed regulations and limitation may well suppress this demand; but the abolition of artificially maintained travel barriers would not increase much international travel flows from the poorer nations.

(iii) The scope of influence. Tourism is a multi-dimensional activity. All the environmental factors do not (at least not to the same extent) influence all the areas and aspects of tourism development. Changes in some environmental factors such as national economic recession may mainly affect the capability of a country of originating tourists while others such as higher relative price compared to competing destinations may largely condition its capability of receiving tourists. The location of a destination determines its accessibility while cultural distance between tourists and hosts has closely linked to the cultural impacts of tourism.

(iv) Patterns of change—the causes, frequency, rate, pace and form of change. Changes in some factors are usually caused by changes in others, such as changes of lifestyles and leisure patterns which are closely associated with changes in the levels of income, education, mobility and social values. Some others are more independent such as technological advances and climate changes. Some factors such as population size changes in a gradual and often smooth process while the trends of other factors may be disrupted frequently such as political instability and natural disasters. The three different types of change — incremental, discontinual, and revolutionary — have obvious different implications to policy makers. For example, incremental policy responses may be adequate to deal with inflation which is increasing only slowly and uniformly but if inflation appears to be accelerating sharply or fluctuating wildly then different corrective measures may have to be adopted. To many “one off” events such as political upheavals,

government's temporary restriction on foreign currency, mega-events such as the Olympic Games, more flexible policy and quick decisions will be needed.

With regard to the pace or cycle of change, there is also wide variation between different environmental factors. The natural environment is usually static in the short term, while factors such as exchange rates may vary every day. As various factors change in different cycles, their effects on tourism development can only be examined in "proper" time period because there is always a time lag between the causes and the effects. Generally speaking, the longer the time period adopted, the more likely it is that determinant causes will be seen in terms of large-scale movements of socio-cultural phenomena. In the medium term they are more likely to be technological and, in the short term, economic and political. For example, the popularisation of certain types of holiday may take a long time to achieve whereas the shift of demand between competing destinations can be completed very quickly in response to increased price or political instability.

(v) Level of influence—world, regional, national or industrial. Some changes in the external environment will have global impacts, such as the greenhouse effect and ozone layer depletion; some have mainly regional effects, such as those in the EC policies on the European Community and regional wars; others usually have only national implications such as that in national economic and political situation; and some

changes may only have effects on the tourism industry such as a change in specific tourism legislation or policies.

(vi) Controllability of change—the extent to which it may be influenced by the effort of tourism system. Some factors such as the climate, location and physical conditions of a country is impossible to be changed by human effort whereas some others may be affected by tourism development such as lifestyle, leisure fashion and international understanding and the changes in government policy toward tourism is often caused by the tourism system itself. Some changes arise from developments which are largely independent of the policies of tourism in a nation. Other changes arise from developments which are largely influenced by tourism policies. A very important difference between these two kinds of environmental factors and changes is that the outcomes of the first kind are largely beyond our control, while the outcomes of the second kind are largely the result of policy decisions of the tourism industry. Accordingly, with the first kind it is useful to try to assess the most probable outcomes. With the second kind, also, it is useful to consider the most probable outcomes; but even more important will be the identification of policy options and their likely consequences, so as to highlight the choices that can be made between them.

(vii) The measurability and predictability of changes. Is the change itself and its impacts on tourism tangible and quantifiable? Have the changes followed an established pattern? Are they predictable? All these questions are critically

important in the monitoring and management of development environment. Some environmental factors, such as the demographic and economic ones, are fairly measurable while many others are difficult or impossible to quantify such as changes in social value, cultural norms and political climate. Related to the possibility of accurate measurement of environmental changes is that of reliable forecast of the future trends and events. Some variables, noticeably demographic ones, function in a fairly constant way throughout the last century and across the globe; while changes in most of the environmental elements are difficult to predict though sometimes signs indicating the future trends may emerge in advance, such as those in economic, political and technological spheres.

It is important to bear in mind that environmental variables and environmental changes are of different kinds. Changes of different environmental factors will instigate different temporal and spatial aspects and give rise to different implications for tourism development.

8.2 A TYPOLOGY OF THE ENVIRONMENT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

An industry's environment consists of a potentially infinite numbers of variables and causal relationships which do not present themselves as a neat model at any particular point in time. It is perceived to have three components: complexity,

dynamism and illiberality (Child 1972). An industry's environment could be distinguished between two dimensions: the number of causal connections between parts and the rate by which change is transferred between the parts. It is prudent to argue that the environment is likely to move towards a more turbulent state over time—i.e. a high degree of connections between parts and a high rate of change—and more complicated causal structure. Population growth, changes in cultural values and social patterns, increasingly rapid technological progress, and intensified competition result in more numerous relations between the parts of an environment which leads all industries and organisations move from less to more interconnected states.

Classifications of Environment

According to Ansoff (1981), industrial environments can be classified by their degree of turbulence in terms of five levels: stable, reactive, anticipatory, exploring, and creative. The factors which relate to this turbulence are the amount of strategic activity, such as investing in research and development, the predictability and frequency of changes, the novelty of the change and the ability of the firm to transfer past experience, the state of knowledge for successful response, and the applicability of forecasting techniques. Ansoff notes that while turbulence has been increasing not all industries' environment are developing at the same time and with the same velocity.

Emery and Trist (1965) identified four types of environment: placid, randomised; placid, clustered; disturbed-reactive; and turbulent. The early stages are when the environment is stable and unchanging; followed by clustering of resources and locations, increased competition and strategic responses, and finally reaching a state of turbulence when all relationships are changing and survival depends on efficient environmental scanning and monitoring. Emery and Trist believed that the tendency of all environments is to become turbulent with a general thrust towards increasing levels of uncertainty and complexity.

In a more recent study (Hooley et al. 1988) five distinct environments were identified using a form of cluster analysis. The environments (named Type 1 to Type 5) differed on industry maturity, entry and exit barriers, diversity of customer wants and needs, and pace of change. The marketing objectives and strategic focus were found to differ by environment, but the competitive advantage sought (i.e. product performance, design, pricing etc.) were more likely to be considered company specific and independent of the environment.

The environment of the tourism system is three-fold: internal, operating, and macro environment. The analysis of tourism environment is very limited in the literature, let alone its typology.

A Typology of the Environment of Tourism Development

The tourism development environment of the countries in the world can be, according to their economic, political, social and natural conditions and the current level of tourism activities, classified into four types.

Type One is those countries where the extremely low level of economic development, high level of political instability have prevented tourism development and with no realistic hope in the near future to reverse this situation. Most of the 47 nations classified by the United Nations as the “Least Developed Countries” (UNCATD 1992), such as Bangladesh, Rwanda and Chad, belong to this type. These are the countries where tourism development initiatives are most urgently needed to generate job opportunities and economic growth. But, as the very low living standards lead to little domestic travel demand and the poor infrastructure and superstructure, often accompanied by a bad image and high risk, deter foreign travellers from visiting and multinational corporations from investing in these countries. Tourism has not been given priorities in national development plans and not been developed to any significant level.

As long as the socio-economic conditions are not improved, tourism in these countries will not be expected to develop at large scale or with great rates. The industry, in most of the countries in these group, is unlikely to be a large enough one to become a dynamic force for economic growth and will remain as a negligible or sideline sector in the economy. However, this

does not exclude the possibilities that tourism, if properly managed, may have great prospects for growth in limited countries and certain areas that with the necessary elements of tourism development.

Type Two is comprised of the vast majority of developing countries where tourism development has both its resources and the economic desirability but it is usually constrained by the inadequacy of infrastructure and a shortage of capital and technology. The conditions of these countries are more complex and varied ranging from large countries with magnificent cultural and natural attractions, such as China and India to small states enjoying historical ties with Western nations, such as many African and Latin American states. Some countries have already developed their tourism industry into an important economic sector and established themselves as international tourism destinations.

The main issues for these destinations appear to be: developing unique products to meet the increasingly critical demand of the international tourists and compete with increasing numbers of destinations. Specific tourist facilities for the growing domestic travel market is also an issue to be addressed as most of its existing tourist facilities were developed for the foreign travellers which often have higher level of expectation about tourism amenities and greater ability to pay for high quality service.

The third type refers to those newly industrialised countries and a few developing nations located near the key tourist originating centres. These countries have the favourable conditions for tourism development, be it the endowment of tourist attractions, or rapidly improving infrastructure and expanding domestic demand, or locational advantages, and their share in the world tourism market will increase substantially in the next few decades. Mexico, Turkey and South Korea are examples of this group.

These countries have enjoyed high growth rates in recent years in both tourism and general economic development. The main tasks for them in the coming years are to maintain the momentum of development and keep a dynamic balance between the supply of tourist products and the demand of international and domestic tourists.

The fourth type is the developed world where tourism has long established itself as an important industry in the economy and all forms of tourism—domestic tourism, and inbound and outbound international tourism—have been developed to a high level. They are faced with the problems of regenerating the declining traditional resorts, keeping the balance of payments of the travel trade, developing new and alternative forms of tourism, maintaining their market shares in world tourism, and after all, making the industry sustainable.

The environment of the tourism industry in general has, during the last few decades, been increasingly turbulent. This

trend is largely explainable by four major factors. These are: an expanding but increasingly experienced and segmented tourist market; the rapidly rising numbers of new destinations have intensified international competition; the easy entry and exit to the market and the industry; and the rapid changes in the economic and social conditions.

Although the global prospects of tourism growth are well recognised, the development environments for different destinations are varied. The resort lifecycle, changing tourist preferences and increasing operational costs have already led some traditionally popular destinations to decline; whereas in many newly opened destinations, tourism development has been facilitated by exotic cultures, low costs and increasingly better transport connections.

Wolf (1964) recognised three decades ago the different prospects of tourism development in four different groups of countries (which are largely comparable to the four categories of tourism environment discussed above): where tourism is limited and is likely to remain so; where it has limited possibilities of being developed; where tourism exists and if develops properly could become an important industry in the economy; and where it has been highly developed and the key issue is how to maintain the industry.

8.3 THE INTERACTIONS BETWEEN THE TOURISM SYSTEM AND ITS ENVIRONMENT

A Holistic View of the Tourism-Environment Interrelation

Economic, social, political, technological, all these factors and many others are parts of a single whole. The environment of tourism development must be viewed and analysed, for planning purposes, as an unified entity for the simple reason that everything is related to everything else. However, the interconnections of all of the elements in the environmental puzzle are virtually limitless, and are far beyond the ability of the human mind or of our most sophisticated models to track. This is, without doubt, one of the main reasons why attempts at forecasting often fail.

To deny this fact by attempting to analyse trends or classes of trends in isolation may be a logical expression of scientific reductionism by making the classical “other things being equal” assumption, but it is scarcely a tribute to our powers of observation. Tourism and any other development do not work in this way; they are the product of interactions, not of discrete channelling.

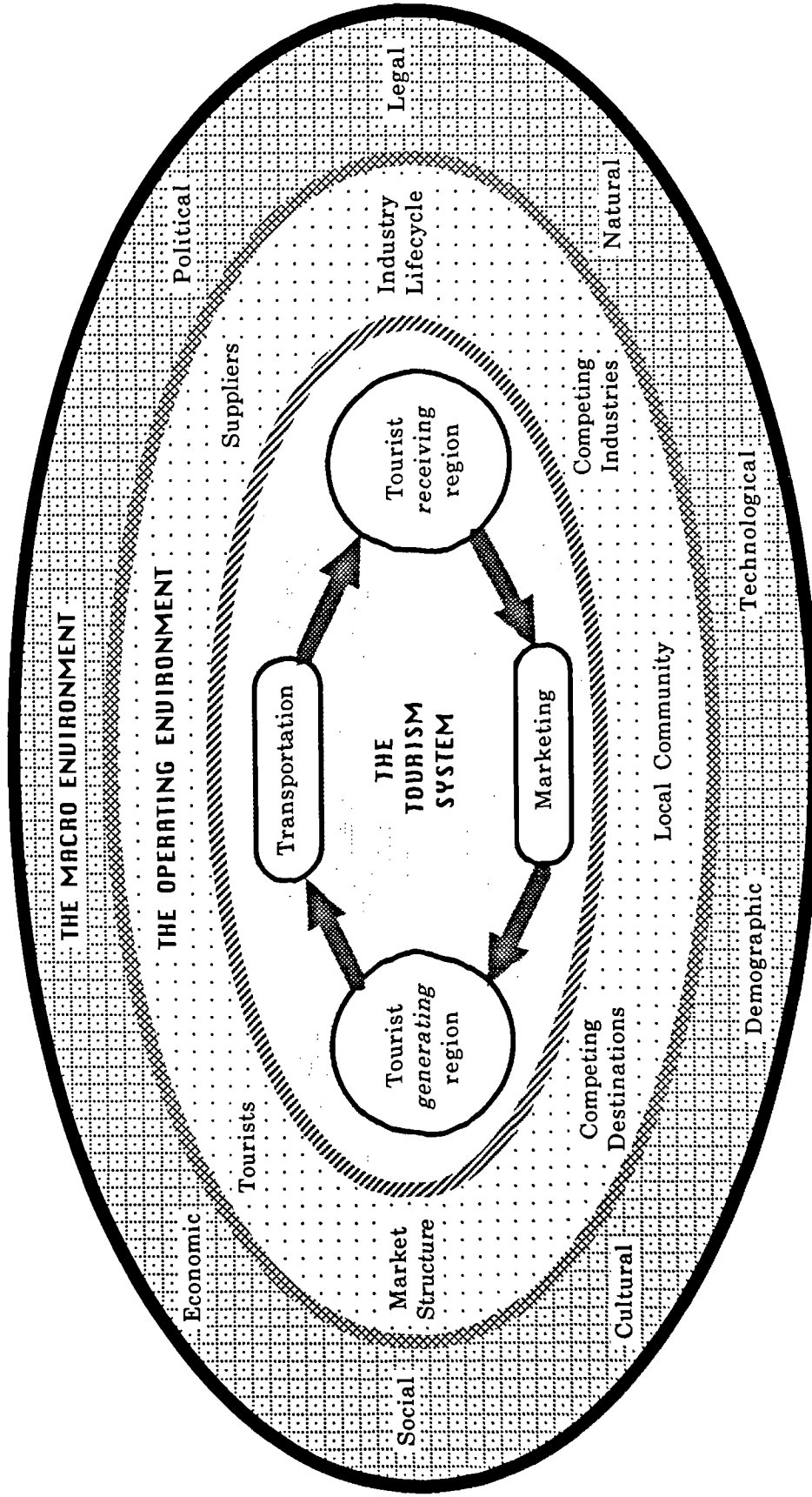
In environmental studies, it is possible to start at any point on this social-economic-political-technological chain and trace a circular pattern of linkages, to the point where the distinction between cause and effect is blurred. In this age of increasing complexity, dependent and independent variables are coming

to merge into a unified set of interdependent variables. These environmental factors cannot be adequately analysed except in a holistic context, that is, a comprehensive environmental assessment system that sees the tourism environment as a whole rather than piecemeal. Figure 61 exhibits a holistic picture of the connections between the tourism system and its external environment.

Obviously, any changes in the external environmental factors and their sub-elements will finally affect the various aspects of tourism through either an aggregate or counter-balancing process and be presented or felt at the performance or impacts of tourism. However, as many of the factors keep changing continuously at various speeds and scales and towards different directions, their effects may to a certain extent be counteracted and the result is that tourism only expresses the net impacts from external factors after deducting the counteractions among them. Therefore, it is extremely difficult to isolate the contributions to tourism development of any single factor or separate the effects of one factor from another.

Nevertheless, we may distinguish between four specific types of causal relations in the examination of the interaction between tourism development and its environment. Causes and effects may be either internal or external from the industry's point of view, which means that we have four types of combinations at hand: (1) internal causes lead to internal effects; (2) internal causes lead to external effects; (3) external

Figure 61 The relationship between the tourism system and its environment



causes lead to internal effects; and (4) external causes lead to external effects.

Type 1 may be referred to as traditional business administrative perspective which view businesses and industries as a closed system. There is a vast amount of literature concerning the organisation, operation and administration of tourism enterprises which are considered here as components of the tourism system.

Type 2 is encountered in impact studies in tourism where the emphasis is on examining how tourism development may affect the economic, social and natural environment of the destination.

Type 3 has been demonstrated by this study and may be found in strategic planning and demand forecasting literature. It examines how changes in its environment condition tourism development. It is an increasingly significant area for reasearch but is seriously understudied.

The fourth type has received little, if any attention in tourism research yet; and this situation will generally remain unchanged in the foreseeable future as the interactions between the external environmental variables are considered beyond the interest and capacity of the field of tourism studies though an understanding of them can be valuable.

The Dynamics of Tourism-Environment Interaction

The interactions between the tourism system and its external environment may be seen from the tourism development mechanism. Tourism development may be defined as a mechanism of creating and maintaining a dynamic balance between tourism demand and supply and in a broader sense, between the development opportunities and the industrial capabilities.

The effectiveness of tourism development is concerned with the industry achieving a dynamic equilibrium within its environment. The primary requirement being to gain inputs from this environment — capital, labour, land, technology, political commitment, community support etc.; to do this the industry and its enterprises need a requisite capacity to identify environmental changes and enable sufficiently responsive actions to be taken in accordance to the changing patterns of opportunities and threats.

Meanwhile, the industry need achieve sufficient operating efficiency to ensure that it performs satisfactorily in terms of outputs-inputs ratio and in a wider context, the trade-off between the positive-negative impacts. Successful tourism development needs also establish its competitiveness in relation to both other industries in the country competing for the same resources by generating lower opportunity costs, and other destinations in the world market competing with the same tourists by offering unique and better valued products. The effective and efficient development and operation of tourism in

a destination will further improve its competitive position and open more development opportunities to the destination.

Obviously, the existence of development opportunities is vital to the success of the industry. Without development opportunities, i.e., without a positive exchange between a system and its external environment, and, without inputs of capital, labour, land, etc. from the external environment and the outputs from the tourism systems to the environment in forms of tourism goods and services, no development could proceed.

It is also clear that external opportunity is only one element in development and the mere existence of opportunity will not necessarily lead to successful development. This is because, first of all, a destination may fail to identify attractive opportunities; secondly, it may fail to mobilise sufficient resources to carry out the necessary development activities to exploit the opportunities; and thirdly, mismanagement and the consequent low efficiency and high costs may turn the development activities into an unsuccessful exercise.

Cross-nation comparisons often show that many countries have largely similar tourist resources and development opportunities but with widely divergent achievement in tourism development. For instance, the natural assets of Tanzania and Kenya offer similar attractions for tourists, but Kenya's greater resource allocations to and policy support for tourism has resulted in its growth that is both absolutely and

relatively much more rapid. A similar comparison can be made between Tunisia and Algeria (Green 1979). Too often, in tourism development the same external conditions can produce different consequences, and different conditions may produce the same consequences.

Natural and historical features in a country have intrinsic attracting power but for tourism, they are not, however, truly functioning as attractions unless designed, developed and managed to do so. Moreover, although tourism can build on natural resources, their presence or even absence does not determine the success of tourism development. For example, Singapore and Hong Kong were the number 10 and number 11 top tourism earners in the world in 1991 yet neither has substantial historical and religious treasures, scenic diversity, or cultural riches of many large developing nations.

There is no doubt, therefore, that in addition to the external environment, the internal one within the industry is also of, and is often of more, importance. While the opportunities and threats of tourism development are determined by the external environment, the exploitation of the opportunities are neither automatic nor inevitable, but is dependent upon a number of preconditions. The most critical ones are the scale, structure and competence of the tourism system itself. Furthermore, external constraints or threats, which is normally thought of as something outside the system that makes it difficult or impossible for the system to achieve its objectives, if managed properly, may be converted into opportunities (Gharajedaghi

& Ackoff 1986). For example, the state of underdevelopment and remoteness could be well exploited as attractions for small scale and high per visitor spending tourism.

A Model of Tourism Development

The process of tourism development may be simplified as consisting of the following stages: the initial development stimuli may arise from an identification of development opportunities in international and domestic tourist market or/and from an realisation of tourism as a favourable development option based on a comprehensive audit of the resource and economy of the country. This is usually followed by the establishment of governmental policies and incentives to mobilise the needed resources in development. It is often accompanied by some formal or informal planning and projecting activities which decide the type, size, pace and spatial distribution of tourism development. The next step is the development and marketing of the products, including the capitalisation of natural and cultural attractions, the provision of tourist infrastructure and facilities, and domestic and overseas promotions.

The diverse environmental situations faced by various countries and the different experiences they have underline the central fact that it is not possible to establish a single model which embraces all the detailed processes followed and issues encountered by each and every country in the world. The attempt here is to construct a model which simplify the

dynamic process and mechanism of tourism development by illustrating the interaction between its internal and external environmental forces without considering the differences in style, path and pace of development across nations.

An abstract model of tourism development is built below which emphasises the interaction between the internal and the macro environments which is normally conducted through the operating environment where the development opportunities are distributed among industries and destinations by competition.

$$TD = f \frac{\sum(E.P.S.N.T)}{I} . C$$

- TD*: tourism development, its size, structure, speed, pattern, process, impacts, and other characteristics;
- f*: function. Tourism development is a function of the following three interrelated environments:
- I*: internal environment which determines the competence and capacity, and strengths and weaknesses of the tourism industry in dealing with all forms of competition and broader developmental opportunities and threats;
- C*: competition in the operating environment between actual and potential destinations, between the tourism industry and other industries based on the same or similar resources or markets, between the tourism industry and its inputs suppliers and its outputs buyers (tourists); and
- $\sum(E.P.S.N.T)$: the totality of the macro-environment. All the economic, political, socio-cultural, natural and technological

variables collectively determine the opportunities of and threats to tourism development.

The author's primary interest is to develop an alternative framework for looking at tourism development in order to be able to reason about its mechanism. It is felt that the more sophisticated the mode the greater the likelihood of becoming engaged in a war of words and models that meant "losing the forest in the trees". An exhaustive tourism development model at global scale, if is not impossible to construct, is often unreliable black boxes; in most cases it is impossible to place confidence limits on their predictions. The model described above is abstract and simple, however, the author counts on it to accomplish more than organising existing data in such a way that it provides new insights and facilitates interpretation of the causes and conditions of tourism development, poses new questions and call for new facts, and provides the basis for accurate measurement and reliable prediction. It is said that "a crude model used with good scientific practice is more enlightening than poor scientific practice and a good model" (Kates; Ausubel & Berberian 1985:489).

The thrust of the analysis thus far is that the various environmental elements of the tourism system should be conceived as a whole. The approach developed here towards the study of the environment of the tourism system is holistic, emphasising the congruence of internal capabilities with external opportunities. Nevertheless, as the external environment is changing at an increasing velocity and with

increasingly frequent disruptions, the task to keep a dynamic balance between the tourism capacity and the environmental opportunity is one impossible to accomplish unless the industry effectively adopt a pro-active approach toward the changes in its environment.

8.4 THE MANAGEMENT OF THE TOURISM ENVIRONMENT

Tourism development is bound to be conditioned by its environment. Any changes of the environmental factors will finally affect the various aspects of tourism and be presented or felt at the outcome, performance or impacts of tourism. Change is a characteristic feature of the modern world. Some changes are sudden and traumatic, some are long term and progressive, while others fluctuate. The superimposition of these different types of environmental changes with different frequencies and severity at different locations means that the conditions of tourism development varies over time and from place to place. Nevertheless, no matter how the environment changes and what their impacts on tourism, the actual function of tourism system, its effectiveness and efficiency, depends on its ability to adapt to the environment.

Attitudes Toward Environmental Changes

Changes can be initiated by many factors within society and the responses to a change are themselves many and varied.

There appears to be a complete lack of study of the attitudes of different industries toward environmental changes. There are, however, some attempts in examining the attitudes and responses of firms to the business environment and their changes.

Miles and Snow (1978) have classified firms into four distinct types by their responses to the environment. (a) Defenders have a narrow product-market mix and while expert in one field do not search outside it for opportunities. (b) Prospectors are continually searching for new opportunities. They create change and uncertainty and make their competitors followers. (c) Analysers operate in both relatively stable and dynamic markets. In the former, they operate routinely while in the latter they watch competitors closely and rapidly adopt promising ideas. (d) Reactors frequently perceive change and uncertainty but are unable to respond effectively. They are in an unstable position and will cease to exist unless they change to one of the other responses.

It is also held that in dealing with environmental changes, there are two general attitudes: a passive attitude which reacts in a reactive way to its environment, seeing change as a problem and potential threat; and a creative one which sees the changes not as threats, but as opportunities (Zeithaml & Zeithaml 1984).

In responding to environmental forces, tourist organisations (industry, destinations and firms) can also take two general

approaches. The first approach views environmental forces as uncontrollable and adjusts strategies to environment changes. The second approach, on the other hand, believes environmental forces can be shaped and tries to influence environment changes. Both approaches could be effective under certain conditions. The selection of a particular approach depends on the organisation's culture and the sphere of the environment. For example, the tourism industry in a country may be able to influence the enactment of specific tourism laws and regulations through lobbying, it is unlikely to have significant influence over the demographic changes.

A firm, an industry and any other organisation can gain competitive advantage by predicting, identifying, anticipating and responding to environmental changes. They will gain competitive advantage by responding quickly to changes before the gap between its products and the market demand becomes too wide. Tourist destinations and enterprises must consider the nature of the environmental changes they face and the strategic responses best suited to the situation and level of turbulence. Appropriate and prompt responses to environmental changes are usually achieved through the pro-active management of environment by continuously scanning, monitoring and adapting to the environment.

A Pro-Active Approach for Environment Management

A pro-active approach to environment management requires the constant scanning and monitoring of the environment.

Environmental scanning is here used to encompass the varied information gathering, analysis and dissemination activities that tourist destinations and firms pursue in order to keep up to date with changes in their environment. The principal accomplishment must be to enable the industry to deal with environmental changes.

Although the importance of scanning the environment for strategic planning has been stressed in the literature and recognised by many organisations (Aguilar 1967; Hambrick 1982; Rhyne 1985), very few organisations have adopted a systematic and structured approach to this task (Fahey, King & Narayanan 1981). Difficulties in implementation has been cited as the cause of failure to adopt these systems (Stubbart 1982). The information “explosion” and the increasing complex and dynamic environment are forcing tourism organisations to adopt more systematic and structured methods to their scanning task, but little has yet been done to specifically examine the scanning function in the tourism industry.

Implementing effective scanning systems, not only entails the establishment of appropriate environmental monitoring procedures to collect relevant and timely information, but also involves the dissemination of this information to the appropriate user. Since the emphasis here is on collection of relevant information, this process is a cerebral one as it involves subjective judgements at various stages of the process. Further, since the value of the information is to make more

informed decisions, industries and firms need to adopt structures which ensure that appropriate users—policy makers, strategic planners and top management—attend to this information.

The major goal of environmental scanning and monitoring is to counter environmental threats while achieving an optimal fit between the tourism capacities and the opportunities in its changing environment. An environmental threat is a challenge posed by an unfavourable trend or development in the environment that would lead, in the absence of purposeful action, to the erosion of an organisation's position. Threats can be classified according to their seriousness and probability of occurrence. A development opportunity, on the other hand, is an attractive arena for an organisation's action in which it enjoy a competitive advantage. Opportunities can be classified according to their attractiveness and probability of success that the organisation might have with each of them (Kotler 1984).

Effective and pro-active environment management also requires environment forecasting to predict the changes of the main environmental variables. In the tourism environment, some trends are relatively predictable and thus are useful in planning, such as demographic changes. Where the required data are available, trends can be computed using some statistical techniques in a relatively straightforward manner. Trends may be constructed to assume that the rate of change will be constant over the future or that change will be cyclic, as in business cycle forecasting. Where past trends are unclear,

or not numerical, or underlying causal factors are not understood, the future development of the problem may be difficult to predict, but some attempt must be made to quantify the degree of uncertainty. Where there is considerable uncertainty, the emphasis may have to be on “wedge forecasting” (a range of possibilities between the “most optimistic” and “most pessimistic” extremes) and associated with “contingency planning”.

To determine policy responses on the basis of a single most likely (or wished-for) development is a common fault in policy-making. Therefore, where the environmental trends are uncertain, different scenarios, which are “hypothetical sequences of events constructed for the purpose of focusing attention on causal processes and decision points” (Kahn & Weiner 1967:6), should be developed to consider likely possible future states in order to provide a context for reflecting on our present and future decisions.

It should be stressed that prediction and forecasting are most effective in projecting regular relationships. They might be sometimes fruitless in an environment of discontinuities—political instability, natural disasters, for instance—although the tourism system tend to absorb individual interruptions in its development process over the long run. Moreover, environmental trends are useful but they are usually not enough by themselves to envision the future or to indicate the possible impacts on tourism development.

The ideal environmental trends scanning and forecasting mechanism should not be confined to just identifying past and present trends and predicting future events. Tourism forecasting should also indicate the specific implications for tourism development of the possible changes in various spheres of tourism environment.

Environment management can only be effective when the information gathered and analysed, the trends predicted and the implications indicated are to be used properly. This requires the policy makers and planners have a strategic perspective and a pro-active approach thus tourism policies and strategies can be responsive and adaptive. Strategies should, as Stacey (1990) suggests, be dynamic and emerge opportunistically in the form of strongly backed responses to environmental changes, to the opportunities and threats created by these changes.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS

This conclusive chapter attempts to reiterate the key ideas that make up the basics of the analysis in previous chapters and further develop them into a more integrated discourse of the principles of tourism development. The main opportunities and threats to tourism development arising from environmental changes are identified and the key implications highlighted in the first section. It is followed by general discussions on the common considerations for and strategic guidelines of tourism development in Sections Two and Three. The final section examines what new and continuing research efforts are needed to attain a greater and better understanding of the mechanism of tourism development, and especially the dynamic relationship between the tourism system and its environment.

9.1 STRATEGIC ISSUES IN THE ENVIRONMENT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

We have thus far identified and analysed the main external factors affecting tourism development. We have also discussed the possible changes of these environmental forces in the future and their strategic implications for tourism

development. In this section, the main strategic issues, including the key opportunities for and threats to the further development of the tourism industry and the changing patterns of tourism, will be briefly examined.

Opportunities and Threats to Tourism Development

The growth of tourism demand is determined by a host of factors of which the availability of discretionary income and leisure time are generally the most important. While economic growth has often fluctuated in the short to medium term, tourism, as the past two decades witnessed, can always rebound, or find new ways to cope with recession. People are not willing to give up their vacations, but they are willing to change the type and timing of holidays to attempt to lower their vacation costs. The industry has also responded with innovation, particularly the tour package type of vacation. These vacations low costs are a result of economies of scale in such things as the block booking by tour wholesalers of aeroplane seats and hotel rooms.

For these reasons, such as people's flexibility in their travel habits and the adaptability of the industry to cope rapidly with change, there should be no reason to suggest that the growth trends of travel will be reversed in the short and medium run, and possibly even in the very long run. As to the growth prospects of global tourism, the WTO projected an average annual growth rate of international tourism of 4-5 percent and

domestic tourism of up to 4 percent during the 1990s (WTO 1990).

The more important aspects of demand changes are, therefore, the new trends in the types of holidays being taken and the destinations being visited. The tourists are becoming more knowledgeable, more discerning, more sophisticated and more segmented. They expect a different product to that offered in the past with more quality and participation. Many people have now had the experience of package holidays therefore independent travel is likely to be a growth area in travel. "There is a whole new generation of travellers who don't want the tour bus" (Travel News, 8 Nov 1985). Travel agents will have to be prepared for the increase in independent travel by offering themselves as information points and their staff as counsellors to advise people on travel arrangement. Long haul holidays will continue to see greater growth than total holiday taking in most tourist generating regions. In Europe, it would be expected that business trips between EC member countries are likely to rise dramatically due to the increased business contact due to the introduction of the single market.

Travis (1991) has pointed out five distinctive shifts in tourism demand in Europe: (a) refreshment through contrast, referring essentially to the search for experiences outside the daily realm of activities; (b) the demand for quality natural-heritage, resource-based experiences, including national parks, water and air quality, peace and quiet, flora and fauna; (c) the demand for cultural, built-heritage, resource-based

experiences, involving the search for activities, places and events which have strong identity, distinctiveness and difference and are based on culture; (d) the demand for rural and agri-tourism seen in the growth of rural holidays; and (e) the demand for better health, identity, spiritual and mental renewal. These changes in demand require the tourism industry to respond promptly to offer new products, such as sports, nature and health tourism, rural tourism products, urban and cultural tourism innovations, tourism entertainment and events, and congress and conference tourism.

The tourist market, thus far has been product led i.e. designing products and pricing so low that the demand is created, but during the 1990's it is likely to be market led, i.e. tour operators responding to market demand to develop appropriate products. The Nineties are the age of the quality holiday. The days of "pile it high, sell it cheap" have gone, to be replaced by a new kinder age where companies will no longer be governed by market share and thus the cheapest on the market to achieve this aim. "The competition between the tour operators will become based on quality during the 1990's, with those offering the best quality holidays surviving" (Critchley 1992:299).

The 1990s will also be a period during which further concentration of power will occur in the tourism industry. This will be manifested through: horizontal integration in which larger operators acquiring or forming trading partnerships

with mid-scale and smaller operators, or forcing them out of business through economies of scale; vertical integration achieved through acquisition or strategic trading alliances, often via a CRS; and globalization in which operators expand their activities to more countries either by establishing their own branches or by forging links or acquiring local firms. These developments could lead to the emergence of an industry which comprises two broad types of operator: a small number of major, global operators, and a considerable number of relatively small-scale, “niche-players”, catering for specialist market segments, typically as single country operations (WTO 1990).

At the global level, the increased emphasis by almost all governments on tourism development as a source of economic growth and job creation, makes the global tourist market more competitive than ever before as the total market for tourism is still limited, if expanding. Tourism in most nations, therefore, can only be no more than one element in a wider development strategy. However, some newly opened destinations in the developing world may attract or generate more tourism developments, for there is no reason why the mass tourist resorts of the present will continue to dominate in the future.

As tastes, income and mobility change, new travel routes and resorts will emerge, and the spatial structure of world tourism is expected to change. The most significant change will be the continuously increase of the share of the East Asia and Pacific region in world tourism as it is likely to retain its position as

the fastest growing region in the coming decades, both in terms of tourist generating and tourist receiving. In the developed world, the greatest challenge for the tourism industry in the future concerns the renewal of the mass tourist resorts of the post-war period. As the product cycle reaches maturity and their facilities age, potentially they will present enormous redevelopment problems.

The tourist industry or any enterprises or sectors within it must consider the nature of the environmental change it faces and the strategic response best suited to the situation and level of turbulence. Tourism is a great industry with unlimited opportunities for growth. However, this should not blind us to the realities of the situation since, as Levitt rightly pointed out, "there is no such thing as a growth industry". Moreover, every major industry was once a growth industry. But some that are now riding a wave of growth enthusiasm are very much in the shadow of decline. Others which are thought of as *seasoned growth industries* have actually stopped growing. In every case the reason growth is threatened, slowed, or stopped is not because the market is saturated. It is because there has been a failure of management (Levitt 1975).

"The history of every dead and dying growth industry shows a self-deceiving cycle of bountiful expansion and undetected decay" (Levitt 1962:46). Tourism development could also be self-destructive if it is not properly planned and controlled. There are increasing evidence that over-development has led to the decline of many traditional resorts due to pollution,

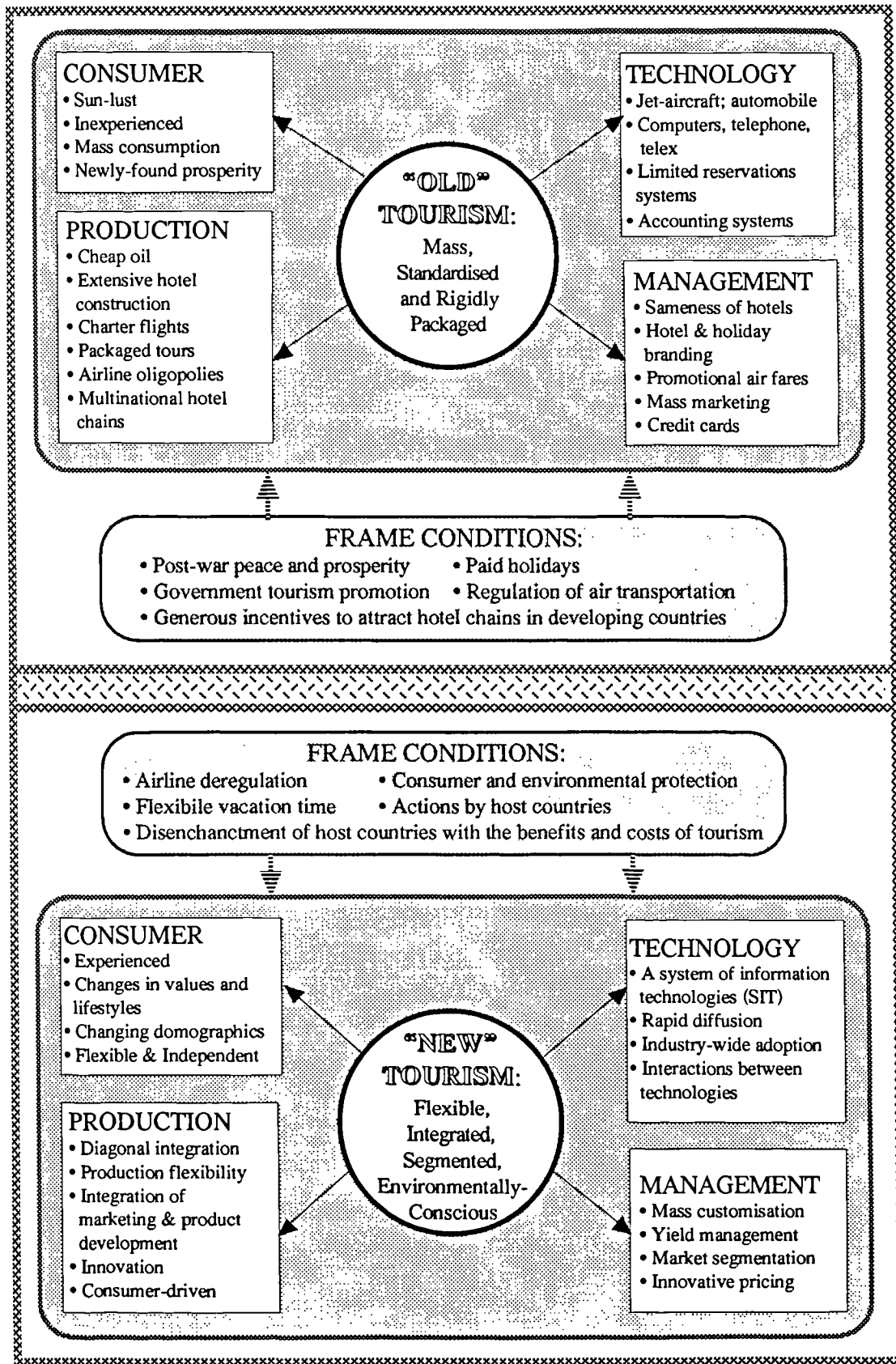
overcrowding, and the degradation of cultural and natural heritage. There are also many cases in which tourist destinations become less attractive because they failed to change and improve their products in responding to the changing market demand. The adverse effects of tourism development such as slow cultural deterioration and gradual pollution of the environment, may be small per unit of time and difficult to detect. However, accumulated effect over a period of time may be considerable and may destroy the very base on which the tourism industry relies.

There are two extra specific sources of external threat to tourism resources in the future: economically sustainable development being used by other commercial interests as a tool to justify the introduction and incompatible urban/industrial activities into tourism areas that cause the degradation of the tourism resource base; and ecologically sustainable development being used as a means of justifying the implementation of pernicious public land management policies that effectively restricted tourism access to and use of public land (McKercher 1993).

The Emergence of “New Tourism”

In short, the environmental changes have driven the tourism industry into a new era and “new tourism” is now emerging. According to Poon (1993:85), “New tourism is a phenomenon of large-scale packaging of non-standardised leisure services at competitive prices to suit the demands of tourists as well as

Figure 62 The features of “old” and “new” tourism



Source: Poon (1993:34 & 87).

the economic and socio-environmental needs of destination". New tourism refers to key emerging characteristics of the tourism industry. The characteristics of and the forces that are driving the "new" tourism are summarised in comparison with those of the "old" tourism in Figure 62.

9.2 FUNDAMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

In developing tourism, it is of critical importance to have a clear and complete understanding of tourism: its benefits, costs and conditions; whether it is desirable and possible to develop the tourism industry; what comparative advantage it has; what role it can play in the economy and society; and what priority should be given to it.

The Role of Tourism Development

It has been conceived and articulated at the first UN's Conference on Tourism in 1963 that "tourism is a basic and most desirable human activity, deserving the praise and encouragement of all peoples and all governments" and tourism has been advocated by numerous scholars and authorities as a path to development. When considering tourism as a development option, however, it is important to carefully examine the advantages and disadvantages of tourism, the desirability and possibility of tourism

development in the given country or region. The following criteria may be considered in determining tourism as a development option: the economic viability, social desirability, political supportability, environmental compatibility, resource sustainability, development feasibility, and international marketability.

It is important to see tourism in context of the national economy for “tourism is not a unique devil”. Instead, the ability of the national economy to benefit from tourism depends on the availability of investment to develop the necessary infrastructure and on its ability to supply the needs of tourists, whether for food, souvenirs or hotel beds (Williams & Shaw 1991a:7). Numerous expert studies and reports stress the difficulties and problems linked to the development of tourism. Especially for the developing countries, tourism is therefore not an easily exploitable “natural resource”. Experience shows that the further a country’s development has already proceeded and the more numerous and varied its basic activities are the greater its chances of benefiting from tourism. “It can thus be claimed that it is not tourism which *permits* development but development which *permits* tourism” (Ascher 1985:83). It has also been argued that for a country where tourism has not yet been developed, recognising the need for people’s self development and that an alternative development programme, rather than tourism, should be promoted (Srisang 1991).

There are increasingly frequent recommendations containing warnings against policies of developing tourism for its own sake—policies which have taken the means for the end—and stressing the need to incorporate tourism policy in a global approach to regional and national development. “Ideally, tourism should be developed that is appropriate to the destination. It should take the culture, history, and stage of economic development of the destination into account” (Mill 1990:153).

The diverse range of experiences underline the central fact that tourism is neither a curse nor a blessing in itself. Any evaluation of the role of tourism must depend on particular national and local circumstances. Therefore, no universal rule or single model can be prescribed for locating and designing tourist developments, and it is important to avoid the dangers of extrapolating the experience of particular countries to others which are only sufficiently similar. Nevertheless, some *of the common considerations in tourism development* deserve to be highlighted.

The Types of Tourism Developed

“The debate is not so much concerned with tourism versus no tourism as it is with what kind of tourism” (Matthews 1978:74). Tourism is not monistic, but manifests itself in many different types or forms. “The fact of the matter is that there is no such thing as tourism, but *tourisms*” (Jafari 1983:72). Tourism thus implies a multitude of diversities, arising from

differences in social and natural conditions, in characteristics and potentialities for development, in the types or forms of tourists to be attracted, and in the different roles of government intervention. Countries should recognise that there are choices in the type of tourism to be developed, since various types of tourism require different preconditions for development and may have different economic and social development consequences.

To date, relatively few writers have tried to identify and clarify the different types of tourist development. Most typologies have been confined to local and regional developments in particular environments (D Pearce 1989:57). Among the popular types of tourism are coastal tourism, ski-field tourism, rural tourism, nature tourism, urban tourism, and other alternative forms of tourism. Gray (1970) has simply classified tourism into two categories: the “sunlust” tourism is focused on natural resources attractions and is characterised by a high degree of substitutability between products, strong competitive forces, and small surpluses; and the “wanderlust” tourism is focused on human resources as attractions and characterised by pronounced heterogeneity of destinations in perceived quality — hence, less substitutability, less price sensitivity, and so more potential for larger surpluses.

Considerations should also be taken of the types of tourists to be attracted. The selection of a target tourist market is based on the appropriate match between market demand and the characteristics of tourism resources modified by competition.

de Kadt (1979:16) pointed out that “faced with a considerable variety of tourists and types of tourism, a country interested in tourism development needs to ask whether and to what extent, it can match its own resources with the requirements of different types of tourist”.

The Patterns of Tourism Development

What pattern or approach should tourism development follow? Integrated or enclave tourism? “Enclave tourism implies a conscious decision to segregate tourists from the general population. This form of development aims to attain the benefit of foreign exchange without the overwhelming of indigenous cultures by foreign tourists” (Jenkins 1991a:69). Jenkins (1982a) identifies three basic characteristics of enclave development and found that structural enclavism is reinforced by price enclavism. This approach of development was quite popular among some developing nations, however, “enclave resort results in minimal economic benefit for the host country because of their dependency on international carrier operators, expatriate employees and imported food and other equipment” (Wilkinson 1989:169).

Consequently, there have been increasing calls for an integrated tourism development approach. Jenkins (1982a:240) points out that “a relatively unexploited concept is integrated development. It is characterised by smaller scale, more indigenous capital and management, and lower prices which are geared to a different type of tourist one who is

perhaps more assimilated into the host community". It has therefore been claimed that "integrated planning is the only approach which can reconcile the conflicting interests of the various activities concerned in tourist development" (WTO/UNEP 1983:76). The World Tourism Organisation has been recommending since the late 1970s to its member countries to carry out integrated planning in tourism development (WTO 1979; 1991b).

The Scale of Tourism Development

The scale of the tourism industry in a country, region, community is also of strategic importance to the impacts of development. The level of tourism development should be appropriate to the conditions of its target market, its resources bases, the comparative advantages of tourism in the economy, and the competence of the industry.

Most countries have sought, as a policy objective, to maximise the numbers of tourists arriving in the country; while more controlled and lower level of arrivals is aimed at by some countries. Whether large scale or small scale development is more desirable and feasible will depend on market demand and the many factors which constitute a tourist destination. "One of the related issues is the concept of carrying capacity; to encourage a level of development which optimises economic, social and cultural benefits within an environmentally acceptable limit" (Jenkins 1991a:68). In no circumstances should the scale of tourism development in a destination

exceed its carrying capacity and make the industry unsustainable in the future.

“Growth in many circumstances is valuable, but we must always think about the end result of that growth.... Perhaps the greatest criticism of the tourism industry relates to the problem of its exceeding desirable limits. It is often ‘too much of a good thing’” (Rosenow & Pulsipher 1979:213-214). Limiting tourism may be important to maintain resources or the liveability of local communities, but sometimes such limits are appropriate simply because there are better development options available. It should also be stated that development need not necessary indicate “growth”, although it is unfortunately common to consider the two terms synonymously. Rather, development should be understood as the realisation of specific social and economic goals which may call for a stabilisation, increase, reduction, change of quality or *even removal of existing products, firms, industries, or other elements.*

The Pace and Rate of Tourism Development

The growth rate of the tourism industry must be controlled so that it keeps pace with general development, and so residents have enough time to adjust to the changes. “Most development specialists agree that tourism must be included in the plans and strategies for national growth and governments are cautioned to stop the industry expanding at a rate beyond local capabilities to control” (Lea 1988:75). Destinations that

embarked on crash tourism development did so at the expense of local control as the sheer scale and pace of hotel development in many regions has been such as to exclude the possibility of such development being carried out by domestic firms alone (UNCTC 1982:83). In comparison, gradual tourism development is far better for maintaining a balanced and diversified economy and preventing stresses and strains on expanding infrastructure. Moreover, it allows local capital a continuing chance to invest, local communities to adapt to the impacts of development, and the travel industry to progress steadily along its "experience curve" (Richter 1989:195).

In conclusion, tourism development, the type, scale, pattern and pace, should be appropriate to the national context and should be compatible to the destination economically, socially and ecologically, in short, it should be in harmony with its development environment. Tourism should be developed as a part of a broader development process and be placed in the *right position in the national social and economic system*. Over-development or dependency on tourism for economic growth is dangerous as well as leading to high opportunity costs. As de Kadt (1979:21) emphasised, over a decade ago: "tourism projects are often developed without being tested within the framework of a sectoral plan, while their costs and benefits may not even be compared with those of alternative projects in the same sector. Most seriously, Although the sectoral plan should establish the place of tourism within the development strategy of the whole economy, in many cases such a plan is nonexistent or not decisively implemented". It is

clear that in order to fully realise the potential contribution of tourism to the socio-economic development of a nation, careful considerations should be given to all the common issues highlighted above and many others.

9.3 GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

How should the tourism industry respond to the changes in the external environment to maximise the opportunities and minimise the threats arising from these changes? There is no universal answer to this question as it is depending on so many diverse variables and conditions in each country. Poon (1993) has pointed out that a tourist destination in the 1990s should make tourism a lead sector, strengthen marketing and distribution channels, build a dynamic private sector, and put the environment first. The following are some strategic measures for actions in the coming decades which the present writer considers important and which may be served as general principles of tourism development.

Tourism Development Should Be Directed by Effective Policy and Planning

“Tourism policy represents an amalgam of principles upon which a nation-wide course of actions for tourism is based—more specific goals, strategies, objectives and plans are developed” (Mill & Morrison 1985:291). Acerenza (1985:60)

defines tourism policy as “the complex of tourism related decisions which, integrated harmoniously with the national policy for development, determines the orientation of the sector, and the action to be taken”. Tourism policy provides the broad guidelines which shape the development of the sector, while the development planning and strategy sets specific aims and targets and constitute the means by which resources are used to meet the objectives defined. “Planning is concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system, to promote orderly development so as to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of the development process” (Murphy 1985:156). Policy directives, based on national needs and resources should give overall direction to the planning process.

Successful tourism development needs properly defined and clearly communicated policy objectives and targets which embrace the economic, social and ecological interests and balance the long-term and short-term benefits and costs. “In many countries, government has already accepted the importance of tourism, but few have given careful consideration to the type of tourism they want; to what extent their declared aims are realistic; and what needs to be done to achieve those aims. Such questions are at the heart of tourism policy formation” (Jenkins 1991a:64).

In formulating its tourism policy, a government will also have to determine what should be the respective roles of the public and the private sector in developing the tourist industry, and

similarly, of domestic and foreign capital. It must establish the due importance to be given to the needs of the tourism sector in plans for national and regional development and in so doing must take a decision regarding the time-scale that it considers reasonable for planning forward investments in the tourism industry. There is further the question of whether the nature of the industry requires special administrative and credit arrangements (OECD 1966).

Tourism Development Should Balance All the Related Interests

Successful tourism development requires the sound balance of all related interests, the interests of all its stakeholders. There are five groups of stakeholders in tourism development—tourists (domestic and foreign), tourist enterprises (investors, management, employees, public and private, domestic and foreign), the local community, the general public and government — all of them participate in certain ways in tourism development and their demand and interests should be fully considered. Due consideration should also be given to the balance of present interests and those of future generation, the balance of the interests of the tourist destination and those of generating countries and regions, and the overall balance of economic, social and ecological gains and losses.

Obviously, the tourist is not the only “God” in tourism development. In order to be truly sustainable tourism development should meet the needs of the host population in

terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term; satisfy the demands of tourists and continue to attract them in order to meet the first aim; and safeguard the natural environment and the cultural heritage in order to achieve both of the preceding aims.

There is widespread realisation that the process of development can be very much accelerated by promoting the participation of the concerned people on both designing and implementing such activities. “Perhaps the most obvious way to improve the developmental impact of international tourism is to increase its local content” (English 1986:67). Murphy advocates the “community approach” in tourism development and argues that “planning can be directed from a purely business and development approach to a more open and community-oriented approach, which views tourism as local resource” (Murphy 1985:37). It is clear that since tourism utilises local environment as its product, the local community should be fully involved in the whole development process, from planning, operation, management to the sharing of the benefits of development.

Government Should Play An Active Role in Tourism Development

In order to initiate, attract and facilitate tourism development, government should play an important and active role, especially in terms of providing policy guidance, necessary infrastructure, technical aid and financial incentives.

Government may also be involved in the development of tourist products and the marketing of the destination. Furthermore, the role of government in the control of the wide social and ecological impacts of tourism development is indispensable as in practice only governments can determine what is in the national interest and can effectively protect the natural and cultural heritage through legislation. The tourism industry should also be represented at all levels of government and be taken more seriously by opinion formers and policy makers (Seekings 1993).

“The important thing for government is not to do things which individuals are doing already, and to do them a little better or a little worse; but to do those things which at present are not done at all” (Keynes 1926:46-47). “The range of policy interventions in many countries, however, expanded to a point well beyond the public sector’s capacity to manage economic activities efficiently; but the experience of successful developing countries in different regions soon made it evident that Governments’ comparative advantage lay in the creation of an environment that facilitated production by private agents rather than in a direct engagement in the production process” (UNCTAD 1992:22).

Krakover (1985) stresses the importance of government investment in the early stages of development when infrastructure must be constructed. Government involvement changes to a regulatory role in later stages when business opportunities may be more attractive to private investors. “In

supporting the tourist industry, the State may take different measures ranging from ensuring a suitable climate for private investments through regulations that guarantee economic stability, to actively providing investors in tourism with considerable subsidies” (Wahab 1975:124). State aid to tourist industry may be on the financial level, or on the administrative and technical levels. WTO (1984:6) argues that, “at the macro level government objectives might include the use of investment incentives to foster a favourable investment ‘climate’ or ‘ambience’ to compete with other countries. At the micro level or project level, incentives are aimed at encouraging investment in revenue-generating projects”.

However, “governments should take care that incentives to foreign investment are not made at expense of local capital, and that concessions in the form of tax holidays are not at the front end of development” (Richter 1989:195). There has been much dispute over the question of whether it is real necessary to grant subsidies, low-interest loans, and tax concessions to attract tourist development (Bosselman 1978:27). It has also been argued that there is “little doubt in most people’s minds that a substantial proportion of investment in hotels would have taken place even in the absence of incentives, or at any rate with substantially reduced incentives” (Bryden 1973:135-6).

Tourism Development Requires Effective Marketing

It has been recognised that “programmes for economic development in any country can be successful only when marketing orientation is a basic part of it, when marketing planning and implementation are integrated into it” (Maceda 1963:19). Tourism destinations can undoubtedly be treated as products. As places are multi-sold, the tourist is a place customer. The application of marketing approaches in tourism development can provide an effective development instrument.

The tourist attractions and amenities developed should meet the requirements and expectations of the target markets. The tourists attracted should be compatible with the social and ecological context of the destination. The image projected in promotion should be based on the uniqueness of the destination. As no single tourist enterprise is responsible for the selling of the whole place of the destination, though its success depends on the latter, the national tourism organisation has usually to assume the major responsibility to promote the destination.

However, marketing is often overlooked by policy makers and planners in tourism development or narrowly viewed as sales by many tourism firms and overseas promotion by many national tourism organisation. Marketing is not just sales and promotion. It is a dominant management philosophy or culture, a systematic thought process, and an integrated set techniques focused on customer needs and aspiration (Middleton 1988). It requires the industry and its firms to be aware the consumers' needs and their changes and to produce

and distribute the right product in the right market at the right price on the right time. As the needs, tastes and preferences of tourists changes, tourist destinations should develop new and re-package existing products to satisfy the increasingly sophisticated and demanding market.

New marketing initiatives are of urgent need especially in the established tourist resorts and destinations where the traditional “homogeneous” products are “all perceived to be characterless, unfashionable and low in quality” (Morgan 1994:378). With increased competition from rising destinations and the greater sophistication of the tourist, differentiation of the tourist product has now become essential. Tourist destinations and products that appear to be moving along its life cycle from growth to maturity and decline can be revived by the correct marketing strategy by modifying the target market, the image and position of the destinations, and the product, pricing, distribution and promotion strategies. Developing new products and upgrading the quality of existing products are necessary for most established destinations to compete in the global market. Promotion targeted at new markets is also an answer to overdependence on one declining market. Many Mediterranean destinations may well target Northern and Eastern Europe and the Middle East in the coming years, to compensate for a possible fall in the visitor numbers from Western Europe.

Tourism Development Should Exploit the Full Potential of Technology

In order to fully capitalise the opportunities created by new developments in technology, the tourism industry should thoroughly appreciate the role of technology in tourism operation and development. A strategic approach in managing technology is needed in tourism development. The impetus for a technology strategy should be from the top of the organisation as without the commitment and involvement of the top management, technological change will not garner satisfactory results (Haywood 1990).

An effective technology strategy should be human-centred and market-oriented (Bruce & Kahn 1989). The industry should be pro-active and be constantly aware of the new developments of, and new opportunities opened up by, technology. The industry itself should also engage in more vigorous research and development of relevant technologies (Ashford 1990; RA Edwards 1991; Gamble 1989; Kirk 1989).

Tourism development, especially in developing countries, should establish an appropriate technology policy. Although technology is both an enabling and a constraining factor, it is not an independent force but a social process. As Coombs and Green (1981:20) note, "there is no such thing as technological inevitability, technological change is an economic and political process both in its causes and its effects". "Society makes the choices, not technology" (Dicken & Lloyd 1981:40).

In tourism development the prompt adoption of new technology is usually critical to its success. But each country has different financial, human and technological capabilities in doing so. Therefore, each country will have to decide for itself the appropriate combinations of the technologies with a number of social, political, cultural, institutional, and economic factors which together create new development opportunities. The consequence of ignoring these social and infrastructural constraints is that the impact of "the spread or diffusion of new technologies is often grossly overestimated" (Goddard 1980:103).

It has been argued that developing countries need small-scale, labour-intensive methods rather than the large-scale, capital-intensive methods that allegedly characterised the operations of Western economies. Indeed, traditional technologies is appropriate for local conditions as it usually more feasible and cost effective especially in the small-scale accommodation and catering establishments and construction work (WTO 1981). The intensive use of indigenous materials in the construction of tourism facilities may also enhance the unique attractiveness to tourist.

National governments and international organisations should play an active role in the transfer and dissemination of new technologies in the field of tourism. The WTO (1988) made four recommendations for international technology transfer: (a) establishing appropriate institutional machinery for the transfer of new technologies; (b) establishing efficient

information networks; (c) choice of partners in the acquisition and utilisation of new technologies; and (d) improving contractual conditions and strengthening negotiating capabilities for the transfer of new technologies. It also recommends the following measures for the effective assimilation and development of new technologies at the national level. These are: creating awareness among national institutions; selecting the fields of application; improving education and vocational training; and stimulating and improving traditional technologies.

While the implications of technology is significant for the tourism industry, this has not yet been widely and fully appreciated. Management development and training is the key to implementing new techniques as many managers do not understand the nature and potential of technological progress (Gamble 1989) and there is still a reluctance or barriers of will of tourism executives to introduce new technology (Kiechel 1984; Whittaker 1987).

Tourism Development Requires Human Resource Development

Facing with increasing competition in the global tourism market, “human resource issues, such as staff turnover, recruitment, promotion and succession planning, motivation, rewards and benefits, and education and training have been widely identifies as critical concern for the tourism industries of both developing and developed countries” (Baum 1993:ix).

Human resource is the single most important resource of tourism development because through which the quality of a destination's tourism product, natural or fabricated, is "mediated" to the tourist.

At the macro level, due status and considerations should be given to the human resource issues within overall tourism policy and planning. Special measures should be adopted to tackle the important issues in the field, such as the shrinking employment pool and labour shortages, the tourism industry's image as an employer, working conditions in tourism, education and training opportunities provision, and the linking of human resources with service and product quality. In addition, proper measures should be adopted to address the issues of increasing numbers of part-time workers and the flexible working patterns in tourism, especially in the hotel and catering sector linked to the increased employment of women and the young.

At the micro level, with technology progress and the increase of the sophistication of the consumers, staff are going to have to be better trained than ever. With better trained staff tourist enterprises will have to provide proper rewards, benefits and compensation in order to recruit and retain qualified staff.

In developing countries in particular, one of the most important issues facing tourism development is the shortage of indigenous trained personnel. The adequate supply of local and national qualified staff, including skilled manual worker

and technical and managerial experts, can not only promote tourism growth generally but also facilitate the local community and the host nation in controlling the development process and reducing foreign exchange leakages.

9.4 FURTHER RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The study has briefly explored the extensive variety and complexity of environmental factors associated with tourism development. It has found that the tourism system is constantly influenced by various environmental variables, these including economic, political, social, cultural, demographic, natural, and technological, each has unique features in terms of the nature, the intensity and scale of effects on tourism, and the patterns of change.

An Assessment of the Current Study

A study of this type, designed to be an exploratory initiative and dealing with so many issues, is bound to have some omissions and inaccuracies. However, what may be missing in neat categories, elaborate model building, and sophisticated theorising can be compensated for by an enhanced ability to understand and appreciate the many environmental dimensions of tourism that determine or influence the operation and development of the industry.

The primary contribution of this study is that it has outlined an systems approach to tourism environmental analysis which appears to hold the greatest potential for the improvement of policy responsiveness and industry performance of tourism. There is, of course, no sense in which a study such as this can be definitive, rather it is indicative. The theory developed is also strongly linked at many points with previous theorising and empirical research on environmental changes and tourism development. Nevertheless, the fact remains that, despite its present limitations, both the frame of mind induced and the research prospects held out by systems analysis require that this approach must be seriously explored as a major methodological focus of tourism studies in the coming years.

A Wider Recognition of Systems Approach

The author is suggesting that this holistic and long-term approach to the analysis of environment is necessary if we are to advance understanding of these crucial and critical phenomena in tourism development though much research and development work is necessary before the full potentials of the approach can be realised.

However, in the past, the potential of a systems approach in contributing to a better understanding of tourism development has been largely ignored or overlooked. There have been a reluctance among the researchers in the field to adopt this approach as the main research method, partly due to their preoccupied emphasis on empirical studies at the micro-level

to resolve specific problems and partly due to the sheer complexity of the approach.

Systems analysis is normally conducted at four different but interrelated phases: the lexical phase, the parsing phase, the modelling phase, and the analysis base (Huggett 1980). In the field of tourism development and environmental studies, research remains to be conducted in all the above four phases. For example, the identification and classification of environmental variables, as indicated in this study, are not without problems. The relationship between the different components of the tourism systems and between the tourism system and its environment are not yet completely elucidated. Nevertheless, the priorities in the future should be at the later stages of systems analysis, namely, the building of tourism system models and the application of these models to practice to guide the actual development process.

Three Important Issues for Future Research

Rather than calling for more research on everything, i.e. an extension and replication, there seem to be three issues of particular interest to the present researcher because they are at the heart of a more generic study of tourism environment.

First, the interactions between the three environments of the tourism systems, that is, the internal, operating and macro environment, since without effective interaction, the development opportunities created by the external

environment will not be capitalised by the system. In order to achieve a greater and better understanding of the interactions between the three environments and the variables within them, multivariate techniques may be deployed to represent a logical mathematical development of regression-based analysis which permits simultaneous study of sets of interacting variables. Model building may be another way of examining these interaction as it could symbolise complex relationships into a simple and abstract but workable framework.

Secondly, a more rigorous effort to codify and quantify the various environmental factors is needed. The realm of measurement is particularly important in tourism studies. "An important part of the maturing process for any science is the development or adaptation of consistent and well-tested measurement techniques and methodologies which are well-suited to the types of problems encountered in practice" (Ritchie 1975). Without a reliable historical and ongoing quantitative account of tourism, its development as an area of study would be severely hampered.

It goes without saying that all of these environmental variables of tourism development are extremely difficult to conceptualise, let alone measure, in any clear and precise fashion. Yet, given the widespread belief that such variables are important, it is useful to attempt some quantification of such variables. Systems dynamics may be needed to construct large-scale computerised mathematical models to stimulate

the behaviour of the tourism system in response to changes in its internal and external environments.

Thirdly, there is an urgent need to improve the reliability and accuracy of environmental trends prediction and forecasting. Tourism forecasting is frequently unreliable as has been widely discussed in the literature (e.g., Athiyaman & Robertson 1992; Weber 1991; Witt 1992). The increasing turbulent environment requires tourism policy makers and practitioners to adopt a proactive approach in scanning, monitoring and managing the tourism environment. Without the proper identification and prediction of environmental changes, any proactive approach could be fruitless. As much of the value of studying the future comes in understanding the present, prediction and forecasting also force and help us to concentrate on what dynamic forces present today are shaping tomorrow (Powers 1993).

The multivariate nature of the factors affecting tourism development makes analysis very difficult and renders forecasts liable to various forms of error. This is particularly true in the case of long-term forecasts and in such cases it is important that the approach adopted should take into account the many economic, social, political, technological, and competitive factors which may affect the future development opportunities and capabilities of the tourism industry. Since the future is not predetermined, no forecast can guarantee complete accuracy. The aim of forecasting, therefore, is to predict the most probable changes which are likely to occur in

the light of known circumstances or, when alternative policies are proposed, to show what different levels of development may be achieved (Archer 1987).

Of course, our knowledge of how to predict and deal with environmental change in conceptual and technical terms is very limited. The richness of potential behaviour of environmental variables and its implications to tourism development, as the current study clearly illustrates, has not yet been properly identified, categorised, analysed and tested. Only after a large pool of systematically researched tourism environmental studies are available could researchers hope to search for the answers to the above three key issues and attempt to construct elaborated theoretical environmental models, a goal which may not be attained in the near future.

REFERENCES

- Abello, R.P.; Bernaldez, F.G. Galiano, E.F. [1986], "Consensus and contrast components in landscape preference", *Environment and Behaviour* 18(Mar):155-178.
- Abeyratne, R.I.R. [1993], "Air transport tax and its consequences on tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(3):450-460
- Abler, R. [1975], "Effects of space-adjusting technologies on the human geography of the future", in *Human Geography in A Shrinking World*, edited by R. Abler; D. Janelle; A. Philbrick & J. Sommer. North Scituate MA: Duxbury Press. pp.35-56.
- Abrams, M. [1975], "Trends in car ownership and leisure", in *The Management of Tourism: A Selection of Readings*, edited by A.J. Burhart & S. Medlik. London: Heinemann. pp.80-85.
- Adam, R. [1990], "A licence to steal? The growth and development of airline information systems", *Journal of Information Science* 16(2):77-91.
- Adams, G.R. & Schvaneveldt, J.D. [1985], *Understanding Research Methods*. New York & London: Longman.
- Adams, P.C. [1983], *Travel Literature and the Evolution of the Novel*. London: Harper & Row.
- Adler, J. [1989], "Origins of sightseeing", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(1):7-29.
- Aguilar, F.J. [1967], *Scanning the Business Environment*. New York: Macmillan.
- AHMA [1983], *The State of Technology in the Lodging Industry 1983*. East Lansing MI: Educational Institute of the AHMA.
- Ahmed, Z.U. [1991], "Indian tourism: a victim of mismanagement", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 32(3):75-83.
- AIEST [1984], *Tourism and the Architectural Heritage: Cultural, Legal, Economic and Marketing Aspects*. St. Gall, Switzerland: AIEST.
- AIEST [1987], *The Role and Impact of Mega-events and Attractions on Regional and National Tourism Development*. St. Gall, Switzerland: AIEST.

- AIEST [1990], *Requirements of Higher Level Education in Tourism*, St-Gall, Switzerland: AIEST.
- Airey, D. [1983], "European government approaches to tourism", *Tourism Management* 4(4):234-244.
- Akehurst, G.; Bland, N. & Nevin, M. [1993], "Tourism policies in the European Community member states", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 12(1):33-66.
- Alber, R.F. [1971], "Distance, intercommunications and geography", *Proceedings of the Association of American Geographers* 3:1-4.
- Albers, P.C. & James, W.R. [1988], "Travel photography: a methodological approach", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(1):134-158.
- Alcestis, O. [1983], "NASA's space hotel", *Science Digest*, April:58.
- Alfrey, J. & Putnam, T. [1992], *The Industry Heritage: Managing Resources and Uses*. London: Routledge.
- Allock, J.B. [1986], "Yugoslavia's tourist trade: pot of gold or pig in a poke?", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(4):565-588.
- Amir, Y. & Ben-Ari, R. [1985], "International tourism, ethnic contact, and attitude change", *Journal of Social Issues* 41(3):105-115.
- Anastasopoulos, P. [1991], "Demand for travel", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(4):663-666.
- Anderson, B.B. & Langmeyer, L. [1982], "Under-50 and over-50 travellers: a profile of similarities and differences", *Journal of Travel Research* 20(4):20-24.
- Anderson, J. [1986], "Nationalism and geography", in *The Rise of the Modern State*, edited by J. Anderson. Brighton: Wheatsheaf.
- Ankomah, P.K. & Crompton, J.L. [1992], "Tourism cognitive distance: a set of research propositions", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(2):323-342.
- Ankomah, P.K. [1991], "Tourist skilled labour: the case of Sub-Saharan Africa", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(3):433-442.
- Anolik, A. [1986], "Tourism monitor: terrorism threat", *Tourism Management* 7(3):219-221.
- Anolik, A. [1991], "Preventive legal care within international legal systems", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.223-230.

- Ansoff, H.I. [1981], *Strategic Management*. New York: Macmillan.
- Ansoff, T. [1987], *Corporate Strategy*. Revised edn. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Arbel, A. & Strebel, P. [1980], "Money illusion and inflation management in tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 7(3):395-405.
- Arbel, A. & Woods, R. H. [1991], "Inflation and hotels: the cost of following a faulty routine", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 31(4):66-75.
- Archdale, G. [1993], "Destination database", *Insights*, May, D29-D33. ETB.
- Archer, B.H. [1977], *Tourism Multipliers: The State of the Art*. Bangor Occasional Papers in Economics No.11. Bangor: University of Wales Press.
- Archer, B.H. [1982], "The value of multipliers and their policy implications", *Tourism Management* 3(4):236-241.
- Archer, B.H. [1987], "Demand forecasting and estimation", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley. pp.77-85.
- Archer, B.H. [1989], "Tourism and island economies: impact analysis", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.1, edited by C.P. Cooper. London: Belhaven Press. pp.125-134.
- Arefyev, V. & Mieczkowski, Z. [1991], "International tourism in the Soviet Union in the era of glasnost and perestroika", *Journal of Travel Research* 19(4):2-6.
- Arrhenius, E. & Waltz, T.W. [1990], *The Greenhouse Effect: Implications for Economic Development*, World Bank Discussion Paper 78. Washington DC: the World Bank.
- Artus, J.R. [1972], "An econometric analysis of international travel", *IMF Staff Papers* XIX (Nov):579-614.
- Ascher, B. & Edgell, D.L. [1986], "Barriers to international travel: removing restrictions to trade in service and tourism", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (Oct):3-13.
- Ascher, B. [1984], "Obstacles to international travel and tourism", *Journal of Travel Research* 22(3):2-16.
- Ascher, F. [1985], *Tourism: Transnational Corporations and Cultural Identities*. Paris: UNESCO.

- Ashby, W.R. [1966], *Design for a Brain*. London: John Wiley.
- Ashford, D. M. [1990], "Prospects for space tourism", *Tourism Management* 11(2):99-104.
- Ashworth, G. & Voogd, H. [1990], "Can places be sold for tourism?", in *Marketing Tourism Places*, edited by G. Ashworth & B. Goodall. London: Routledge. pp1-16.
- Ashworth, G. [1993], "Culture and tourism: conflictor symbiosis in Europe", in *Tourism in Europe: Structures and Developments*, edited by W. Pomple & P. Lavery. Oxon: CAB International. pp.13-35.
- Ashworth, G.J. & Goodall, B. eds. [1985], *The Impact of Tourist Development on Disadvantaged Regions*. Groningen: Geografisch Institute, Rijksuniversiteit.
- Ashworth, G.J. [1985], "The evaluation of urban tourist resources", in *The Impact of Tourist Development on Disadvantaged Regions*, edited by G.J. Ashworth & B. Goodall. Groningen: Geografisch Institute, Rijksuniversiteit. pp.37-44.
- Athiyaman, A. & Robertson, R.W. [1992], "Time series forecasting techniques: short-term planing in tourism", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 4(4):8-11.
- ATIA [1990], *Environmental Guidelines for Tourist Development*. Canberra: Australian Tourism Industry Association.
- Ayala, H. [1991], "Resort landscape systems: a design management solution", *Tourism Management* 12(4):280-290.
- Bailie, J.G. [1989], "International travel patterns", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. New York & London: Prentice-Hall. pp.231-234.
- Bairoch, P. & Levy-Leboyer, M. [1981], *Disparities in Economic Development since the Industrial Revolution*. London: Macmillan.
- Baretje, R. [1982], "Tourism's external account and the balance of payments", *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(1):57-67.
- Barker, M.L. [1982], "Traditional landscape and mass tourism in the Alps", *Geographical Review* 72(4):395-415.
- BarOn, R.R. [1975], *Seasonality in Tourism: A Guide to the Analysis of Seasonality and Trends for Policy Making*. London: EIU.
- Barraclough, G. [1979], *Main Trends in History*. New York: Holmes & Meier.

- Barrier, B. [1989], "International tourism today: a geographic approach", *GeoJournal* 19(3):251-255.
- Barucci, P. & Becheri, E. [1990], "Tourism as a resource for developing Southern Italy", *Tourism Management* 11(3):227-239.
- Bastin, R. [1984], "Small island tourism: development or dependency?", *Development Policy review* 2:79-90.
- Bates, E. S. [1911], *Touring in 1600: A Study in the Development of Travel as Means of Education*. London: Constable.
- Baum, T. ed. [1993], *Human Resource Issues in International Tourism*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Baumol, W.J. [1967], "Macroeconomics of unbalanced growth: the autonomy of urban crisis", *American Economic Review* LVII (June).
- Beaman, J. & Meis, S. [1987], "Managing the research function for effective policy formulation and decision making", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.35-43.
- Beaman, J. [1974], "Distance and the 'reaction' to distance as a function of distance", *Journal of Leisure research* 6(3):220-231.
- Bean, S. [1991], "Technology trends in the hospitality industry", *Bottomline* 6(4):10-11.
- Beaver, A. [1992], "Hotels CRS: an overview", *Tourism Management* 13(1):15-21.
- Becheri, E. [1989], "From thermalism to health tourism", *Tourist Review* 44(4):15-19.
- Becker, C. [1987], "Domestic tourism in FRG: trends and problems", *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(4):516-530.
- Becker, G. S. [1965], "A theory of the allocation of time", *Economic Journal* 75(299):493-517.
- Beckers, T. [1990], "Integrated leisure policies in advanced societies: the squaring of the circle", *World Leisure and Recreation* 32(2):5-9.
- Beioley, S. [1981], *Tourism and Urban Regeneration: Some Lessons from American Cities*. London: ETB.
- Bell, D. [1973], *The Coming of Post-Industrial Society: A Venture in Social Forecasting*. New York: Basic Books.

- Bello, D.C. & Etzel, M.J. [1985], "The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience", *Journal of Travel Research* 24(1):20-26.
- Bennett, M. & Radburn, M. [1991], "Information technology in tourism: the impact on the industry and supply of holidays", in *The Tourism Industry: An International Analysis*, edited by M.T.Sinclair & M.J.Stabler. Oxon: C.A.B International. pp.45-66.
- Bernard, M. [1987], "Leisure-rich and leisure-poor: leisure lifestyles among young adults", *Leisure Sciences* 10:131-149.
- Bernard, P.P. [1978], *Rush to the Alps: The Evolution of Vacationing in Switzerland*. New York: East European Quarterly.
- Bishop, P. [1988], *The Myth of Shangri-La: Tibet, Travel writing and the Western Creation of Sacred Landscape*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Blazey, M.A. [1992], "Travel and retirement status", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(4):771-783.
- Blois, K.J. [1987], "IT and marketing strategies in service firms", *Service Industries Journal* 7(1):14-23.
- Boberg, K.B. & Collison, F.M. [1985], "Computer reservation systems and airline competition", *Tourism Management* 6(3):174-183.
- Bockstael, N.; Strand, I.E. & Hanemann, W.M. [1987], "Time and the recreation demand model", *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 69(3):293-302.
- Bodlender, J. A. & Davies, E. J. G. [1984], *A Profile of Government Financial and Grant Aids in Tourism*. London: Horwarth & Horwarth International and Madrid: WTO.
- Boerjan, P. & Vanhove, N. [1984], "The tourism demand reconsidered in the context of the economic crisis", *Tourist Review* 38(2):2-11.
- Bond, D.; Cohen, B. & Schachter, G. [1977], "The spatial distribution of tourist demand and exchange rate variation: OECD European countries", *Tourist Review* 32(1):13-17.
- Boniface, B.G. & Cooper, C.P. [1987], *The Geography of Travel and Tourism*. London: Heinemann.
- Boo, E. [1990], *Ecotourism: The Potentials and Pitfalls, Vol.1; Country Case Studies, Vol.2*. Washington DC: World Wildlife Fund.
- Boorstin, D.J. [1973], *The Americans: The Democratic Experience*. New York: Random House.

- Booth, R. [1983], "Automation in the travel industry", *Tourism Management* 4(4):296-298.
- Bosiacki, S. [1989], "Tourism consumption versus level and quality of life", *Problems of Tourism* 12(1):38-45.
- Bosselman, F.P. [1978], *In the Wake of the Tourist: Managing Special Places in Eight Countries*. Washington DC: The Conservation Foundation.
- Bourassa, S.C. [1990], "A paradigm for landscape aesthetics", *Environment and Behaviour* 22(Nov):787-812.
- Bourdieu, P. [1984], *Distinction*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Bowen, J. [1990], "Electronic information: scanning the environment", *Hospitality Research Journal* 14(2):95-102.
- Bowen, J.T. & Clinton, D.N. [1988], "Expert systems: advisor on a disk", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 29(3):62-67.
- Bowen, J.T. & Nelson, R.A. [1989], "Image communication: integrating hospitality marketing and public relations", *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 13(3):259-266.
- Branham, P.; Henry, I.; Mommaas, H. & van der Poel, H. eds. [1989], *Leisure and Urban Processes: Critical Studies of Leisure Policy in Western European Cities*. London: Routledge.
- Britton, S. & Clarke, W.C. [1987], *Ambiguous Alternative: Tourism in Small Developing Countries*. Suva, Fiji: the University of South Pacific.
- Britton, S. [1987], "Tourism in Pacific Island states: constraints and opportunities", in *Ambiguous Alternative: Tourism in Small Developing Countries*, edited by S. Britton & W.C. Clarke. Suva, Fiji: University of the South Pacific. pp.113-139.
- Britton, S. [1991], "Tourism, capital, and place: towards a critical geography of tourism", *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space* 9(4):451-78.
- Britton, S.G. [1982], "The political economy of tourism in the Third World", *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(3):331-358.
- Broclawik, K. [1988], "Tourism in the light of 'system need conception'", *Problems of Tourism* 11(2):17-23.
- Brotherson, F., Jr. [1993], "The sociopolitical implications of tourism development in Guyana", in *Tourism Marketing and Management in the Caribbean*, edited by D.J. Gayle & J.N. Goodrich. London: Routledge.

- Browett, J.G. [1979], "Development, the diffusionist paradigm and geography", *Progress in Human Geography* 4:57-79.
- Brown, G. [1992], "Tourism and symbolic consumption", in *Choice and Demand in Tourism*, edited by P. Johnson & B. Thomas. London: Mansell. pp.57-72.
- Brown, J. [1992], "The impact of the recession on attendances at major visitor attractions", *Insights (ETB)* September:A.55-62.
- Brown, J. & Church, A. [1987], "Theme parks in Europe: riding high in the 1980s", *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, Feb:35-45.
- Bruce, M. & Kahn, H. [1989], "Effects of new technology on job motivation and job design of travel agent employees", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho, London: Prentice Hall. pp.123-126.
- Bruce, M. [1983], "Information technology: changes in the travel trade", *Tourism Management* 4(4):290-295.
- Bruce, M. [1987], "New technology and the future of tourism", *Tourism Management* 8(2):115-120.
- Bruce, M. [1989], "Technological change and competitive marketing strategies", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. London: Prentice Hall. pp.455-458.
- Bruce, M. [1991], "New technology and the future of tourism", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.243-251.
- Bryan, W.R. [1981], "Improved mileage, discretionary income and travel for pleasure", *Journal of Travel Research* 20(1):28-29.
- Bryden, J.M. [1973], *Tourism and Development: A Case Study of the Commonwealth Caribbean*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bryson, R.A. [1974], "Perspective on climatic change", *Science* 184:753-760.
- BTA [1980], *Britain's Historic Buildings: A Policy for Their Future Use*. London: BTA.
- BTA [1983], *In Britain: Literary Heritage*. London: BTA.
- BTA/ETB [1988], *Retired Peoples and Holidays: The Market for Holidays Amongst Retired People*. London: BTA/ETB.

- BTA/ETB [1990], *Tourism and the European Community*. London: BTA/ETB.
- BTA/ETB [1991], *Overseas Visitor Survey*. London: BTA/ETB.
- Buck, M. [1988], "The role of travel agent and tour operator", in *Marketing in the Tourism Industry: The Promotion of Destination Regions*, edited by B. Goodall & G. Ashworth. London & New York: Croom Helm. pp.67-74.
- Buckley, P.J. & Klemm, M. [1993], "The decline of tourism in Northern Ireland", *Tourism Management* 14(3):184-194.
- Buckley, P.J. & Witt, S.F. [1985], "Tourism in difficult areas: case studies of Bradford, Bristol, Glasgow and Hamm", *Tourism Management* 6(3):205-213.
- Buckley, P.J. & Witt, S.F. [1989], "Tourism in difficult areas (II): case studies of Calderdale, Leeds, Manchester and Scunthorpe", *Tourism Management* 10(2):138-152.
- Buckley, P.J. & Witt, S.F. [1990], "Tourism in the centrally-planned economies of Europe", *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(1):7-18.
- Buergermeister, J. & van Loenen, D. [1990], "Computer hardware and software for controlling restaurant operations", *Hospitality Research Journal* 14(2):35-46.
- Bugnicourt, J. [1977], "The new colonialism: tourism with no return", *Development Forum* 5(5):1-2.
- Bunce, V. (1981), *Do New Leaders Make a Difference? —Executive Succession and Public Policy under Capitalism and Socialism*. Princeton NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Burkart, A.J. & Medlik, S. eds. [1981], *Tourism: Past, Present and Future*, 2nd edn. London: Heinemann.
- Burkart, A.J. & Medlik, S. [1990], *Historical Development of Tourism*. Aix-en-Provence: Centre des Hautes Etudes Touristiques.
- Burkart, A.J. [1975], "The role of the large tour operator in the development and promotion of tourism", in *The Management of Tourism: A Selection of Readings*, edited by A.J. Burkart & S. Medlik. London: Heinemann. pp.120-127.
- Business Age [1993], "Would any sane man invest in the packaging holiday industry?", *Business Age* (Feb):23.
- Butler, R.W. & Wall, G. [1985], "Themes in research on the evolution of tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(3):287-296.

- Butler, R.W. [1980], "The concept of a tourism area cycle of evolution: implications for management of resources", *Canadian Geographer* 24(1):5-12.
- Butler, R.W. [1986], "Literature as an influence in shaping the image of tourist destinations: a review and case study", in *Canadian Studies of Parks, Recreation and Tourism in Foreign Lands*, edited by J.S. Marsh. Peterborough. Ontario: Trent University Press. pp.111-132.
- Butler, R.W. [1990], "Alternative tourism: pious hope or trojan horse?", *Journal of Travel Research* 28(3):40-45.
- Button, K. [1993], "International interdependencies between the deregulation of domestic service industries: a case study of aviation in North America", *The Service Industries Journal* 13(3):55-73.
- Bystrzanowski, J. ed. [1989], *Tourism as a Factor of Change: A Sociocultural Study*. Vienna: European Coordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences.
- Bywater, M. [1994], "Religious travel in Europe", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 2:39-52.
- Cahill, J.J. [1986], *Hotel and Restaurant International*. Netwton MA: A Cahnes Publication.
- Cameron, C. [1989], "Cultural tourism and urban revitalization", *Tourism Recreation Research* 14(1):23-32.
- Campbell, C. [1987], *The Romantic Ethic and the Spirit of Modern Consumerism*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Campbell, J. [1993], "Endless gaming thrives in Atlantic City", *Hotel and Motel Management* 208(14):28, 35.
- Capella, L.M. & Greco, A.J. [1987], "Information sources of elderly for vacation decisions", *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(1):148-151.
- Carlson, A.A. [1977], "On the possibility of quantifying scenic beauty", *Landscape Planning* 4:131-172.
- Cater, E. & Goodall, B. [1992], "Must tourism destroy its resource base?", in *Environmental Issues in the 1990s*, edited by A.M. Mannion & S. Bowlby. Chichester: Wiley. pp.309-323.
- Cater, E. [1993], "Ecotourism in the Third World: problems for sustainable tourism development", *Tourism Management* 14(2):85-90.
- Cater, E.A. [1987], "Tourism in the least developed countries", *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(2):202-226.

- Cazes, G.H. [1989], "Alternative tourism: reflections on an ambiguous concept", in *Towards Appropriate Tourism: The Case of Developing Countries*, edited by T.V. Singh; H.L. Theuns & F.M. Go. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang Publishing. pp.117-126.
- CEC (Commission of the European Communities) (1985), *The Tourism Sector in the Community: A Study of Concentration, Competition and Competitiveness*. Luxembourg: Office of Official Publications of the European Communities.
- CEC [1988], *Package Travel: Protection for the Consumer*. London: Commission of the EC.
- Chacko, H.E. & Nebel, E.C.,III [1990], "Qualitative research: its time has come", *Hospitality Research Journal* 14(2):383-392.
- Chadwick, G. [1971], *A System View of Planning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Chadwick, R.A. [1987], "Concepts, definitions and measures used in travel and tourism research", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley. pp.47-61.
- Chanarasekar, V. & Dev, C. S. [1989], "A framework for analysing technology and structure in the lodging industry", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 8(3):237-245.
- Chandler, A. [1962], *Strategy and Structure*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chant, C. ed. [1989], *Science, Technology and Everyday Life, 1870-1950*, London: Routledge.
- Chappell, H. [1993], "Thrills in a theme park of the Gods", *Independent*, 21 March 1993.
- Chenery, H.B. & Srinivasan, T.N. eds. [1989], *Handbook of Development Economics*, 2 Vols. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers.
- Chervenak, L. [1991], "CRS: the past, the present, the future", *Lodging* 16(10): 25-26, 28.
- Chesney-Lind, M. & Lind, I.Y. [1986], "Visitors as victims: crimes against tourists in Hawaii", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(2):167-191.
- Child, J. [1972], "Organizational structure, the environment and performance", *Sociology* 6:1-22.
- Chisholm, M.D.L. [1975], *Human Geography: Education or Evolution?*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

- Chow, W.S. [1988], "Open policy and tourism between Guangdong and Hong Kong", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(2):205-218.
- Christaller, W. [1966], *Central Places in Southern Germany*, originally published in 1933. C.W. Baskin Trans. Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Christensen, C.; Andrews, K.; Bower, J.; Hamermesh, R. & Porter, M.E. [1982], *Business Policy: Text and Casrs*. Homewood IL: Irwin.
- Chubin, S. [1991], "Third World conflicts: trends and prospects", *International Social Science Journal* 127:147-161.
- Churchman, C.W. [1971], *The Design of Inquiring Systems*. New York: Basic Books.
- Clark, C. [1940], *The Conditions of Economic Progress*. London: Macmillan.
- Clarke, J. & Critcher, C. [1985], *The Devil Makes Work: Leisure in Capitalist Britain*. London: Macmillan.
- Cleere, H. [1989], *Archaeological Heritage Management in the Modern World*. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Cleverdon, R. [1979], *The Economic and Social Impact of International Tourism on Developing Countries*. London: EIU.
- Coates, J.F. [1991], "Tourism and the environment: realities of the 1990s", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.66-71.
- Cockerell, N. [1987a], "Car tourism in Europe", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (Oct):31-42.
- Cockerell, N. [1987b], "Credit cards, cash and travel vouchers in Europe: how the Europeans pay their way", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (Sept):33-46.
- Cockerell, N. [1990], "The changing role of international travel and tourism organizations", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 5:79-92.
- Cockerell, N. [1993], "Europe's senior travel market", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4:37-56.
- Cohen E. [1979], "The impact of tourism on the Hill Tribes of northern Thailand", *Internationales Asienforum* 10(1/2):5-38.
- Cohen, E. & Cooper, R. [1986], "Language and tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(4):533-563.

- Cohen, E. [1972], "Toward a sociology of international tourism", *Social Research* 39:164-182.
- Cohen, E. [1984], "The sociology of tourism: approaches, issues and findings", *Annual Review of Sociology* 10:373-392.
- Cohen, E. [1989], "'Primitive and remote': hill tribe trekking in Thailand", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(1):30-61.
- Cohen, S. & Taylor, L. [1976], *Escape Attempts: The Theory and Practice of Resistance to Everyday Life*. London: Penguin Books.
- Collier, D. [1991], "Expansion and development of central reservation systems", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.252-256.
- Collins, R. [1984], "Statistics versus words", in *Sociology Theory*, edited by R. Collins. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Coltman, M.M. [1989], *Introduction to Travel and Tourism: An International Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Commonwealth Secretariat [1989], *Climate Change, Meeting the Challenge: A Report by a Commonwealth Group of Experts*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Conant, J.S.; Clark, T.; Burnett, J.J. & Zank, G. [1988], "Terrorism and travel: managing the unmanageable", *Journal of Travel Research* 26(4):16-20.
- Conner, K.A. & Breltena, G.L. [1979], "The four-day workweek: an assessment of its effects on leisure participation", *Leisure Sciences* 2(1):55-69.
- Connors, M. [1992], *The Race to the Intelligence State: Towards the Global Information Economy of 2005*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Conzen, M.P. ed. [1990], *The Making of the American Landscape*. Boston: Unwin Hyman.
- Cook, R.L. & McCleary, K.W. [1983], "Redefining vacation distances in consumer minds", *Journal of Travel Research* 22(2):31-34.
- Cook, S.D. & Frechtling, D.C. [1976], "The changing costs of travel in the United States", *Journal of Travel Research* 14(3):1-5.
- Cooke, K. [1982], "Guidelines for socially appropriate tourism development in British Columbia", *Journal of Travel research* 21(1):22-28.
- Coombs, R. & Green, K. [1981], "Microelectronics and the future of service employment", *Service Industries Journal* 1(2):4-20.

- Cooper, C. [1992], "The life cycle concept and tourism", in *Choice and Demand in Tourism*, edited by P. Johnson & B. Thomas. London: Mansell. pp.145-160.
- Cooper, C.P. ed. [1991], *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.3. London & New York: Belhaven Press.
- Corsi, T. & Harvey, M. [1979], "Changes in vacation travel in response to motor fuel shortages and higher prices", *Journal of Travel Research* 17(4):7-11.
- Cosenza, R.M. & Davis, D.L. [1981], "Family vacation decision making over the family life cycle", *Journal of Travel Research* 20(2):17-23.
- Cosgrove, D. [1984], *Social Formation and Symbolic Landscape*. London: Croom Helm.
- Cossons, N. [1989], "Heritage tourism: trends and tribulations", *Tourism Management* 10(3):192-194.
- Coulter, P. [1975], *Social Mobilisation and Liberal Democracy*. Lexington MA: Lexington,
- Courtenay, P.P. [1985], "Geography and development", in *Geographical Studies of Development*, edited by P.P. Courtenay. Harlow: Longman.pp.1-44.
- Craik, K.H. [1972], "Appraising the objectivity of landscape dimensions", in *Natural Environments: Studies in Theoretical and Applied Analysis*, edited by J.V. Krutilla. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press. pp.292-346.
- Craik, K.H. [1972], "Psychological factors in landscape appraisal", *Environment and Behaviour* 4:255-266.
- Critchley, M. [1992], *Competition and Structural Change in the UK Travel Industry During the 1980's and into the 1990's*. PhD Dissertation, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow.
- Crompton, J. [1979], "Motivations for pleasure vacation", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4):408-424.
- Cross, G. [1990], *A Social History of Leisure Since 1600*. State College PA: Venture Publishing.
- Crotts, J.C. [1990], "Towards an understanding of the novelty seeking drive in pleasure travelers", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 9(3):56-60.
- Crouch, G.I. [1991], "Expert computer systems in tourism: emerging possibilities", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(3):3-10.

- Crouch, G.I. [1992], "Effect of income and price on international tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(4):643-644.
- Crowe, R.B. [1975], "Recreation, tourism and climate: a Canadian perspective", *Weather* 30(8):248-254.
- CSO (Central Statistical Office, UK) [1992], *Social Trends 1992*. London: HMSO.
- CTRC [1984], *The Contribution of Tourism to Economic Growth and Development in the Caribbean*. Barbados: CTRC.
- CTRI (Canadian Tourism Research Institute) [1989], *The Impact of a Frontier-Free Europe on Canada's Tourism Industry*. Ottawa: Tourism Canada.
- Cullen, R. [1988], "Paying for travel: a dynamic market", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 1:65-79.
- Cunneen, C. & Lynch, R. [1988], "The social meanings of conflict in riots at the Australian Grand Prix Motorcycle Races", *Leisure Studies* 7(1):1-19.
- Cunningham, H. [1980], *Leisure in the Industrial Revolution: circa 1780-circa1880*. London: Croom Helm.
- Curry, S. [1978], "The integration of developed countries and underdeveloped countries through tourism", *Africa Development* 3(3):29-50.
- Curry, S. [1990], "Tourism development in Tanzania", *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(1):133-149.
- D'Amore, L.J. & Anuza, T.E. [1986], "International terrorism: implications and challenges for global tourism", *Business Quarterly* (Nov):20-29.
- D'Amore, L.J. [1983], "Guidelines to planning in harmony with the host community", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.135-159.
- D'Amore, L.J. [1991], "Sustainable tourism development in the Third World", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.170-172.
- Dann, G.; Nash, D. & Pearce, P. [1988], "Methodology in tourism research", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(1):1-28.
- Dare, B.; Welton, G. & Coe, W. [1988], *Concepts of Leisure in Western Thought: A Critical Review and Historical Analysis*. Dubuque IA: Kendall/Hunt.

- Daskalakis, G. [1984], "Tourism and the architectural heritage: cultural aspects", in AIEST (1984), *Tourism and the Architectural Heritage*. St. Gall: AIEST.
- Dave, U. [1983], "Book review: Chuck Y. Gee's *Resort Development and Management*", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):447-448.
- Davidson, R. [1992], *Tourism in Europe*. London: Pitman.
- Davies, M. [1990], "Wildlife as a tourism attraction", *Environments* 20(3):74-77.
- Davies, O. [1985], "Space tourists", *Omni Nov*:30-32.
- Davis, H.D. & Simmons, J.A. [1982], "World Bank experience with tourism projects", *Tourism management* 3(4):212-217.
- de Coster, L. [1990], "Paying for travel: the role of Eurocheque", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 1:54-67.
- de Kadt, E. [1979], *Tourism: Passport to Development?*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- de Rooij, N. [1986], "Mature market in Europe: forecasts for holiday taking by the over 55 to 2000", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (May):17-27.
- Dearden, P. [1980], "A statistical technique for the evaluation of the visual quality of the landscape for land-use planning purposes", *Journal of Environmental Management* 10:51-68.
- Dearden, P. [1983], "Tourism and the resource base", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.75-93.
- Dernoi, L.A. [1981], "Alternative tourism: towards a new style in North-South relations", *Tourism Management* 2(4):253-264.
- Devas, E. [1990], *The UK Tourist Outbound: A Market Profile*. London: Tourism Planning and Research Associates.
- Dicken, P. & Lloyd, P.E. [1981], *Modern Western Society: A Geographical Perspective on Work, Home and Wellbeing*. London: Harper & Row.
- Dicken, P. & Lloyd, P.E. [1990], *Location in Space: Theoretical Perspectives in Economic Geography*, 3rd edn. New York: Happer & Row Publishers.
- Dicken, P. [1986], *Global Shift: Industrial Change in a Turbulent World*. London: Harper & Row.

- Dieke, P.U.C. [1991], "Policies for tourism development in Kenya", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(2):269-294.
- Din, K.H. [1988], "Economic implications of Muslim pilgrimage from Malaysia", *Contemporary Southeast Asia* 4(1):58-72.
- Din, K.H. [1989], "Islam and tourism: patterns, issues and options", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(4):542-563.
- Dodd, P. [1986], "Englishness and the national culture", in *Englishness: Politics and Culture 1880-1920*, edited by R. Colls & P. Dodd. London: Croom Helm.
- DOE [1989a], *Environment in Trust: Air Quality*. London: Department of the Environment.
- DOE [1989b], *Global Climate Change*. Department of the Environment in association with the Meteorological Office. London: HMSO.
- Doeleman, J.A. [1990], "On the economic valuation of marine wilderness", in *Proceedings of the 1990 Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism*, edited by M.L. Miller & J. Auyong, Honolulu, Hawaii, 25-31 May 1990. pp.413-421.
- Dornbusch, R. & Poterba, J.M. eds. [1991], *Global Warming: Economic Policy Responses*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Doxey, G.V. [1976], "When enough's enough: the natives are restless in old Niagara", *Heritage Canada* 2(2):26-27.
- Doxey, G.V. [1983], "Leisure, tourism and Canada's aging population", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.57-72.
- Dresner, M.E. [1989], *The International Regulation of Air Transport: Changing Regimes and Price Effects*. PhD thesis, The University of British Columbia.
- Drucker, P.F. [1992a], *Post-Capitalist Society*. New York: Harper Business.
- Drucker, P.F. [1992b], "The new society of organisations", *Harvard Business Review*, Sep-Oct: 95-104.
- 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.
- Duffus, D.A. & Dearden, P. [1990], "Non-consumptive wildlife-oriented recreation: a conceptual framework", *Biological Conservation* 53(3):213-231.

- Dunn, R.E.L. & Iso-Ahola, S.E. [1991], "Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(2):226-37.
- Durocher, J.F. & Niman, N.B. [1990], "Technology: antidote to the shakeout", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 31(1):34-38.
- Durst, P.B. & Ingram, C.D. [1988], "Nature-orientated tourism promotion by developing countries", *Tourism Management* 9(1):39-43.
- Dwivedi, S.N. & Bhatt, V.S. [1990], "Sea level rise and global climate change: science and technology action to mitigate the adverse effect of sea level rise", in M.L. Miller & J. Auyong eds., *Proceedings of the 1990 Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism*, Honolulu, Hawaii, 25-31 May 1990. pp.266-271.
- Eadington, W.R. & Redman, M. [1991], "Economics and Tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(1):41-57.
- Eadington, W.R. [1976], *Gambling and Society*. Springfield IL: Thomas.
- Earl, M.J. [1989], *Management Strategies for Information Technology*, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Eco, U. [1986], *Travels in Hyper-Reality*. London: Picador.
- Economist, The [1992], "Defence in the 21st century: meet your unbrave new world", *The Economist*, September 5th, pp.3-5.
- Edgell, D.L. [1985], *International Trade in Tourism: A Manual for Managers and Executives*. Washington DC: USTTA.
- Edgell, D.L. [1988], "Barriers to international travel", *Tourism Management* 9(1):63-66.
- Edgell, D.L. [1990], *International Tourism Policy: An Agenda for Managers and Executives*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Edgett, S. & Parkinson, S. [1993], "Marketing for service industries: a review", *The Service Industries Journal* 13(3):19-39.
- Edwards, A. [1985], *International Tourism Forecasts to 1995*. London: EIU.
- Edwards, A. [1987], *Choosing Holiday destinations: The Impact of Exchange Rates and Inflation*. London: EIU.
- Edwards, A. [1988], *International Tourism Forecasts to 1999*, London: EIU.
- Edwards, A. [1990], "Changes in real air fares and their impact on travel", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 2:76-85.

- Edwards, J.A. [1989], "Historic sites and their local environments", in *Heritage Sites: Strategies for Marketing and Development*, edited by D.T. Herbert; R.C. Prentice & C.J. Thomas. Aldershot: Avebury. pp.272-293.
- Edwards, R.A. [1991], "Are robots in your hotel's future?", *Bottomline* 6(4):20-23.
- Eickelman, D.F. & Piscatori, J. eds. [1990], *Muslim Travellers: Pilgrimage, Migration and the Religious Imagination*. London: Routledge.
- EIU [1985], "Madagascar", *International Tourism Quarterly*. No.1.
- EIU [1993], "The European Community's tourism development programmes", *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, No.5.
- EIU [1994], "The impact of political unrest and security concerns on international tourism", *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, No.2.
- Eleftheriadis, N.; Tsalikidis, I. & Manos, B. [1990], "Coastal landscape preference evaluation: a comparison among tourists in Greece", *Environmental Management* 14(4):475-487.
- Emery, F. & Trist, E. [1965], "The causal texture of organisational environments", *Human Relations* 18(Aug):124-151.
- Enders, W. & Sandler, T. [1981], "Causality between transnational terrorism and tourism: the case of Spain", *Terrorism* 14(1):49-58.
- Enghagen, L.K. & Hott, D.D. [1992], "Students' perceptions of ethical issues in the hospitality and tourism industry", *Hospitality Research Journal* 15(2):41-50.
- England, R. [1980], "Architecture for tourists", *International Social Science Journal* 32(1):47-55.
- English, E.P. [1986], *The Great Escape? An Examination of North-South Tourism*. Ottawa: The North-South Institute.
- Enloe, C. [1989], *Bananas, Beaches and Bases: Making Sense of International politics*. Berkeley CA: University of California Press.
- Erbes, R. [1973], *International Tourism and the Economy of Developing Countries*. Paris: OECD.
- Erisman, H.M. [1983], "Tourism and cultural dependency in the West Indies", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):337-361.
- Erka, M. [1971]. "Tourism: the locomotive of development", *World Travel* 104.

- Eskow, D. [1986], "Space city", *Popular Mechanics*, June:27-30.
- Ethridge, F.M. [1983], "Everydaylife conditions and travel orientations", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(4):572-575.
- Everest, D. [1988], *The Greenhouse Effect: Issues for Policy makers*. London: Joint Energy Programme. London: Royal Institute of International Affairs and Policy Studies Institute.
- Ewert, A. & Hollenhorst, S. [1990], "Risking it on wildlands: evolution of adventure recreation", *Journal of Environmental Education* 21(3):29-35.
- Ewing, R.C. [1989], "Industrial museums in Scotland: development and prospects", *Scottish Geographical Magazine* 105(3):178-181.
- Fagence, M. [1990], "Geographically-referenced planning strategies to resolve potential conflict between environmental values and commercial interests in tourism development in environmentally sensitive areas", *Journal of Environmental Management* 31(1):1-18.
- Fahey, L.; King, W.R. & Narayanan, V.K. [1981], "Environmental scanning and forecasting in strategic planning—the state of the art", *Long Range Planning* 14(1):32-39.
- Falade, J.B. [1990], "Falling value of the naira: implications for tourism planning in Nigeria", *Tourism Management* 11(3):240-246.
- Farrell, B.H. [1979], "Tourism' human conflicts: cases from the Pacific", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(2):122-36.
- Featherstone, M. [1990], *Global Culture: Nationalism, Globalisation and Modernity*. Newbury Park CA: Sage.
- Fedler, A.J. & Iso-Ahola, S.E. eds. [1984], *Interrelationships of Leisure, Recreation and Tourism*, Special Issue. *Annals of Tourism Research* 14(3).
- Feierabend, I.K. & Feierabend, R.L. [1966], "Aggressive behaviour in politics 1948-62: a cross-national study", *Journal of Conflict Resolution* Fall:249-271.
- Feifer, M. [1985], *Going Places: The Ways of the Tourist from Imperial Rome to the Present Day*. London: Macmillan.
- Fein, C.S. [1983], "Teleconferencing and its effects on business travel", *Tourism Management* 4(4):279-289.
- Feldman, J. [1987], "CRS in the USA: determining future levels of airline competition", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (Sept):3-14.

- Feldman, J. [1989], "The growth of international travel service companies", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 2:56-69.
- Ferkiss, V. [1977], *Futurology: Promise, Performance, Prospects*. Washington DC: Georgetown University.
- Finn, D. [1984], *The Employment Effects of the New Technologies: A Review of the Arguments*. London: Unemployment Unit.
- Finney, B.R. & Watson, K.A. eds. [1977], *A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific*, 2nd edn. Honolulu HI: East-West Center.
- Fish, M. & Edwards, L. [1989], "Shadow trading by international tourists in the Soviet Union", *Journal of Criminal Justice* 17(5):417-421.
- Fish, M. [1984], "Deterring sex sales to international tourists: a case study of Thailand, South Korea and the Philippines", *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice* 8(2):175-186.
- Fisher, A.G. [1935], *The Clash of Progress Security*. London: Macmillan.
- Fleming, W.R. & Toepper, L. [1990], "Economic impact studies: relating the positive and negative impacts to tourism development", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(1):35-42.
- Fletcher, J.E. & Snee, H. [1989], "Tourism multiplier effects", in *Tourism marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall. pp.529-531.
- Fletcher, J.E. [1989], "Input-output analysis and tourism impact studies", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(4):514-529.
- Fletcher, K. [1990], *Marketing Management and Information Technology*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Fodness, D. [1992], "The impact of family life cycle on the vacation decision-making process", *Journal of Travel Research* 31(2):8-13.
- Forbes, R.J. [1987], "The US mature market for travel", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (Nov):37-45.
- Forrester, J.W. [1971], *World Dynamics*. Cambridge MA: Wright Allen.
- Foster, P. [1990], "The retail travel shop", in *Horwath Book of Tourism*, edited by M. Quest. London: Macmillan. pp.145-152.

- Foster-Carter, A. [1976], "From Rostow to Gunder Frank: conflicting paradigms in the analysis of underdevelopment", *World Development* 4(3):167-80.
- Fox, K.M. [1991], "Environmental ethics and the future of parks and recreation", *Recreation Canada* 49(2):28-31.
- Francisco, R. [1983], "The political impact of tourism dependence in Latin America", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):363-376.
- Frazer, P. [1985], *Plastic and Electronic Money: New Payment Systems and Their Implications*. Cambridge: Woodhead-Faulkner.
- Frechtling, D.C. [1991], "Key issues in the US travel industry futures", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.82-93.
- Frechtling, D.C. [1987], "Assessing the impacts of travel and tourism: introduction to travel impact estimation", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.325-332.
- Freeman, C. [1974], *The Economics of Industrial Innovation*. Hammondswoth: Penguin.
- Freeman, C. [1986], "The role of technical change in national economic development", in *Technological Changes, Industrial Restructuring and Regional Development*, edited by A.Amin & J. Goddard. London: Alen & Unwin. pp.100-111.
- French, T. [1992], "The Europeam Commission's Third Air Transport Liberalisation Package", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 5:5-22.
- Friedmann, J. & Alonso, W. [1964], *Regional Development and Planning*. Cambridge MA: The MIT Press.
- Friedmann, J. [1973], *Urbanisation, Planning, and National Development*. Newbury Park CA: Sage.
- Fujii, E.T. & Mak, J. [1980], "Tourism and crime: implications for regional development policy", *Regional Studies* 14(1):27-36.
- Furnham, A. [1984], "Tourism and culture shock", *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(1):41-57.
- Gabbay, R. [1988], "Tourism in the Indian Ocean island-states", in *Indian Ocean Islands Development*, edited by R. Appleyard & R. Ghosh. Canberra: Australia National University. pp.205-226.
- Gamble, P.R. (1991), "Developing effective computer systems for tourism", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.257-265.

- Gamble, P.R. [1989a], "Automation in the hospitality industry", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. London: Prentice Hall. pp.16-21.
- Gamble, P.R. [1989b], "New developments in computer technology and their application to the hospitality industry", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management Vol.1*, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.223-231.
- Gastil, R. [1989], *Freedom in the World*. New York: Freedom House.
- Gatrell, A. [1983], *Distance and Space: A Geographical Perspective*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Gattas, J.; Roberts, K.; Schnitz-Scherzer, R.; Tokarski, W. & Vitanyi, Y. [1986], "Leisure and life-styles: towards a research agenda", *Society and Leisure* 9(2):529-539.
- Gauldie, R. [1988], "1992 and the European travel industry", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 3:66-78.
- Gearing, C.E.; Swart, W.W. & Var, T. [1976], *Planning for Tourism Development: Quantitative Approaches*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Gee, C.Y.; Choy, D.J.L. & Makens, J.C. [1989], *The Travel Industry*. Westport CT: AVI Publishing Company.
- Geertz, C. [1973], "Religion as a cultural system", in *The Interpretation of Culture: Selected Essays*, edited by C. Geertz. New York: Basic Books. pp.87-125.
- Gerschenkron, A. [1962], *Economic Backwardness in Historical Perspective*. Cambridge MA: Belknap.
- Gershuny, J.I. [1978], *After Industrial Society? The Emerging Self-Service Economy*. London: Longman.
- Getz, D. [1991], *Festivals, Special Events and Tourism*, New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Gharajedaghi, J. & Ackoff, R.L. [1986], *A Prologue to National Development Planning*. Westport CT: Greenwood Press.
- Gibbons, J.D. & Fish, M. [1985], "Devaluation and US tourism expenditure in Mexico", *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(4):547-561.
- Gibbons, J.D. & Fish, M. [1991], "Real exchange rate indexes applied to Mexico's international tourism receipts", *Social and Economic Studies* 40(3):177-185.

- Gilbert, D.C. & Soni, S. [1991], "UK tour operators and consumer responsiveness", *The Service Industries Journal* 11(4):413-424.
- Gilbert, D.C. [1990], "Conceptual issues in the meaning of tourism", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.II, edited by C.P. Cooper. London: Belhaven. pp.4-27.
- Gilg, A.W. [1991], "Switzerland: structural change within stability", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.130-152.
- Gillen, D.W.; Oum, T.H. & Tretheway, M.W. [1990], "Airline cost structure and policy implications", *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy* 24(1):9-34.
- Gillespie, A.E. & Hepworth, M.E. [1988], *Telecommunications and Regional Development in the Information Society*. The University of Newcastle upon Tyne, Newcastle Studies of the Information Economy, Working paper No.1.
- Gitelson, R.J. & Kerstetter, D. [1990], "The relationship between sociodemographic variables, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behaviour: a case study", *Journal of Travel Research* 28(3):24-29.
- Glew, G. [1989], "Developments in food technology", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management* Vol.1, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.176-194.
- Glyptis, S. [1984], "Leisure life styles: gateway or cul-de-sac?", in *Leisure, Tourism and Social Change*, edited by J. Long & R. Hecock. Edinburgh: Centre for Leisure Research. pp.189-203.
- Glyptis, S.A. & Ritchie, J.R.B. [1990], "Tourism and transnationalism", *Tourism Management* 11(4):287-290.
- Glyptis, S.A. [1991], "Sport and tourism", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.3, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.165-183.
- Go, F.M. [1992], "The role of computerised reservation systems in the hospitality industry", *Tourism Management* 13(1):22-26.
- Goddard, J. & Thwaites, A.T. [1987], "Technological change", in *Industrial Change in the UK*, edited by W.F. Lever. Harlow: Longman. pp.96-107.
- Goddard, J. [1980], "Technology forecasting in a spatial context", *Futures* 12:90-105.
- Gold, J.R. [1991], "Fishing in muddy waters: communications media, homeworking and the electronic cottage", in *Collapsing Space*

and Time: Geographical Aspects of Communications and Information, edited by S.D. Brunn & T.R. Leinbach. London: Harper Collins Academic. pp.327-341.

- Goldblatt, J. J. [1990], *Special Events: The Arts and Science of Celebration*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Goodrich, J.N. & Goodrich, G.E. [1991], "Health-care tourism", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.107-114.
- Gormsen, E. [1985], "Tourism and socio-economic patterns in Third World countries", in *The Impact of Tourism on Regional Development and Cultural Change*, edited by E. Gormsen. Mainz: Johannes Gutenberg-Universitat. pp.15-24.
- Graburn, N.H H. & Jafari, J. eds [1991], *Tourism Social Science*, special issue. *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(1).
- Graburn, N.H.H. [1983], "Tourism and prostitution", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):437-442.
- Graff, J.R. [1986], "The future of amusement parks and attraction industry", *Tourism Management* 7(1):60-62.
- Gray, H.P. [1970], *International Travel--International Trade*, Lexington MA: Heath Lexington Books.
- Gray, H.P. [1974], "Towards an economic analysis of tourism policy", *Social and Economic Studies* 23(3):386-397.
- Gray, H.P. [1982], "The contributions of economics to tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(1):105-125.
- Green, F.B. [1978], "Recreation vehicles: a perspective", *Annals of Tourism Research* 5(4):429-439.
- Green, H. & Hunter, C. [1992], "The environmental impact assessment of tourism development", in *Perspectives on Tourism Policy*, edited by P. Johnson & B. Thomas. London: Mansell. pp.29-48.
- Green, R.H. [1979], "Towards planning tourism in African countries", in *Tourism—Passport to Development?*, edited by E. de Kadt, New York: Oxford University Press. pp.79-100.
- Greenwood, D.J. [1989], "Culture by the pound: an anthropological perspective on tourism as cultural commoditization", in *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*, 2nd edn., edited by V.L. Smith. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. pp.171-186.
- Gregory, D. [1981], "Accessibility", in *The Dictionary of Human Geography*, edited by R.J. Johnstone. Oxford: Basic Blackwell.

- Griffin, K. [1989], *Alternative Strategies for Economic Development*, New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Grilli, E.R. & Yang, M.C. [1988], "Primary commodity prices, manufactured goods prices, and the terms of trade of developing countries: what the long run shows", *World Bank Economic Review* 2(1):1-47.
- Grinstein, A. [1955], "Vacations: a psycho-analytic study", *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis* 36(3):177-185.
- Guitart, C. [1982], "UK charter flight package holidays to the Mediterranean, 1970-1978: a statistical analysis", *Tourism Management* 3(1):16-39.
- Gunadhi, H. & Boey, C.K. [1986], "Demand elasticities of tourism in Singapore", *Tourism Management* 7(4):239-253.
- Gunn, C.A. [1987], "Environmental design and land use", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.229-246.
- Gunn, C.A. [1988], *Tourism Planning*, 2nd edn. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Gunn, C.A. [1989], *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Gwilliam, K.M. & Mackie, P.J. [1975], *Economics and Transport Policy*. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- Haggett, P. [1983], *Geography: A Modern Synthesis*. London: Harper & Row.
- Hakin, C. [1987], *Research Design: Strategies and Choices in the Design of Social Research*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Hall, C.M. (1992), "Sex tourism in South-east Asia", in *Tourism and the Less Developed Countries*, edited by D. Harrison. London: Belhaven Press. pp.64-74.
- Hall, C.M. [1989], "The politics of hallmark events", in *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events*, edited by G.J. Syme; G.J. Shaw; D.M. Fenton & W.S. Mueller. Brookfield MO: Avebury.
- Hall, D.R. [1991], *Tourism and Economic Development in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union*. London: Belhaven Press.
- Hall, S.S.J. ed. [1992], *Ethics in Hospitality Management*. East Lansing MI: Educational Institute of the AHMA.

- Halshall, D. [1992], "Transport for tourism and recreation", in *Modern Transport Geography*, edited by B.S. Hoyle & R.D. Knowles. London: Belhaven. pp.155-177.
- Hambrick, D.C. [1982], "Environmental scanning and organisational strategy", *Strategic Management Journal* 18(2):159-174.
- Hamilton, G.A. [1989], "The continuing legacy of the 1986 Tax Reform Act: more surprises in the hospitality industry in 1989", *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 13(3):103-110.
- Hammitt, W.E. & Madden, M.A. [1989], "Cognitive dimensions of wilderness privacy: a field test and further explanation", *Leisure Sciences* 11(4):293-301.
- Handszuh, H. [1992], "Trade in tourism services under the Uruguay Round", *Tourism Management* 13 (3):263-266.
- Hanefors, M. & Larsson, L. [1993], "Video strategies used by tour operators: what is really communicated?", *Tourism Management* 14(1):27-33.
- Hanna, M. [1984], *English Churches and Visitors*. London: ETB.
- Hansen, J. [1988], "Global climate changes: a forecast by Goddard Institute for space studies three-dimensional model", *Journal of Geophysical Research* 93.
- Harries, K.D. & Norris, R.E. [1986], *Human Geography: Culture, Interaction, and Economy*. Columbus OH: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Harrigan, N. [1974], "The legacy of Caribbean history and tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 2(1):13-25.
- Harris, N. [1968], *Beliefs in Society: The Problem of Ideology*, C.A. Watts.
- Harrison, D. [1988], *The Sociology of Modernization and Development*, London: Unwin Hyman.
- Harrison, D. [1992], "Tourism to less developed countries: the social consequences", in *Tourism and the Less Developed Countries*, edited by D. Harrison. London: Belhaven Press. pp.19-34.
- Haulot, A. [1981], "Social tourism: current dimensions and future developments", *Tourism Management* 2(3):207-212.
- Hawes, D.K. [1988], "Travel-related lifestyle profile of older women", *Journal of Travel Research* 27(2):22-32.

- Hawkins, A. [1986], "The discovery of rural England", in *Englishness: Politics and Culture 1880-1920*, edited by R. Colls & P. Dodd. London: Croom Helm.
- Hay, A. [1985], "The impact of subsidized low-fare public transport on travel behaviour", *Environment and Planning* 4(2):233-246.
- Haywood, K.M. [1990], "A strategic approach to managing technology", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.31-38.
- Healey, M.J. & Ilbery, B.W. [1990], *Location and Change: Perspectives on Economic Geography*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hembry, P. [1989], *The English Spa 1560-1815: A Social History*. London: Athlone Press.
- Henry, I.P. [1993], *The Politics of Leisure Policy*. London: Macmillan.
- Heraty, M.J. [1989], "Tourism transport: implications for developing countries", *Tourism Management* 10(4):288-292.
- Hiemstra, S.J. & Ismail, J.A. [1992], "Occupancy taxes: no free lunch", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 33(5):84-89.
- Hijirida, K. & Iwamura, S. [1986], "Languages for travel industry managers: focus on Japanese", *Foreign Language Annals* 19(1):19-24.
- Hill, B.J.; McDonald, C. & Uysal, M. [1990], "Resort motivations for different family life cycle stages", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 8(4):18-27.
- Hinch, T.D. [1990], "Cuban tourism industry: its re-emergence and future", *Tourism Management* 11(3):214-226.
- Hindley, G. [1983], *Tourists, Travellers and Pilgrims*. London: Hutchinson.
- Hirschmann, A.O. [1958], *The Strategy of Economic Development*. New Haven CT: Yale University Press.
- Hitchins, F. [1991], "The influence of technology on UK travel agents", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 3:88-105.
- Hoare, A.G. [1991], "Transport, trade and tourism", in *Economic Activity and Land Use: The Changing Information Base for Local and Regional Studies*, edited by M.J. Healey. Harlow: Longman. pp.411-443.
- Hobsbawm, E.J. [1987], *The Age of Empire, 1875-1914*. London: Guild.

- Hobsbawn, E. & Ranger, T. eds. [1983], *The Invention of Tradition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hobson, P. [1990], "Visitor welcome programmes: a positive step in helping to promote cross socio-cultural relations", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 9(1):15-27.
- Hofer, C. & Schendel, D. [1978], *Strategy Formulation: Analytical Concepts*. St Paul MI: West.
- Hofstede, G. [1980], *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Workrelated Values*. Beverley Hills CA: Sage.
- Hoivik, T. & Heiberg, T. [1980], "Centre-periphery tourism and self-reliance", *International Social Science Journal* 32(1):69-98.
- Holcomb, N. [1991], "Socio-spatial implications of electronic cottages", in *Collapsing Space and Time: Geographic Aspects of Communications and Information*, edited by S.D. Brunn & T.R. Leinbach. London: Harper Collins Academic. pp.342-353.
- Holden, J. [1989], "Commercial and consumer law in tourism", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho, Lonton: Prentice Hall. pp.47-51.
- Holden, P.; Horlemann, J. & Fafflin, P. eds. [1985], *Tourism, Prostitution, Development: Documentation*. Bangkok: ECTWT.
- Holder, J.S. [1991], "Pattern and impact of tourism on the environment of the Caribbean", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.278-285.
- Holding, D. [1989], "Continental coach holidays after 1980", in *Travel and Tourism*, edited by P. Callaghan. Sunderland: Business Education Publishers. pp.243-244.
- Hollier, R. [1991], "Conflict in the Gulf: response of the tourism industry", *Tourism Management* 12(1):2-4.
- Holloway, J.C. [1989], *The Business of Tourism*, 3rd edn. London: Pitman.
- Hooley, G.L.; Brooksbank, P.J. & Shephard, J. [1988], "Strategic market environments", *Journal of Marketing Management* 4(2):131-147.
- Hoos, I.R. [1972], *Systems Analysis in Public Policy: A Critique*. Berkeley CA: University of California Press.
- Hoppe, P.R. & Seidl, H.A.J. [1991], "Problems in the assessment of the bioclimate for vacationists at the seaside", *International Journal of Biometeorology* 35(2):107-110.

- Horowitz, D. [1985], *The Morality of Spending*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
- Horwath International [1992]. *Worldwide Hotel Industry 1992*. New York: Horwath International.
- Hoskins, W.G. [1965], *The Making of the English Landscape*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Howells, J. & Green, A.E. [1986], "Location, technology and industrial organisation in UK services", *Progress in Planning* 26:83-184.
- Hruschka, H. & Mazanec, J. [1990], "Computer-assisted travel counseling", *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(2):208-227.
- Hudman, L.E. & Hawkins, D.E. [1989], *Tourism in Contemporary Society: An Introductory Text*. Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hudman, L.E. [1979], "Origin regions of international tourism", in *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation, Vol.II*, edited by K.A. Sinnhuber & F. Julg. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt. pp.43-49.
- Huggett, R. [1980], *Systems Analysis in Geography*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Hughes, H.L. [1987], "Culture as a tourist resources: a theoretical consideration", *Tourism Management* 8(3):205-216.
- Hughes, M. & Rowley, L. eds. [1986], *The Management and Presentation of Field Monuments*. Oxford: Oxford University, Department off External Studies.
- Hunnicut, B.K. [1988], *Work Without End: Abandoning Shorter Hours for the Right to Work*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Hunt, J. [1989], "Foreign investment in China's hotel sector", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 3:17-32.
- Hunt, J.D. & Layne, D. [1991], "Evolution of travel and tourism terminology and definitions", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(4):7-11.
- Hurdle, G.J. et al [1990], "Concentration, potential entry, and performance in the airline industry", *Journal of Industrial Economics* 38(2):119-139.
- Husbands, W. [1981], "Centres, peripheries, tourism and socio-spatial development", *Ontario Geography* 17(1):37-59.
- Husbands, W. [1989], "Social status and perception of tourism in Zambia", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2):237-53.

- Husbands, W.C. [1986], "Periphery resort tourism and tourist-resident stress: an example from Barbados", *Leisure Studies* 5:175-188.
- Imarn, M. & Barnes, P. [1990], "Energy demand in the developing countries: prospects for the future", World Bank Staff Commodity Working Paper 23, Washington DC: the World Bank.
- IMF [1991a], *World Economic Outlook: May 1991*. Washington DC: IMF.
- IMF [1991b], *World Economic Outlook: October 1991*. Washington DC: IMF.
- IMF [1992], *World Economic Outlook: May 1992*. Washington DC: IMF.
- IMS [1988], *Productivity in the Leisure Industry*. London: Institute of Management Studies.
- Isard, W. [1956], *Location and Space-Economy*, Cambridge: MIT Press.
- ITQ [1975], "The changing patterns of British tourism in response to the economic crisis", *International Tourism Quarterly* 2:50-65.
- Iyomasa, M.A. [1983], "Analysis of nonimmigrant visa waiver legislation in the USA", *Tourism Management* 4(2):102-106.
- Jackle, J.A. [1985], *The Tourist: Travel in Twentieth-Century North America*. Lincoln NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Jackowski, A. [1990], "Pilgrimages in Poland versus pilgrimages in the world", *Problems of Tourism* 13(1/2):53-64.
- Jacobson, S.K. [1989], "Mass media and park management: reaching the public beyond the park boundary", *Environmentalist* 9(2):131-137.
- Jafari, J. [1974a], "The socio-economic costs of tourism to developing countries", *Annals of Tourism Research* 1(2):227-259.
- Jafari, J. [1974b], "The components and nature of tourism: the tourist market basket of goods and services", *Annals of Tourism Research* 1(3):73-90.
- Jafari, J. [1979], "The tourism market basket of goods and services: the components and nature of tourism", *Tourism Recreation Research* 4(2):1-8.
- Jafari, J. [1983], "Understanding the structure of tourism", in *Tourism and Culture: A Comparative Perspective*, edited by E.C. Nebel. University of New Orleans. pp.65-84.
- Jafari, J. [1986], "Tourism for whom? Old questions still echoing", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(1):129-137.

- Jafari, J. [1987], "The tourism system: sociocultural models for theoretical and practical application", *Problems of Tourism* 10(3):3-17.
- Jafari, J. [1989], "Sociocultural dimensions of tourism: an English language literature review", *Tourism as a Factor of Change: A Sociocultural Study*, edited by J. Bystrzanowski. Vienna: European Coordination Centre for Research and Documentation in Social Sciences. pp.17-60.
- Jafari, J. [1990], "Research and scholarship: the basis of tourism education", *Journal of Tourism Studies* 1:33-41.
- Jagusiewicz, A. [1990], "Poland's cultural attractiveness for ethnic tourism", *Problems of Tourism* 13(1/2):3-10.
- Jainarain, I. [1976], *Trade and Underdevelopment: A Study of the Small Caribbean Countries and Large Multinational Corporations*. Guyana: University of Guyana.
- Janelle, D.G. [1968], "Central planned development in a time-space framework", *Professional Geographer* 20:5-10.
- Janelle, G.D. [1969], "Spatial reorganisation: a model and concept", *Annals of Association of American Geographers* 59:348-364.
- Jansen-Verbeke, M.C. [1986], "Inner-city tourism: resources, tourists and promoters", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(1):79-100.
- Javalgi, R.G.; Thomas, E.G. & Rao, S.R. [1992], "Consumer behaviour in the US pleasure travel marketplace: an analysis of senior and nonsenior travellers", *Journal of Travel Research* 31(2):14-19.
- Jemiolo, J.J. & Conway, D. [1991], "Tourism, air service provision and patterns of Caribbean airline offer", *Social and Economic Studies* 40(2):1-43.
- Jenelle, D.G. [1991], "Global interdependence and its consequences", in *Collapsing Space and Time: Geographical Aspects of Communications and Information*, edited by S.D. Brunn & T.R. Leinbach. London: Harper Collins Academic. pp.49-81.
- Jenkins, C.L. [1980], "Tourism policies in developing countries: a critique", *Tourism Management* 1(1):22-29.
- Jenkins, C.L. [1982a], "The effects of scale in tourism projects in developing countries", *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(2):229-249.
- Jenkins, C.L. [1982b], "The use of investment incentives for tourism projects in developing countries", *Tourism Management* 3(2):91-97.

- Jenkins, C.L. [1990], "Tourism: is future demand changing?", in Horwath Book of Tourism, edited by M. Quest. London: Macmillan. pp.46-55.
- Jenkins, C.L. [1991a], "Tourism development strategies", in Developing Tourism Destinations: Policies and Perspectives, by L.J. Lickorish. Harlow: Longman. pp.61-78.
- Jenkins, C.L. [1991b], "Tourism policies in developing countries", in Managing Tourism, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.269-277.
- Jenkins, C.L. & Henry, B.M. [1982], "Government involvement in tourism in developing countries", Annals of Tourism Research 9(4):499-521.
- Johnson, P. & Thomas, B. [1992], "Tourism research and policy: an overview", in Perspectives on Tourism Policy, edited by P. Johnson & B. Thomas. London: Mansell. pp.1-14.
- Johnson, R. [1986], "The story so far and further transformation?", Introduction to Contemporary Cultural Studies, edited by D. Punter. London: Longman. pp.277-313.
- Jones, S.G. [1986], Workers at Play: A Social and Economic History of Leisure, 1918-39. London: Routledge.
- Jussawalla, M. et al [1978], T₃: Transportation/ Telecommunications/ Trade-offs. Honolulu HI: East-West Communications Institute.
- Kamp, B.D.; Crompton, J.L. & Hensarling, D.M. [1979], "The reactions of travelers to gasoline rationing and to increases in gasoline prices", Journal of Travel Research 18(1):37-41.
- Kaplan, R. & Herbert, E.J. [1987], "Cultural and sub-cultural comparisons in preferences for national settings", Landscape and Urban Planning 14:281-293.
- Kasavana, M.L. & Cahill, J. [1987], Managing Computer Systems in the Hospitality Industry. New York: CBI Publishing.
- Kaspar, C. [1989], "Systems approach in tourism: the Saint Gall Management Model", in Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice-Hall International. pp.443-446.
- Kates, R.W.; Ausubel, J.H. & Berberian, M. eds. [1985], Climate Impact Assessment: Studies of the Interaction of Climate and Society. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kaul, R.N. [1985], Dynamics of Tourism: A Trilogy. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.

- Kaynak, E. & Venkataraman, K. [1992], "Expert systems in international marketing", *Journal of Information Technology* 7(4):245-259.
- Kellert, S.R. [1984], "Urban American perceptions of animals and the natural environment", *Urban Ecology* (B):209-228.
- Kennedy, C.R., Jr. [1987], *Political Risk Management: International Lending and Investing under Environmental Uncertainty*. New York: Quorum Books.
- Kennedy, P. [1989], *The Rise and Fall of the Great Powers: Economic Change and Military Conflict form 1500 to 2000*. New York: Vintage Books/Randam House.
- Kerr, C.; Dunlop, J.T.; Harbison, F.H. & Myers, C.A. [1973], *Industrialism and Industrial Man*, 2nd edn., Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Keynes, J.M. [1926], *The End of Laissez-Faire*, London: Hogarth.
- Kiechel, W. [1984], "To compute and not to compute: why executives don't", *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 25(2):9-11.
- Kirchner, E. [1993], "A third level of government: Britain in the European Community", in *The Developing British Political Systems: The 1990s*, 3rd edn., edited by I. Budge & D. McKay. London & New York: Longman. pp.171-190.
- Kirk, D. [1989], "Advances in catering technology", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management Vol.1*, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.232-241.
- Klarin, P. [1990], "Coastal management policies for a changing environment" adaptive strategies for preserving coastal natural resources and protecting development", in *Proceedings of the 1990 Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism*, edited by M.L. Miller & J. Auyong, Honolulu, Hawaii, May. pp.236-247.
- Knelman, F.H. [1990], "The tourist as citizen diplomat", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 8(4):35-52.
- Kotler, P. [1972], "What consumerism means for marketers", *Harvard Business Review* May/June:48-57.
- Kotler, P. [1984], *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, and Control*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Krakover, S. [1985], "Development of tourism resort areas in arid regions", in *Desert Development: Man and Technology in Sparse-lands*, edited by Y. Gradus. Dordrecht: D Reidel. pp.271-284.

- Kraskiewicz, K. [1990], "The ethnic tourism in Poland", *Problems of Tourism* 13(1/2):11-16.
- Krippendorf, J. [1986], "The new tourist: turning point for leisure and travel", *Tourism Management* 7(2):131-135.
- Krippendorf, J. [1987], *The Holiday Makers: Understanding the Impact of Leisure and Travel*. London: Heinemann.
- Krippendorf, J. [1991], "Towards new tourism policies", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.307-317.
- Krueger, A.O. [1992], "Global trade prospects for the developing countries", *The World Economy* 15(4):457-474.
- Krugman, P.R. & Obstfeld, M. [1991], *International Economics: Theory and Policy*, 4th edn.. New York: Harper Collins Publishers.
- Kupfer, A. [1992], "Prime time for videoconferences", *Fortune International* 126(4):64-67.
- Kurent, H.P. [1991], "Tourism in the 1990s: threats and opportunities", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.78-82.
- Kushman, J. et al [1980], "Political systems and international travel", *Social Science Quarterly* 60(4):604-615.
- Kuznets, S. [1966], *Modern Economic Growth: Rate, Structure and Spread*. New Haven CT: Yale University Press.
- Kwack, S.Y. [1972], "Effects of income and prices on travel spending abroad, 1960III-1967IV", *International Economic Review* 13(2):245-256.
- Latham, D. [1990], "Old buildings never die", *Leisure Management* 10(12):31-33.
- Latimer, H. [1985], "Developing-island economies: tourism vs. agriculture", *Tourism Management* 6(1):32-42.
- Lattin, T.W. [1990], "Hotel technology: key to survival", in *Horwath Book of Tourism*, edited by M. Quest. London: Macmillan. pp.219-224.
- Lau, L. & Klein, L. [1990], *Models of Development*. San Francisco: ICS Press.
- Lavery, P. [1991], "European community 1992: European perspective", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.91-93.

- Law, C.M. [1992], "Urban tourism and its contribution to economic regeneration", *Urban Studies* 29(May):599-618.
- Lawson, F.R. & Baud-Bovy, M. [1977], *Tourism and Recreation Development: A Handbook of physical Planning*. London: The Architectural Press.
- Lawson, R. [1991], "Patterns of tourist expenditure and types of vacation across the family life cycle", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(4):12-18.
- Lawton, L.J. & Butler, R.W. [1987], "Cruise ship industry: patterns in the Caribbean 1880-1986", *Tourism Management* 8(4):329-343.
- Lea, J. [1988], *Tourism and Development in the Third World*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Lee, A.H. [1989], "The relationship between malignant melanoma of skin and exposure to sunlight", *Photochemistry and Photobiology* 50(4):493-496.
- Lee, J.R. & Malek, A. [1991], "Multilateral trade negotiations and the tourist industry", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.210-212.
- Lee, R.L. [1977], *The Tourist Industry in Yucatan: A Case Study in the Interaction between Class Structure and Economic Development*, PhD thesis. University of California (Irvine).
- Lee, T.H. & Crompton, J. [1992], "Measuring novelty seeking in tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(4):732-751.
- Lee, W. [1991], "Prostitution and tourism in South-East Asia", in *Working Women: International Perspectives on Gender and Labour Ideology*, edited by N. Redclift & M.T. Sinclair. London & New York: Routledge. pp.79-103.
- Leed, E.J. [1991], *The Mind of the Traveler: From Gilgamesh to Global Tourism*. New York: Basic Books.
- Leiper, N [1979], "The framework of tourism: towards a definition of tourism, tourist and the tourist industry", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4):390-407.
- Leiper, N. [1989], "Main destination ratios: analysis of tourist flows", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(4):530-541.
- Leiper, N. [1990], *Tourism Systems: An Interdisciplinary Perspective*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Massey University, Department of Management Systems. Occasional Paper No.2. pp.1-40.

- Leisure Consultants [1982], *Leisure and Work: the Choices for 1991 and 2001*. Sudbury, Suffolk: Leisure Consultants.
- Leontidou, L. [1991], "Greece: prospects and contradictions of tourism in the 1980s", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.84-106.
- Leslie, D. [1990], "Land use policy and tourism in Northern Ireland", *Landuse Policy* 7(1):2-6.
- Leslie, D. [1991], "Trends in centralized reservation systems", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.139-140.
- Levine, M.E. [1990], "How can the nonliberalized survive in a liberalizing air transport world", *ITA Magazine* 60:3-8.
- Levitt, T. [1962], *Innovation in Marketing*. New York: MacGraw Hill.
- Levitt, T. [1975], "Marketing myopia", *Harvard Business Review*, Sept-Oct.
- Levitt, T. [1976], "The industrialisation of services", *Harvard Business Review* Sept.
- Levitt, T. [1983], "The Globalisation of Markets. New commercial reality: the emergence of global markets for standardised consumer products on a previously unimagined scale", *Harvard Business Review*, May-June.
- Lew, A.A. [1987], "The history, policies and social impact of international tourism in the People's Republic of China", *Asian Profile* 15(2):117-128.
- Lewis, J. & Williams, A.M. [1991], "Portugal: market segmentation and regional specialisation", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn, edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.107-129.
- Lewis, N. D. [1989], *AIDS and Tourism: Implications for Pacific Island States*. Honolulu HI: Pacific Islands Development Programme, East-West Centre.
- Libicki, B. [1989], "Concept of social tourism", *Problems of Tourism* 12(2):5-13.
- Lickorish, L.J. [1990], "Tourism facing change", in *Horwath Book of Tourism*, edited by M. Quest. London: Macmillan. pp.108-127.
- Lickorish, L.J. [1991], "European tourism 1992", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.71-81.

- Light, N.; Young, H. & Youngs, A. [1987], "A qualitative survey of the use of chilled vending machines as a means of food service in the UK", *Food Science and Technology Today* 1(4):247-251.
- Lillywhite, M. & Lillywhite, L. [1991], "Low impact tourism", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.162-169.
- Lindburg, K. [1991], *Nature Tourism as an Agent for Sustainable Development*. New York: World Resources Institute.
- Lindsay, P. [1992], "CRS supply and demand", *Tourism Management* 13(1):11-14.
- Linton, D.L. [1968], "The assessment of scenery as a natural resource", *Scottish Geographical Magazine* 4:219-238.
- Lockwood, A. & Guerrier, Y. [1989], "Flexible working in the hospitality industry: current strategies and future potential", *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 1(1):11-16.
- Lodge, G.C. & Vegal, E.F. eds. [1987], *Ideology and National Competitiveness: An Analysis of Nine Countries*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Loeb, P.D. [1982], "International travel to the United States: an econometric evaluation", *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(1):7-20.
- Long, D. [1979], *The Hijj Today: A Survey of the Contemporary Pilgrimage to Makkah*. Albany NY: State University of New York Press.
- Loomis, J.P. [1987], *High Speed Commercial Flight: The Coming Era*. Columbus OH: Battelle.
- Lowe, J.C. & Moryadas, S. [1975], *The Geography of Movement*. London: Houghton Mifflin.
- Lowenthal, D. [1985], *The Past is a Foreign Country*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lowing, G. [1990], "The European coach/bus holiday market", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 6:5-16.
- Lucas, R.E. [1993], "The Social Charter — opportunity or threat to employment practice in the U.K. hospitality industry?", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 12(1):89-100.
- Lue, C.C.; Crompton, J.L. & Fesenmaier, D.R. [1993], "Conceptualisation of multidestination pleasure trips", *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(2):289-301.

- Lyon, P. & Mogendorff, D. [1991], "Grey labour for fast food?", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 10(1):25-34.
- MacAloon, J. [1984], "Olympic Games and the theory of spectacle in modern societies", in *Rite, Drama, Festivals, Spectacle: Rehearsals Towards a Theory of Cultural Performance*, edited by J. MacAloon. Philadelphia: Institute for the Study of Human Issues. pp.241-280.
- MacCannell, D. [1976], *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. London: Macmillan.
- Maceda, E. [1963], "Marketing in a developing economy", *Marketing Horizons* 2(5):15-28.
- Mackie, V. [1992], "Japan and South-east Asia: the international division of labour and leisure", in *Tourism and the Less Developed Countries*, edited by D. Harrison. London: Belhaven Press. pp.75-84.
- Magnay, K. [1987], "Aircraft technology in the 1990s: boosting air travel demand through cost savings", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (June):49-60.
- Maiden, S. [1986], "Oil prices and air travel: impact of lower oil prices on airline fares, operations and the market place", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (July):5-17.
- Mak, J. [1988], "Taxing hotel room rentals in the US", *Journal of Travel Research* 27(1):10-15.
- Mandeville, T. [1983], "The spatial effects of information technology", *Futures* 15:65-72.
- Mansfield, E. [1968], *The Economics of Technical Change*. New York: W. W. Norton.
- Martin, B. & Mason, S. [1987], "Current trends in leisure", *Leisure Studies* 6:93-97.
- Martin, V. & Inglis, M. eds. [1984], *Wilderness: The Way Ahead*, Forres, Scotland: Findhorn Press and Middleton WI: Lorian Press.
- Marton, K. [1986], "Technological transfer to developing countries via multinationals", *The World Economy*, December.
- Mather, A.S. [1986], *Land Use*. Harlow: Longman.
- Mathieson, A. & Wall, G [1982], *Tourism: Economic, Physical and social Impacts*. London and New York: Longman.

- Matthews, H. [1983], "On tourism and political science", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):303-305.
- Matthews, H.G. [1978], *International Tourism: A Political and Social Analysis*. Cambridge MA: Schenkman Publishing Company.
- Mayo, E.J. & Jarvis, L.P. [1986], "Objective distance vs subjective distance and the attraction of the far off destination", in *Proceedings of the Academy of Marketing Sciences Conference*, Cleveland State University, Ohio. edited by W.B. Joseph.
- Mayo, E.J. Jr. & Jarvis, L.P. [1981], *The Psychology of Leisure Travel: Effective marketing and Selling of Travel Services*. Boston: CBI Publishing Co.
- Mazanec, J.A. & Zins, A.H. [1994], "Tourist behaviour and the new European life style typology", in *Global Tourism: The Next Decade*, edited by W.F. Theobald. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.199-216.
- McCloskey, J. M. & Spalding, H. [1987], *A Reconnaissance-Level Inventory of the Wilderness Remaining in the World*. Sierra Club.
- McElroy, J.L. & de Albuquerque, K. [1986], "The tourism demonstration effect in the Caribbean", *Journal of Travel Research* 25(2):31-34.
- McFarlan, F.W. [1984], "Information technology changes the way you compete", *Harvard Business Review* 62:98-103.
- McGahey, S. [1991], "South Korea outbound", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 6:45-62.
- McGuffie, J. [1990], "CRS development and the hotel sector (I) & (II)", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 1:29-41 & 2:18-36.
- McGuffie, J. [1994], "CRS development in the hotel sector", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 2:53-68.
- McIntosh, R.W. & Goeldner, C.R. [1986; 1990], *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, 5th & 6th edn. New York: John Wiley.
- McIntyre, G. [1993], *Sustainable Tourism Development: Guide for Local Planners*. Madrid: WTO.
- McKercher, B. [1993], "The unrecognised threat to tourism: can tourism survive 'sustainability'?", *Tourism Management* 14(2):131-136.
- McLuhan, M. [1969], *Counter Blast*. Harcourt, Brace & World Inc.

- McNeely, J.A. [1990], "The future of national parks", *Environment* 32(1):21-40.
- McNulty, R.W. [1985], "Revitalising industrial cities through cultural tourism", *International Journal of Environmental Studies* (A) 25(4):225-229.
- McPhail, T.L. [1981], *Electronic Colonialism: The Future of International Broadcasting and Communication*. Beverley Hills CA: Sage.
- Mead, W.E. [1972], *The Grand Tour in the Eighteenth century*. New York: Benjamin Blom.
- Medlik, S. [1987], *Tourism and Productivity*. London: BTA/ETB.
- Meinung, A. [1989], "Determinants of the attractiveness of a tourism region", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. London: Prentice Hall. pp.99-101.
- Melamid, A. [1978], "Geographical constraints on tourist development in small mid-sea islands", in *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation, Vol.I*, edited by K.A. Sinnhuber & F. Julg. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt. pp.121-125.
- Menck, W. [1991], "No easy road to instant wealth: tourism in Africa", *Development and Cooperation* 3:28-29.
- Meyer, W. [1988], *Beyond the Mask: Toward a Transdisciplinary Approach of Selected Social Problems Related to the Evolution and Context of International Tourism in Thailand*. Saarbrucken, Fort Lauderdale: Verlag Breitenbach Publishers.
- Meyrowitz, J. [1985], *No Sense of Place: The Impact of Electronic Media on Social Behaviour*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Miccariello, C. [1982], "Teleconferencing: the state of the art", *Incentive Travel Manager* (May):34-49.
- Michie, D.A. [1986], "Family travel behaviour and its implications for tourism management: an international study", *Tourism Management* 7(1):8-20.
- Middleton, V.T.C. (1988), *Marketing in Travel and Tourism*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Mieczkowski, Z.T. [1978], "The place of geography of tourism and recreation in the system of geography and in the field of leisure research", in *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation, Vol.I*, edited by K.A. Sinnhuber & F. Julg. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt. pp.87-94.

- Mieczkowski, Z.T. [1985], "The tourism climatic index: a method of evaluating world climates for tourism", *Canadian Geographer* 29(3):220-233.
- Miles, I. [1988], *Home Informatics*. London: Frances Pinter.
- Miles, R. & Snow, C. [1978], *Organisational Strategy, Structure and Process*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Mill, R.C. & Morrison, A.M. [1985], *The Tourism System: An Introductory Text*. Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Mill, R.C. [1990], *Tourism: The International Business*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Millar, S. [1991], "Heritage management for heritage tourism", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.115-121.
- Miller, B.J. & Cottrell, C.A. [1990], "Vacations in the sun: can they survive the effects of global ozone depletion", in M.L. Miller & J. Auyong eds., *Proceedings of the 1990 Congress on Coastal and Marine Tourism*, Honolulu, Hawaii, May. pp.264-265.
- Miller, G.T. [1991], *Environmental Science: Sustaining the Earth*, 3rd edn. Belmont CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.
- Miller, G.T. [1992], *Living in the Environment: An Introduction to Environment Science*, 7th edn. Belmont CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.
- Milman, A.; Reichel, A. & Pizam, A. [1990], "The impact of tourism on ethnic attitudes: the Israeli-Egyptian case", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(2):45-49.
- Milne, S. [1992], "Tourism and development in South Pacific microstates", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(2):191-212.
- Mings, R.C. [1988], "Assessing the contribution of tourism to international understanding", *Journal of Travel Research* 27(2):33-38.
- Mintel [1991], "Overseas tourism and the over 55s", *Leisure Intelligence* 3:1-24.
- Mintzberg, H. & Quinn, J.B. [1991], *The Strategy Process: Concepts, Contexts, Cases*, 2nd edn. London: Prentice-Hall International.
- Mitchell, B. [1989], *Geography and Resource Analysis*, 2nd edn. Harlow: Longman Scientific & Technical.
- Mitchell, L. [1984], "A geographic analysis of leisure activities: a life-cycle case study", in *Leisure, Tourism and Social Change*, edited

by J. Long & R. Hecock. Edinburgh: Centre for Leisure Research. pp.35-41.

Mitchell, L.S. & Murphy, P.E. [1991], "Geography and tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(1):57-70.

Mitchell, L.S. [1984], "Tourism research in the United States: a geographical perspective", *GeoJournal* 9(1):5-15.

Mitchell, L.S. [1987], "Research on the geography of tourism", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.191-202.

Mitchell, L.S. [1979], "The geography of tourism: an introduction", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(3):235-244.

MMC (Monopolies and Merger Commission) [1986], *Foreign Package Holidays: A Report by the Monopolies and Mergers Commission*. London: HMSO.

MMC (Monopolies and Merger Commission) [1989], *Thomson Travel Group and Horizon Travel Ltd, A Report on the Merger Situation*. London: HMSO.

Moeran, B. [1983], "The language of Japanese tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(1):93-108.

Molz, R. [1990], "Privatization in developing countries", *Columbia Journal of World Business* 25(1/2):17-24.

Mooney, M. [1991], "Historic sites as tourist attractions—harnessing the romance of the past: preservation, tourism and history", *The Public Historian* 13(2):35-48.

Moore, A. [1980], "Walt Disney World: bounded ritual space and the playful pilgrimage centre", *Anthropological Quarterly* 53(4):207-218.

Moore, S. & Carter, B. [1993], "Ecotourism in the 21st century", *Tourism Management* 14(2):123-130.

Morgan, E.J. [1994], "European Community merger control in the service industries", *The Service Industries Journal* 14(1):62-84.

Morgan, M. [1994], "Homogeneous products: the future of established resorts", in *Global Tourism: The Next Decade*, edited by W.F. Theobald, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.378-395.

Moulin, C. [1983], "Social tourism: development and prospects in Quebec", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.161-181.

- Moulin, C.M. [1991], "Cultural heritage and tourism development in Canada", *Tourism Recreation Research* 16(1):50-53.
- Mowery, D.C. & Rosenberg, N. [1989], *Technology and the Pursuit of Economic Growth*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mowlana, H. & Smith, G. [1991], "Tourism as international relations: linkages between telecommunications technology and transnational banking", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.215-218.
- Mullins, P. [1991], "Tourism Urbanization", *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research* 15(3):326-42.
- Munson, J.M. & McIntyre, S.H. [1978], "Personal values: a cross-cultural assessment of self-values and values attributed to a distant cultural stereotype", in *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol.V, edited by H.K. Hunt. Ann Arbor MI: Association for Consumer Research.
- Murdie, R.A. [1965], "Cultural differences in consumer travel", *Economic Geography* 41(3):211-233.
- Murdock, S.H.; Backman, K.; Colberg, E.; Hoque, M.N. & Hamm, R.R. [1990], "Modeling demographic change and characteristics in the analysis of future demand for leisure services", *Leisure Sciences* 12(1):79-102.
- Murphy, G.D. [1988], "Airlines of Sub-Saharan Africa", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4:5-22.
- Murphy, P.E. & Bayley, R. [1989], "Tourism and disaster planning", *The Geographical Review* 79(Jan):36-46.
- Murphy, P.E. [1983], "Tourism: Canada's other resource industry", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.3-23.
- Murphy, P.E. [1985], *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York and London: Methuen.
- Myrdal, G. [1957], *Rich Lands and Poor*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Naisbitt, J. [1986], "A nation on wheels", *Popular Mechanics* (July):173-190.
- Nasar, J.L. [1984], "Visual preferences in urban street scenes: a cross-cultural comparison between Japan and the United States", *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 15:79-93.

- Nash, D. [1981], "Tourism as an anthropological subject", *Current Anthropology* 22(5):461-468.
- Nash, D. [1989], "Tourism as a form of imperialism", in *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*, 2nd edn., edited by V.L. Smith. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. pp.37-52.
- National Research Council (USA) [1990], *Safety of Tourist Submersibles*. Washington DC: National Academy Press.
- Newby, P.T. [1981], "Literature and the fashioning of tourist taste", in *Humanistic Geography and Literature: Essays on the Experience of Place*, edited by D. Pocock. London: Croom Helm. pp.130-141.
- Newcomb, R.M. [1979], *Planning the Past: Historical Landscape Resources and Recreation*. Hamden CT: Shoe String Press.
- Nicholls, L.L. [1976], "Tourism and crime", *Annals of Tourism Research* 3:176-181.
- Nilles, J.M.; Carlson, R.; Grey, P. & Heineman, G. [1976], *Telecommunications—Transportation Tradeoffs: Options for Tomorrow*. New York: Wiley.
- Nolan, M.L. & Nolan, S. [1992], "Religious sites as tourism attractions in Europe", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(1):68-78.
- Northcott, J. [1991], *Britain in 2010: The PSI Report*. London: Policy Studies Institute.
- Nowlis, M.R. [1990], "Technological aspects of commercial food service", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management, Vol.2*, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York. Belhaven Press. pp.227-237.
- NRC (National Consumer Council) [1986], *Air Transport and the Consumer: A Need for Change*. London: HMSO.
- OECD [1966], *Tourism Development and Economic Growth*, Paris OECD.
- OECD [1974], *Government Policy in the Development of Tourism*. Paris: OECD.
- OECD [1980], *Consumer Protection in the Field of Air Travel*. Paris: OECD Consumer Policy Committee.
- OECD [1981], *The Impact of Tourism on the Environment*. Paris: OECD.

- OECD [1985], Committee for Scientific and Technological Policy Science, Technology and Competitiveness. Analytical Report of the Adhoc Group. Paris: OECD.
- OECD [1988], Tourism Policy and International Tourism in OECD Member Countries. Paris: OECD.
- OECD [1990], Development Co-operation 1990 Report. Paris: OECD.
- OECD [1991], Inventory of Measures Perceived as Obstacles to International Tourism in the OECD Area. Paris: OECD.
- Oglethorpe, M. [1985], "Tourism in a small island economy: the case of Malta", *Tourism Management* 6(1):23-31.
- Olsen, M.; Crawford-Welch, S. & Tse, E. [1991], "The Global hospitality industry of the 1990s", in *Strategic Hospitality Management: Theory and Practice for the 1990s*, edited by R. Teave & A. Boer. London: Cassell. pp.213-225.
- Olsen, M.D. [1991], "Strategic management in the hospitality industry: a literature review", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management, Vol.3*, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.215-231.
- Olszewska, A. & Roberts, K. eds. [1989], *Leisure and Lifestyle: A Comparative Analysis of Free Time*. London: Sage Publications.
- Oppermann, M. [1993], "Tourism space in developing countries", *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(4):535-556.
- Orland, B. & Bellafiore, V.J. [1990], "Development directions for a sacred site in India", *Landscape and Urban Planning* 19(2):181-196.
- Orrell, K. [1988], "The European duty free business", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 2:69-86.
- Owen, C. [1991], "Improving multi-modal passenger interchanges—an urgent need", *Tourism Management* 12(2):97-100.
- Page, S.J. & Sinclair, T. [1992], "The Channel Tunnel and tourism markets in the 1990s", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 1:5-32.
- Paliwoda, S.J. [1991], "Changing East-West trade patterns: implications for global tourism", *World Travel and Tourism Review, Vol.1*, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.96-102.
- Palmer, J.D.; Bertsch, T.M. & LaRocco, C.M. [1989], "What is television doing to the hospitality industry's images?", *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 13(3):529-540.

- Palmer, R.A. [1992], "The Americans with Disabilities Act: new obligations for hospitality operators", *Hospitality Research Journal* 15(2):11-20.
- Palmer, R.W. [1993], "Tourism and taxes: the case of Barbados", in *Tourism Marketing and Management in the Caribbean*, edited by D.J. Gayle & J.N. Goodrich. London: Routledge. pp.58-68.
- Parker, S. [1975], "Evolution and trends in work and non-work time in Great Britain", *Society and Leisure* 1:73-88.
- Parrinello, G.L. [1993], "Motivation and anticipation in post-industrial tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 20(2):233-249.
- Parry, J. [1989], *Participation by Black and Ethnic minorities in Sport and Recreation: A Review of Literature*. London: London Research Centre.
- Pasini, W. [1989], *Tourist Health: A New Branch of Public Health*. Madrid: WTO.
- Pearce, D G. [1988], "Tourist time-budgets", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(1):109-124.
- Pearce, D. [1987], *Tourism Today: A Geographical Analysis*. Harlow: Longman.
- Pearce, D. [1989], *Tourist Development*, 2nd edn. Harlow: Longman.
- Pearce, P.L. & Moscardo, G.M. [1985], "The relationship between travellers' career levels and the concept of authenticity", *Australian Journal of Psychology* 37(2):157-174.
- Pearce, P.L. [1982], *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour*. Oxford & New York: Pergamon Press.
- Penning-Roswell, E.C. & Lowenthal, D. eds. [1986], *Landscape Meanings and Values*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Pepson, S. [1979], "Tourism: the world's biggest industry in the twenty-first century?", *The Futurist* 12:249-257.
- Perdue, R.R. [1985], "Segmenting state travel information inquirers by timing of the destination decision and previous experience", *Journal of Travel Research* 23(3):6-11.
- Perez, C. [1985], "Microelectronics, longwaves and world structural change", *World Development* 13:441-463.
- Perkins, D.H. & Syrquin, M. [1989], "Large countries: the influences of size", in *Handbook of Development Economics*, Vol.2, edited by H.B. Chenery & T.N. Srinivasan. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers. pp.1691-1753.

- Perry, A.H. [1971], "Climate influences on the development of the Scottish skiing industry", *Scottish Geography Magazine* 87:197-201.
- Peters, M. [1969], *International Tourism: The Economics and Development of the International Tourist Trade*. London: Hutchinson.
- Peterson, G. L.; Driver, B. L. & Gregory, R. eds. [1988], *Amenity Resource Valuation: Integrating Economics with Other Disciplines*. State College PA: Venture Publishing.
- Peterson, K.I. [1987], "Qualitative research methods for the travel and tourism industry", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.433-438.
- Peterson, R.D. [1990], "The CAB's struggle to establish price and route rivalry in world air transport", *American Journal of Economics and Sociology* 49(1):65-80.
- Phipps, D.K. [1986], "Developing and strengthening linkages between the tourist sector and other industrial sectors", in PTRC ed., *Planning for Tourism and Tourism in Developing Countries*, London: Planning and Transport Research and Computation Co.
- Pigram, J.J. [1990], "Sustainable tourism: policy considerations", *Journal of Tourism Studies* 1(2):2-9.
- Pilcher, O.L.; Lubrano, C.R. & Theophano, R. [1987], "The promise of application software", *Byte* 12(7):33-35.
- Pinder, D. [1991], "The Netherlands: tourist development in a crowded society", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn, edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.225-242.
- Pine, R. & Ball, J. [1987], "Productivity and technology in catering operations", *Food Science and Technology Today* 1(3):174-176.
- Pine, R. [1987], *Management of Technological Change in the Catering Industry*. Aldershot: Avebury.
- Pizam, A. & Manning, P.B. [1982], "The impact of inflation on convention site selection", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (Spring):65-66.
- Pizam, A. & Pokela, J. [1983], "The 1979 US gasoline shortage and its impact on the tourism industry", *Tourism Management* 4(2):94-101.

- Pizam, A. & Pokela, J. [1985], "The perceived impacts of casino gambling on a community", *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(2):147-165.
- Pizam, A. [1982], "Tourism and crime: is there a relationship?", *Journal of Travel Research* 20(3):7-10.
- Pizam, A. [1987], "Planning a tourism research investigation", in *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, edited by J.R.B. Ritchie & C.R. Goeldner. New York: John Wiley & Sons. pp.63-76.
- Pizam, A.; Milman, A. & King, B. [1994], "The perceptions of tourism employees and their families towards tourism: a cross-cultural comparison", *Tourism Management* 15(1):53-61.
- Pizam, A.; Neumann, Y. & Reichel, A. [1979], "Tourist satisfaction: uses and misuses", *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(2):195-197.
- Place, S.E. [1991], "Nature tourism and rural development in Tortuguero", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2):186-201.
- Plog, S.C. [1991], *Leisure Travel: Making It a Growth Market... Again!* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Pocock, D. & Hudson, R. [1978], *Images of the Urban Environment*. London: Macmillan.
- Poon, A. [1987], *Information Technology and Innovation in International Tourism: Implications for the Caribbean Tourist Industry*, PhD thesis. Brighton: University of Sussex.
- Poon, A. [1988], "Tourism and information technologies", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(4):531-549.
- Poon, A. [1990], "Flexible specialisation and small size: the case of Caribbean tourism", *World Development* 18(1):109-123.
- Poon, A. [1993], *Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies*. Oxon: C.A.B. International.
- Porter, M. [1980], *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analysing Industries and Competitors*. New York: The Free Press.
- Porter, M.E. [1990], *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*. New York: Free Press.
- Powers, T.F. [1993], "Why study the future?", *Hospitality and Tourism Educator* 5(2):41-45.
- Prentice, M.M. & Prentice, R.C. [1989], "The heritage market of historic sites as educational resources", in *Heritage Sites: Strategies for*

Marketing and Development, edited by D.T. Herbert; R.C. Prentice & C.J. Thomas. Aldershot: Avebury. pp.143-190.

- Prentice, R.C. [1989], "Visitors to heritage sites: a market segmentation by visitor characteristics", in *Heritage Sites: Strategies for Marketing and Development*, edited by D.T. Herbert; R.C. Prentice & C.J. Thomas. Aldershot: Avebury. pp.15-61.
- Pyo, S.; Cook, R. & Howell, R.L. [1991], "Summer Olympic tourist market", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.191-198.
- Quinn, J.B. [1980], *Strategies for Change: Logical Incrementalism*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Raitz, K. & Dakhil, M. [1988], "Recreational choices and environmental preference", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(3):357-370.
- Ramade, F. [1984], *Ecology of Natural Resources*. Chichester: John Wiley.
- Ranis, G. & Schultz, T.P. eds. [1988], *The State of Development Economics: Progress and Perspectives*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Redding, S.G. & Ng, M. [1982], "'The role of face' in the organizational perceptions of Chinese managers", *Organization Studies* 3(3):201-219.
- Reed, R. [1987], "Fashion life cycles and extension theory", *European Journal of Marketing* 21(3):32-62.
- Reichel, A. [1986], "Competition and barrier to entry in service industries: the case of the American lodging business", in *The Practice of Hospitality Management (II)*, edited by R.C. Lewis; T.J. Beggs; M. Shaw & S.A. Croffoot. Westport CT: AVI Publishing. pp.79-89.
- Reid, R.D. [1985], "Older workers: are they a viable labor force in the foodservice industry?", *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 10(1):1-11.
- Reime, M. & Hawkins, C. [1980], "Planning and developing hospitality facilities that increase tourism demand", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Issues*, edited by C. Hawkins; E.L. Shafer & J.M. Rovelstad. Washington DC: George Washington University. pp.239-248.
- Rhyne, L.C. [1985], "The relationship of information usage characteristics to planning system sophistication: an empirical examination", *Strategic Management Journal* 6(4):319-337.

- Richardson, S.L. & Crompton, J.L. [1988], "Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes", *Tourism Management* 9(2):128-136.
- Richter, L.K. & Waugh, W.L., Jr. [1986], "Terrorism and tourism as logical companions", *Tourism Management* 7(4):23-238.
- Richter, L.K. [1983], "The political implications of Chinese tourism policy", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(3):395-413.
- Richter, L.K. [1989], *The Politics of Tourism in Asia*. Honolulu HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Richter, L.K. [1992], "Political instability and tourism in the Third World", in *Tourism and the Less Developed Countries*, edited by D. Harrison. London: Belhaven Press. pp.35-46.
- Riesman, D.; Glazer, N. & Denney, R. [1950], *The Lonely Crowd*. Newhaven CN: Yale University Press.
- Rinschede, G. [1992], "Forms of religious tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(1):51-67.
- Ritchie, J. [1975], "Some critical aspects of measurement theory and practice in travel research", *Journal of Travel Research* 14(1):1-10.
- Ritchie, J.E. [1972], "The honest broker in the cultural marketplace", in *New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific*, edited by B. R. Finney & K.A. Watson. Honolulu HI: East-West Centre.
- Ritchie, J.R. & Zins, M. [1978], "Culture as determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism region", *Annals of Tourism Research* 5(2):252-267.
- Ritchie, J.R.B. [1984], "Assessing the impact of hallmark events: conceptual and research issues", *Journal of Travel Research* 23(1):2-11.
- Ritchie, J.R.B. [1991], "Global tourism policy issues: an agenda for the 1990s", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.149-158.
- Roberts, G.K. [1971], *A Dictionary of Political Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Roberts, K. [1970], *Leisure*. London: Longman.
- Roberts, K. [1983], *Youth and Leisure*. London: George Allen & Unwin.
- Robertson, A. [1965], "The sunshine revolution", *The Geographical Magazine* 37(12):926-939.

- Robinson, D. [1990], "Transport: the vital links", in Horwath Book of Tourism, edited by M. Quest. London: Macmillan. pp.98-107.
- Robinson, E.A.G. [1960], Economic Consequences of the Size of Nations. London: Macmillan.
- Robinson, H. [1976], A Geography of Tourism. London: Macdonald and Evans.
- Robrin, S.J. [1982], Managing Political Risk Assessment: Strategic Response to Environmental Change. Berkeley CA: University of California Press.
- Rodenburg, E.E. [1980], "The effects of scale in economic development: tourism in Bali", Annals of Tourism Research 7(2):177-196.
- Roehl, W.S. & Fesenmaier, D.R. [1987], "Tourism land use conflict in the United States", Annals of Tourism Research 14(4):471-485.
- Romsa, G.H. & Blenman, M. [1989], "Vacation patterns of the elderly German", Annals of Tourism Research 16(2):178-188.
- Rosenow, J.E. & Pulsipher, G.L. [1979], Tourism: The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly. Lincoln NE: Media Productions and Marketing.
- Rosensweig, J.A. [1988], "Elasticities of substitution in Caribbean tourism", Journal of Development Economics 29(July):89-100.
- Ross, G.F. [1993], "Destination evaluation and vacation preferences", Annals of Tourism Research 20(3):477-489.
- Rostow, W.W. [1960], The Stages of Economic growth. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rothwell, R. [1982], "The role of technology in industrial change: implications for regional policy", Regional Studies 16:361-369.
- Roueche, L. [1978], "Transport prices and tourism: a case study", Journal of Travel Research 16(3):25-26.
- Roville, G. [1988], "Ethnic minorities and the development of tourism in the valleys of north Pakistan", in Tourism: Manufacturing the Exotic, edited by P. Rossel. Copenhagen: International Work Group for Indigeous Affairs. pp.146-176.
- Ruschmann, D. v.d.M. [1992], "Ecological tourism in Brazil", Tourism Management 13(1):125-128.
- Ryan, C. [1991], Recreational Tourism: A Social Science Perspective. London & New York: Routledge.

- Sadik, N. [1990], *The State of World Population 1990*. New York: UN Population Fund.
- Sadler, B. [1983], "Ski area development in the Canadian Rockies: past lessons, future prospects", in *Tourism in Canada: Selected Issues and Options*, edited by P.E. Murphy. Victoria BC: University of Victoria. pp.309-329.
- Sahlins, M. [1974], *Stone Age Economics*. Tavistock Publications.
- Salome, B. ed. [1989], *Fighting Urban Unemployment in Developing Countries*. Paris: Development Centre of the OECD.
- Salomon, I. [1985], "Telecommunications and travel", *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy* 19(3):219-235.
- Samuels, J. [1986], "Gambling and tourism in the USA: lessons from Atlantic City", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* (June):39-48.
- Sathiendrakumar, R. & Tisdell, C. [1989], "Tourism and the economic development of the Maldives", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2):254-269.
- Sauran, A. [1978], "Economic determinants of tourist demand: a survey", *Tourist Review* 33(1):2-4.
- Savage, M. [1988], "The missing link? The relationship between spatial mobility and social mobility", *British Journal of Sociology* 39:554-577.
- Schansman, R.O. [1991], "Indonesia 1991: tourism to the archipelago", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 32(3):84-91.
- Schnaars, S.P. [1989], *Megamistakes: Forecasting and the Myth of Rapid Technological Change*. London: Macmillan.
- Schnell, P. [1991], "The Federal Republic of Germany: a growing international deficit?", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.207-224.
- Schulmeister, S. [1979], *Tourism and the Business Cycle: Econometric Models for the Purpose of Analysis and Forecasting of Short-term Changes in the Demand for Tourism*. Vienna: Austrian Institute for Economic Research.
- Schurmann, H. [1981], "The effects of international tourism on the regional development of Third World countries", *Applied Geography and Development* 18:80-93.

- Schwaninger, M. [1984], "Forecasting leisure and tourism: scenario projections for 2002-2010", *Tourism Management* 5(4):250-257.
- Scott, R. [1988], "Managing crisis in tourism: a case study of Fiji", *Travel and Tourism Analysis* 6:57-71.
- Seekings, J. [1989], "Senior travel market", in S.F. Witt & L. Moutino eds. *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall. pp.393-395.
- Seekings, K. [1993], *The Politics of Tourism*, London: Tourism International.
- Sessa, A. [1988], "The science of systems for tourism development", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(2):219-235.
- Settle, R.; Alreck, P. & Belch, M. [1978], "Social class determinants of leisure activity", *Advances in Consumer Research* 6:139-145.
- Seymour, L. [1980], "Tourism development in Newfoundland: the past revisited", *Canadian Geographer* 14:32-39.
- Shafer, E.L. & Moeller, G.H. [1989], "Science and technology in tourism", in *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook*, edited by S.F. Witt & L. Moutinho. London: Prentice Hall. pp.381-386.
- Shafer, E.L. [1987], "Technology, tourism and the 21st century", *Tourism Management* 8(2):179-182.
- Shafer, E.L. [1989], "Future encounters with science and technology", *Journal of Travel research* 27(4):2-7.
- Sheldon, P.J. [1983], "The impact of technology on the hotel industry", *Tourism Management* 4(4):269-278.
- Sheldon, P.J. [1986], "The tour operator industry: an analysis", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(3):349-363.
- Sheldon, P.J. [1987], "Computers: tourism applications", *Tourism Management* 8(3):258-262.
- Sheldon, P.J. [1993], "The impact of computer reservation systems on long haul travel", *The Tourist Review* 4:31-35.
- Sheppard, P. [1991], "Aviation in the Arabian Gulf", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4:5-19.
- Shoemaker, S. [1989], "Segmentation of the senior pleasure travel market", *Journal of Travel Research* 27(3):14-21.
- Short, J.R. [1991], *Imagined Country: Environment, Culture and Society*. London & New York: Routledge.

- Sidaway, R. [1990], "Contemporary attitudes to landscape and implications for policy: a research agenda", *Landscape Research* 15(2):2-6.
- Sinclair, M.T. & Sutcliffe, C. [1988], "The economic effects on destination areas of foreign involvement in the tourism industry: a Spanish application", in *Marketing in the Tourism Industry: The Promotion of Destination Regions*, edited by B. Goodall & G. Ashworth. London & New York: Croom Helm. pp.111-132.
- Sinclair, M.T. & Tsegaye, A. [1990], "International tourism and export instability", *Journal of Development Studies* 26(3):487-504.
- Sinclair, M.T. [1991], "The economics of tourism", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.3, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.1-27.
- Singh, T.V. & Kaur, J. [1985], "In search of holistic tourism for the Himalaya", in *Integrated Mountain Development*, edited by R.V. Singh & J. Kaur. New Delhi: Himalayan Books. pp.365-389.
- Singh, T.V. [1979], "Climatology of recreation: an appraisal of climate as resource-input in tourism", in *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation*, edited by K.A. Sinnhuber & F. Julg. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt. pp.101-107.
- Singh, T.V.; Theuns, H.L. & Go, F.M. eds. [1989], *Towards Appropriate Tourism: The Case of Developing Countries*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang Publishing.
- Sinnhuber, K.A. & Julg, F. eds. [1978], *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation*, Vol.I. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt.
- Sinnhuber, K.A. & Julg, F. eds. [1979], *Studies in the Geography of Tourism and Recreation*, Vol.II. Wien: Verlag Ferdinand Hirt.
- Slattery, P. & Litteljohn, D. [1991], "The structure of Europe's economies and demand for hotel accommodation", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4:20-37.
- Sloane, J. [1990], "Latest developments in aviation CRSs", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4:5-15.
- Smeral, E. [1992], "Long-term forecasts for tourism industries: the case of Austria and Switzerland", *The Service Industries Journal* 12(1):60-77.
- Smeral, E.; Witt, S.F. & Witt, C.A. [1992], "Econometric forecasts: tourism trends to 2000", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19 (3):450-466.

- Smith, A.D. [1979], *Nationalism in the Twentieth Century*. Oxford: Robertson.
- Smith, A.D. [1986], *The Ethnic Origins of Nations*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Smith, K. [1990], "Tourism and climate change", *Land Use Policy* 7(2):176-180.
- Smith, N. [1984], *Uneven Development: Nature, Capital and the Production of Space*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Smith, N.C. [1987], "Consumer Boycotts and consumer sovereignty", *European Journal of Marketing* 21(5):7-19.
- Smith, P.D. [1989], "Car hire in Europe", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 3:5-16.
- Smith, R.V. & Mitchell, L.S. [1990], "Geography and tourism: a review of selected literature 1984-88", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol.2, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.50-66.
- Smith, S. [1983], *Recreation Geography*. London & New York: Longman.
- Smith, S.L.J. [1989], *Tourism Analysis: A Handbook*. Harlow: Longman & New York: John Wiley.
- Smith, V L. [1990], "Responsible tourism: some anthropological issues", *Tourism Recreation Research* 15(1):45-49.
- Smith, V.K.; DesVosges, W.H. & McGivney, M P. [1983], "The opportunity cost of travel time in recreation demand models", *Land Economics* 59(3):259-278.
- Smith, V.L. [1989], "Eskimo tourism: micro-models and marginal men", in *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*, 2nd edn, edited by V.L. Smith. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. pp.55-82.
- Snepenger, D.J. & Johnson, J.D. [1991], "Political self-identification and perceptions on tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(3):511-515.
- Snepenger, D.J. & Moore, P.A. [1989], "Profiling the Arctic tourist", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(4):566-170.
- Soesilo, J.A. & Mings, R.C. [1987], "Assessing the seasonality of tourism", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 6(2):25-38.
- Solomon, P.J. & George, W.R. [1976], "An empirical investigation of the effect of the energy crisis on tourism", *Journal of Travel Research* 14(3):9-13.

- Spengler, J.O. & Uysal, M. [1989], "Considerations in the hotel taxation process", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 8(4):309-316.
- Spooner, D.J. [1981], *Mining and Regional Development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Squire, S.J. [1994], "The cultural values of literary tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 21(1):103-120.
- Srimivasan, T.N. [1986], "The costs and benefits of being a small, remote, island, landlocked or ministates economy", *World Bank Research Observer* 1:205-218.
- Srisang, K. [1991], "Alternative to tourism", *Contours (Bangkok)* 5(3):6-12.
- Stabler, M.J. [1991], "Modelling the tourism industry: a new approach", in *The Tourism Industry: An International Analysis*, edited by M.T. Sinclair & M. J. Stabler. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.15-44.
- Stacey, R.D. [1990], *Dynamic Strategic Management for the 1990s: Balancing Opportunities and Business Planning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Stainton, M. [1990], "Tourism, aboriginal peoples and land rights", *Contours (Bangkok)* 4(5):6-11.
- Stanworth, J. & C. [1991], *Work 2000: The Future for Industry, Employment and Society*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Steinfeld, C.; Caby, L. & Vialle, P. [1992], "Internationalisation of the firm and impacts of videotex networks", *Journal of Information Technology* 7(4):213-222.
- Steinnes, D.N. [1988], "A statistical analysis of the impact of oil price shocks on tourism", *Journal of Travel Research* 26(2):39-42.
- Stern, E. [1987], "Competition and location in the gaming industry: the 'casino states' of Southern Africa", *Geography* 72(Apr):140-150.
- Stern, N.H. [1989], "The economics of development: a survey", *Economic Journal* 99:597-685.
- Stevenson, A. & Wason, G. [1993], "The hotel industry in receivership", *Insights*, May:C.47-C.53.
- Stewart, R. [1984], *A Dictionary of Political Quotations*. London: Europa Publications.

- Stipanuk, D.M. [1993], "Tourism and technology: interactions and implications", *Tourism Management* 14(4):267-278.
- Stock, R. [1977], "Political and social contributions of international tourism to the development of Israel", *Annals of Tourism Research* 5 (Special No):30-42.
- Stokowski, P.A. & Lee, R.G. [1991], "The influence of social network ties on recreation and leisure: an exploratory study", *Journal of Leisure Research* 23(2):95-113.
- Storey, M. & Smith, C.G. [1990], "Developments within the catering equipment industry", in *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management, Vol.2*, edited by C.P. Cooper. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.182-191.
- Stubbart, C. [1982], "Are environmental scanning units effective?", *Long Range Planning* 15(2):139-145.
- Sunday, A.A. [1978], "Foreign travel and tourism: prices and demand", *Annals of Tourism Research* 5(2):268-273.
- Swinglehurst, E. [1982], *Cook's Tours: The Story of Popular Travel*. Dorset: Blandford Press.
- Symansk, R. [1981], *The Immoral Landscape: Female Prostitution in Western Societies*. Toronto: Butterworths.
- Tayeb, M. [1991], "Socio-political environment and management-employee relationships", in *International Comparisons in Human Resource Management*, edited by C. Brewster & S. Tyson. London: Pitman. pp.44-63.
- Taylor, P. & Gratton, C. [1988], "The Olympic Games: an economic analysis", *Leisure Management* 8(3):32-34.
- Taylor, P.J. [1989], *Political Geography*. Harlow: Longman.
- Teuscher, H. [1991], "Swiss Travel Saving Fund", in *Managing Tourism*, edited by S. Medlik. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann. pp.59-66.
- Teye, V.B. [1986], "Liberation wars and tourism development in Africa: the case of Zambia", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(4):589-608.
- Teye, V.B. [1988a], "Geographic factors affecting tourism in Zambia", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(4):487-503.
- Teye, V.B. [1988b], "Coups d'etat and African tourism: a study of Ghana", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(3):329-356.
- Teye, V.B. [1989], "Tourism development in Zambia: some physical and environmental considerations", in *Towards Appropriate Tourism:*

The Case of Developing Countries, edited by T.V. Singh; H.L. Theuns & F.M. Go. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang Publishing. pp.269-292.

- Thomas, C.J. [1989], "The roles of historic sites and reasons for visiting", in *Heritage Sites: Strategies for Marketing and Development*, edited by D.T. Herbert; R.C. Prentice & C.J. Thomas. Aldershot: Avebury. pp.62-93.
- Thomas, K. [1973], *Man and the Natural World: Changing Attitudes in England, 1500-1800*. London: Allen Lane.
- Thurot, J.M. & Thurot, G. [1983], "The ideology of class and tourism: confronting the discourse of advertising", *Annals of Tourism Research* 10(1):173-189.
- Tiemstra, J.P. [1992], "Theories of regulation and the history of consumerism", *International Journal of Social Economics* 19(6):3-27.
- Tighe, A.J. [1985], "Cultural tourism in the USA", *Tourism Management* 6(4):234-251.
- Tilden, F. [1977], *Interpreting Our Heritage*, 3rd edn. The University of North Carolina Press.
- Tips, W.E.J. & Savasdisara, T. [1986], "Landscape preference evaluation and sociocultural background: a comparison among Asian countries", *Journal of Environmental Management* 22:113-124.
- Tisdell, C. & Wen, J. [1991], "Foreign tourism as an element in PR China's economic development strategy", *Tourism Management* 12(1):55-67.
- Titus, J. [1987], *Greenhouse Effect, Sea Level Rise, and Coastal Wetlands*. Washington DC: Environmental Protection Agency.
- Toepper, L.K. [1991], "Assessing historic sites as tourism attractions: implications for public policy", *Visions in Leisure and Business* 10(1):26-43.
- Tomlinson, A. ed. [1989], *Consumption, Identity and Style: Marketing, Meanings, and the Packaging of Pleasure*. London: Routledge.
- Tongren, H.N. [1980], "Travel plans of the over-65 market", *Journal of Travel Research* 19(2):7-11.
- Tourism Society [1991], *Sustainable Tourism: Development in Balance with the Environment*. London: Tourism Society.
- Towner, J. [1985], "The grand tour: a key phase in the history of tourism", *Annals of Tourism Research* 12(3):297-333.

- Towner, J. [1988], "Approaches to tourism history", *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(1):47-62.
- TPR [1991], *The European Tourist: A Market Profile*, London: Tourism Planning Research Associates.
- Travel Business Group [1987], *Technology and the Travel Agent*, Redditch, Istel Survey.
- Travis, A.S. [1982], *The Contribution of Social Sciences to the Fields of Tourism and the Environment*. Birminham: University of Birmingham.
- Travis, A.S. [1991], "New demand trends and the wide range of new tourism products in Europe", in *Seminar on New Forms of Demand and New Products*, Madrid: WTO.
- Trease, G. [1967], *The Grand Tour*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Trent, R.B. & Pollard, C. [1983], "Gasoline prices and discretionary auto travel: evidence from a panel survey", *Journal of Travel Research* 21(4):12-16.
- Truett, D.B. & Truett, L.J. [1987], "The response of tourism to international economic conditions: Greece, Mexico, and Spain", *Journal of Developing Areas* 21(Jan):177-190.
- Truitt, L.J.; Teye, V.B. & Farris, M.T. [1991], "The role of computer reservations systems: international implication for the travel industry", *Tourism Management* 12(1):21-36.
- Truong, T.D. [1989], "The dynamics of sex tourism: the case of Southeast Asia", in *Towards Appropriate Tourism: The Case of Developing Countries*, edited by T.V. Singh; H.L. Theuns & F.M. Go. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang Publishing. pp.325-348.
- Truong, T.P. & Hensher, D.A. [1985], "Measurement of travel time values and opportunity cost from a discrete choice model", *Economic Journal* 95:438-451.
- Tse, E.C.Y. & Crawford-Welch, S. [1989], "An analysis of merger and acquisition activity in the hospitality industry for the period 1970-1988", *Hospitality Education and Research Journal* 13(3):1-13.
- Tucker, D. [1990], "Time limits", *Leisure Management* 10(12):24-25.
- Tuppen, J. [1991], "France: the changing character of a key industry", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.191-206.

- Turnbull, C. [1981], "A pilgrimage in India", *Natural History* 90(7):14-81.
- Turner, L. & Ash, J. [1975], *The Golden Hordes: International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery*. London: Constable.
- Turner, V.W. & Turner, E. [1978], *Image and Pilgrimage in Christian Culture: Anthropological Perspectives*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- UN [1990a], *World Urbanization Prospects*. New York: UN.
- UN [1990b], *World Economic Survey 1990*. New York: UN.
- UN [1992], *Demographic Yearbook 1990*. New York: UN.
- UN [1993], "Consumer protection: report of the Secretary-General of the United Nations", *Journal of Consumer Policy* 16:97-121.
- UNCTAD [1971], *Guidelines for Tourism Statistics*. New York: UN.
- UNCTAD [1989], *Trade and Development Report 1989*. New York: UN.
- UNCTAD [1990], *Trade and Development Report 1990*. New York: UN.
- UNCTAD [1992], *The Least Developed Countries: 1991 Report*. New York: UN.
- UNCTC [1982], *Transnational Corporations in International Tourism*. New York: UN.
- UNEP/WMO [1990], *Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. United Nations Environmental Programme and World Meteorological Organisation.
- UNESCO [1976], "The effects of tourism on socio-cultural values", *Annals of Tourism Research* 4(2):74-105.
- UNESCO [1991], *Statistical Yearbook 1991*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Urbanowicz, C.F. [1989], "Tourism in Tonga revisited: continued troubled times?", in *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*, 2nd edn., edited by V.L. Smith. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. pp.105-118.
- Urry, J. [1990], *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. London: Sage Publications.
- Uysal, M. & Crompton, J.L. [1985], "An overview of approaches used to forecast tourism demand", *Journal of Travel Research* 23(4):7-15.
- Uzzell, D.L. ed. [1989], *Heritage Interpretation: vol. I & II*, London & New York: Belhaven Press.

- Vallen, J.J. & Levinson, C. [1989], "The new Soviet tourism", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 29(4):73-79.
- van den Berghe, P.L. [1992], "Tourism and the ethnic division of labor", *Annals of Tourism Research* 19(2):234-249.
- van Doren, C.S. [1981], "Outdoor recreation trends in the 1980s: implications for society", *Journal of Travel Research* 19(3):3-10.
- Vanhanen, T. [1990], *The Process of Democratization*. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Var, T.; Beck, R.A.D. & Loftus, P. [1977], "Determination of touristic attractiveness of the touristic areas in the British Columbia", *Journal of Travel Research* 15(3):23-29.
- Var, T.; Liu, J.; Sheldon, P. & Boberg, K. [1986], "Tourism and computers: quo vadis?", *Annals of Tourism Research* 13(1):109-117.
- Veal, A.J. [1989], "Leisure, lifestyles and status", *Leisure Studies* 8:141-153.
- Vetter, F. ed. [1985], *Big City Tourism*. Berlin: Reimer Verlag.
- Villiers, J. [1990], "The future of air traffic control in Europe: the 'capacity barriers'", *ITA Magazine* 59:14-21.
- Virden, R.J. [1990], "A comparison study of wilderness users and nonusers: implications for managers and policy-makers", *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* 8(3):13-24.
- Vlitos-Rowe, I. [1992], "Destination databases and management systems", *Travel and Tourism Analyst* 5:84-108.
- Wace, N. [1990], "Antarctic: a new tourist destination", *Applied Geography* 10(4):327-341.
- Wahab, S. [1971], "An introduction to tourism theory", *Travel Research Journal* 1:17-30.
- Wahab, S. [1975], *Tourism Management*, London: Tourism International Press.
- Wahab, S.E.A. [1973], "Tourism and air transport", *Tourist Review* 28(4):146-151 and 29(1):9-11.
- Walker, H. [1989], "Holidays with pay", *Planning History* 11(1):12-14.
- Wall, G. [1973], "Car owners and holidays: the case of Kingston-upon-Hull", *Town Planning Review* 44:117-130.

- Walmsley, D.J.; Boskovic, R.M. & Pigram, J.J. [1983], "Tourism and Crime: an Australian perspective", *Journal of Leisure Research* 15(2):136-155.
- Walsh, R.G.; Sanders, L.D. & McKean, J.R. [1990], "The consumptive value of travel time on recreation trips", *Journal of Travel Research* 29(1):17-24.
- Walter, J. & Ayres, R. [1990], "Global warming: damages and costs", paper presented to A UNECE/USEP workshop on the economics of sustainable development, Washington DC, January.
- Walton, J.K. & Walvin, J.K. eds. [1983], *Leisure in Britain 1780-1939*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Walton, J.K. [1981], "The demand for working-class seaside holidays in Victorian England", *Economic History Review* 34(2):249-265.
- Walton, J.K. [1983], *The English Seaside Resort: A Social History 1750-1914*. Leicester: Leicester University Press & New York: St Martin's Press.
- Wang, L.; Porter, A.L. & Cunningham, S. [1991], "Expert systems: present and future", in *Expert Systems with Applications*, edited by J. Liebowitz. pp.383-394.
- Wanhill, S.R.C. [1986], "Which investment incentives for tourism?", *Tourism Management* 7(1):2-7.
- Wanhill, S.R.C. [1987], "UK — Politics and tourism", *Tourism Management* 8(1):54-58.
- Ward J. [1987], "Tourism and private car", *Tourism Management* 8(2):164-166.
- Ward, J.M. [1986], "An appraisal of the competitive benefits of IT", *Journal of Information Technology* 1(3):1-13.
- Ward, T.J. [1989], "The role of government incentives", *Tourism Management* 10(3):240-241.
- Waters. S.R. [1967], "Trends in international tourism", *Development Digest* 5:57-62.
- WCED (World Commission on Environment and Development) [1987], *Our Common Future* (also known as *The Brundtland Commission Report*). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Weaver, D. [1991], "Alternative to mass tourism in Dominica", *Annals of Tourism Research* 18(3):414-432.
- Weber, S. [1991], "Problem areas and sources of errors in tourism demand research", *The Tourist Review* 3:2-8.

- Wei, L.; Crompton, J.L. & Reid, L.M. [1989], "Cultural conflicts: experiences of US visitors to China", *Tourism Management* 10(4):322-332.
- Wellings, P.A. & Crush, J.S. [1983], "Tourism and dependency in Southern Africa: the prospects and planning of tourism in Lesotho", *Applied Geography* 3(3):205-223.
- Weston, R. [1983], "The ubiguity of room taxes", *Tourism Management* 4(3):194-198.
- White, I.D.; Mottershead, D.N. & Harrison, S.J. [1984], *Environmental Systems*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Whittaker, M. [1987], "Overcoming the barriers to successful implementation of information technology in the UK hotel industry", *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 6(4):229-235.
- WHO [1992], *World Health Statistics Annual 1991*. Geneva: WHO.
- Wight, P. [1993], "Ecotourism: ethics or eco-sell?", *Journal of Travel Research*, 3:3-9.
- Wilkinson, P.F. [1987], "Tourism in small island nations: a fragile dependence", *Leisure Studies* 6(2):127-146.
- Wilkinson, P.F. [1989], "Strategies for tourism in island economies", *Annals of Tourism Research* 16(2):153-177.
- Williams, A.M. & Shaw, G. [1991a], "Tourism and development: introduction", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.1-12.
- Williams, A.M. & Shaw, G. [1991b], "Tourism policies in a changing economic environment", in *Tourism and Economic Development: Western European Experiences*, 2nd edn., edited by A.M. Williams & G. Shaw. London & New York: Belhaven Press. pp.263-272.
- Williams, A.V. & Zelinsky, W. [1970], "On some patterns in international tourist flows", *Economic Geography* 46(4):549-567.
- Willis, E. [1984], "Lowcost microcomputers and tourism marketing", *Tourism Management* 5(3):236-237.
- Wilson, I. [1985], "Evaluating the environment: social and political factors", in *Handbook of Business Strategy*, edited by W.D. Guth. Boston: Warren, Gorham & Lamont. pp.3.1-3.22.
- Wilson, J. [1988], *Politics and Leisure*. London: Unwin Hyman.

- Winiarski, R. [1988], "Tourist motivation: the structure and social conditions", *Problems of Tourism* 11(2):5-16.
- Winpenny, J.T. [1991], *Values for the Environment: A Guide to Economic Appraisal*. London: HMSO.
- Witt, C.A. & Witt, S.F. [1989], "Why productivity in the hotel sector is low", *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* 1(2):28-34.
- Witt, S. [1980], "An abstract mode — abstract (destination) node model of foreign holiday demand", *Applied Economics* 12(2):163-180.
- Witt, S.F. [1992], "The track records of tourism forecasting services", in *Choices and Demand in Tourism*, edited by P. Johnson & B. Thomas. London: Mansell. pp.209-220.
- Wolfson, M. [1964], "Government's role in tourism development", *Development Digest* 5(1):50-56.
- Wood, R.E. [1979], "Tourism and underdevelopment in Southeast Asia", *Journal of Contemporary Asia* 9(3):274-287.
- Wood, R.E. [1980], "International tourism and cultural change in Southeast Asia", *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 28(3):561-581.
- Wood, R.E. [1984], "Ethnic tourism, the state, and cultural change in Southeast Asia", *Annals of Tourism Research* 11(3):353-374.
- World Bank [1992], *World Development Report 1992*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Worsley, P. [1984], *The Three Worlds: Culture and World Development*. London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson.
- WTO (1984), *A Profile of Government Financial and Grant Aids in Tourism*, UK: Horwarth & Horwarth International.
- WTO [1976], *Study on the Factors Having an Influence on Tourism Demand and Leading to the Redistribution of Tourist Flows*. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1979], *Integrated Planning*, Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1981a], *Consumer Protection and Information for Tourists*. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1981b], *Guidelines for Using National Resources in the Construction and Maintenance of Tourist Plant*. Madrid: WTO.

- WTO [1983a], Appraisal and Social Value of Investments in Domestic Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1983b], Domestic and International Tourism's Contribution to State Revenue. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1983c], The Framework of the State's Responsibility for the Management of Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1983d], Prospects for Restructuring Tourist Flows, Destinations and Markets. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1983e], Development of Leisure Time and the Right to Holidays. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1983f], Summary of Developments in the Fields of World Economy, Demography and Energy: Prospects for Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1985a], The State's Role in Protecting and Promoting Culture as a Factor of Tourism development and the Proper Use and Exploitation of the Natural Cultural Heritage of Sites and Monuments for Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1985b] Contractual Procedures and the Nature of Contracts for Travel Services Between Tour Operators and Their Counterparts in Receiving Countries as Well as Users and Consumers of Travel Services. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1987], Basic Introductory Report, Seminar on the Development of International Tourism in Europe by the Year 2000. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1988a], Guidelines for the Transfer of New Technologies in the Field of Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1988b], The Problems of Protectionism and Measures to Reduce Obstacles to International Trade in Tourism Services. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1989], Tourism Development report: Policy and Trends. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1990], Tourism to the Year 2000: Qualitative Aspects Affecting Global Growth. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1991a], Impact of the Gulf Crisis on International Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1991b], Integrated Tourist Resorts, Madrid: WTO.
- WTO [1992], Yearbook of Tourism Statistics, 44th edn., Vol I & II. Madrid: WTO.

- WTO/UNEP [1983], Workshop on Environmental Aspects of Tourism. Madrid: WTO.
- WTTC [1991], WTTC Report: Bureaucratic Barriers to Travel. Brussels: World Travel and Tourism Council.
- WTTC [1992], The WTTC Report. Brussels: .
- Wyer, J.; Towner, J.; et al [1988], The UK and Third World Tourism. Kent: Third World Tourism European Ecumenical Network.
- Yang, B.E; Brown, T.J. [1992], "A cross-cultural comparison of preferences for landscape styles and landscape elements", *Environment and Behaviour* 24(4):471-507.
- Yannopoulos, G.N. [1988], "Tourism, economic convergence and the European South", *Journal of Regional Policy* 8(3):333-356.
- Yapp, G.A. & McDonald, N.S. [1978], "A recreational climate model", *Journal of Environmental Management* 7:235-252.
- Yavas, U. [1987], "Foreign travel behaviour in a growing vacation market: implications for tourism marketers", *European Journal of Marketing* 21(5):57-69.
- Young, G. [1973], *Tourism: Blessing or Blight?*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Young, R.C. [1974], "The structural context of the Caribbean tourist industry: a comparative study", *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 25(4):657-672.
- Zeithaml, C. & Zeithaml, V. [1984], "Environmental management: revising the marketing perspective", *Journal of Marketing* 48(Spring):46-53.
- Ziff-Levine, W. [1990], "The cultural logic gap: a Japanese tourism research experience", *Tourism Management* 11(2):105-110.
- Zimmer, R.D. [1991], "Sustainable development: a new paradigm for global tourism", *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol.1, edited by D.E. Hawkins & J.R.B. Ritchie. Oxon: C.A.B. International. pp.159-161.
- Zimmerman, E.W. [1951], *World Resources and Industries*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Zube, E.H. & Pitt, D.G. [1981], "Cross-cultural perceptions of scenic and heritage landscapes", *Landscape Planning* 8:69-87.
- Zuboff, S. [1988], *In the Age of the Smart Machine*. London: Heinemann.