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Course Developer/Writer: *Dr. Ernest W. Okwuonu*

School of ManageMent ScienceS (SMS)

National Open University of Nigerian.

Course Coordinator: **Ms. F. E. Nnanna**

School of ManageMent ScienceS (SMS)

National Open University of Nigerian.

Content   Editor:

Programme   Leader: **Dr. I. D. Idrisu**

School of ManageMent ScienceS (SMS)

National Open University of Nigerian.

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UNIT 1   The Meaning, Scope, definitions and Measurement of Travel & Tourism

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UNIT 1 The Meaning, Scope, Definitions & Measurement of Travel and Tourism

CONTENTS
1.0   Introduction

Tourism has grown significantly since the creation of the commercial airline industry and the advent of the jet airplane in the 1950's. By 1992, it had become the largest industry and largest employer in the world. Together with this growth there have *emerged a number of extremely critical issues facing the industry in terms of the impacts it has already had on destination areas and its residents, and the future prospects for people and places into the coming decades.* One of the major issues in gauging tourism's total economic impact is the diversity and fragmentation of the industry itself. Besides foregoing, William *Theobald* opined that this problem is compounded by the lack of comparable tourism data since there has been no valid or reliable means of gathering comparable statistics. He proposes that the varying definitions of tourism terms internationally, and the complex and amorphous nature of tourism itself have led to difficulty in developing a valid, reliable, and credible information system or database about tourism and its contribution to local, regional, national and global economies. The author provides an introduction to the context, meaning and scope of tourism beginning not simply with basic definitions, but also a discussion on the derivation of those definitions. This leads to sections on how tourism data is gathered, measures of tourism, basic tourism units, and classification of both tourism supply and demand. Finally, he chronicles the major international developments that have occurred between 1936 and 1994 whose objectives were to reduce or eliminate the incomparability of gathering and utilizing tourism statistics.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Describe what tourism is all about and how tourism data is gathered and measured

Define tourism, a traveler and a Visitor

Explain the relevance of tourism in development of a nation

Identify why study tourism and importance of travel as part of education

Understand the meaning of purpose of trip, distance travelled, and duration of trip and

mode of transportation.
Discuss and differentiate between Domestic and Inbound tourism

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Historical Perspectives of Tourism

Fyall and **Garrod opined** that Travel has existed since the beginning of time when primitive man set out, often traversing great distances, in search of game that provided the food and clothing necessary for his survival. Throughout the course of history,
people have travelled for purposes of trade, religious conviction, economic gain, war, migration, and other equally compelling motivations. In the Roman era, wealthy aristocrats

and high government officials also travelled for pleasure. Seaside resorts located at Pompeii and Herculaneum afforded citizens the opportunity to escape to their vacation villas in order to avoid the summer heat of Rome. Travel, except during the Dark Ages, has continued to grow, and throughout recorded history has played a vital role in the development of civilizations.

Tourism as we know it today is distinctly a twentieth-century phenomena. Historians suggest that the advent of mass tourism began in England during the industrial revolution with the rise of the middle class and relatively inexpensive transportation. The creation of the commercial airline industry following World War II and the subsequent development of the jet aircraft in the 1950s signaled the rapid growth and expansion of international travel.

3.1.1 Scope and Problem Definition of Tourist and Tourism

It is extremely difficult to define precisely the words *tourist* and *tourism* because these terms have different meanings to different people, and no universal definition has yet been adopted.

For example, *Webster's New University Dictionary* defines **tourism** as 'traveling for pleasure; the business of providing tours and services for tourists,' and **a tourist** as 'one who travels for pleasure.'

These terms are inadequate synonyms for travel, and their use as such adds further confusion when the field of travel is variously referred to as the *travel industry*, the *tourism industry*, the *hospitality industry*, and most recently, the *visitor industry*. Why is so much attention given to these definitions?

According to Gee, Makens, and Choy (1997), the concern is from both an academic and a practical perspective.
'First, travel research requires a standard definition in order to establish parameters for research content, and second, without standard definitions, there can be no agreement on the measurement of tourism as an economic activity or its impact on the local, state, national or world economy.'

Therefore, comparable data are necessary requisites, *Global Tourism* and identical criteria must be used in order to obtain such data. For example, in North America, the U.S. Census Bureau and the U.S. Travel Data Center's annual travel statistics consider only those trips taken that are 100 miles or more (one-way) away from home.

However, Waters (1987) argued that this criteria is unreasonably high, and proposed instead in his annual compendium on travel that similar to the U.S. National Tourism Resources Review Commission's guidelines (1973), distances of 50 miles or more are a more realistic criteria.

On the other hand, the ***Canadian government specifies that a tourist is one who travels at least 25 miles outside his community.*** Therefore, each of these four annual data sets is quite different, and which (if any) contains the most accurate measurement of tourism activity?

 The United Nations (UN) was so concerned about the impossible task of compiling comparative data on international tourism that they convened a Conference on Trade and Development, which issued guidelines for tourism statistics (UNCTAD Secretariat, 1971).

The ensuing report suggested that the functions of a comprehensive system of national tourism statistics could serve:

(a)To measure from the demand side the volume and pattern of foreign (and domestic) tourism in the country (as well as outgoing tourism),

(b) To provide information about the supply of accommodation and other facilities used by tourists, and

© To permit an assessment to be made of the impact of tourism on the balance of payments and on the economy in general. Therefore, accurate statistical measurement of travel and tourism is important in order to assess its direct, indirect, and induced economic impacts; to assist in the planning and development of new tourist facilities
and resources; to determine current visitor patterns and help formulate
marketing and promotional strategies, and to identify changes in
tourist flows, patterns, and preferences.

3.1.2 Visitors and Tourism Definitions

Fyall and Garrod supported the definitional view that (i) *Visitor* (V): Any person travelling to a place *other than that of his/her usual environment for up to 12 months* and whose main *purpose of trip* is leisure, business, pilgrimage, health, etc., other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited or migration. Transport Crew and Commercial Travelers (even those travelling to different destinations over the year) may be regarded as travelling in their usual environment and excluded from visitors (Transport Crew are usually excluded from Frontier Control), also those travelling year round (or most the year) between two places of residence (e.g., weekend homes, residential study).

(ii) *Tourist* (T, stay-over/overnight): A visitor staying at least one night in the place visited (not necessarily in paid accommodation).

(iii) *Same-day visitor* (SDV, Excursionist, Day-visitor): A visitor who does not stay overnight in the place visited, e.g.:

(a) *Cruise Visitor* (CV), who may tour for one or more days, staying overnight on the ship (includes foreign naval personnel off duty).

(b) *Border Shopper* (BS), who may have high expenditures on purchases of food, drink, tobacco, petrol, etc.; excluding border workers.

(iv) *Travelers:* Visitors and (a) *Direct Transit Travelers* (DT, e.g., at an airport, between two nearby ports);
(b) *Commuters*, routine travel for work, study, shopping, etc.; (c) *Other Non-commuting Travel* (ONT), e.g., occasional local travel, transport crew or commercial traveler (to various destinations), migrants (including temporary work), diplomats (to/from their duty station).

(v) *Passengers* (PAX, Revenue): Travelers excluding crew, nonrevenue (or low revenue) travelers e.g., infants, free or travelling on a discount of up to 25%.

(vi) *Tourism*: The activities of visitors, persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for up to 12 months for leisure, business, pilgrimage, etc. (a) *International*: (i) Inbound, (ii) Outbound: may include overnight stay(s) in
country of residence, (b) *Domestic* (in country of residence).

(vii) *Tourism Industry*: Establishments providing services and goods to visitors, including: (a) *Hospitality* (hotels, restaurants, etc.), (b) *Transport*, (c) *Tour Operators* and *Travel Agents*, A*ttractions*, (d) Other branches of the economy supplying visitors (some of these may also provide a significant volume of services and goods to non-visitors, and the proportion of revenue etc. due to visitors is important in estimating receipts from tourism).

(viii) *The Travel and Tourism Industry* (TTI): The tourism industry (and receipts from tourism, etc.) together with the provision of goods and services by establishments to other non-commuting travelers occasional local travelers, etc.a

3.1.3 The Structure and Dimensions of Travel

Although technical definitions such as suggested previously should be applicable to both international and domestic tourism, such definitions are not necessarily used by all countries with respect to domestic tourism. However, most have adopted the three elements of the international definition, as expressed by Dunn:

(i) purpose of trip,

(ii) distance travelled, and

(iii) duration of trip. In addition, two other dimensions or elements are sometimes used to define travelers. One that is often used is

(iv) residence of traveler, and one that is used less often is

(v) mode of transportation.

(i)Purpose of trip: The notion behind this tourism dimension was to include the major components of most travel today. However, there are a number of destination areas that only include non-obligated or discretionary travel in defining tourists. They view only leisure travelers as tourists, and purposely excluded travel *solely* for business purposes.
However, one might well argue that business travel is often combined with some amount of pleasure travel. In addition, business travel to attend meetings or conferences should be included because *The meaning, scope, and measurement of travel and tourism* it is considered to be discretionary travel rather than part of the normal, daily business routine.

(ii) *Distance travelled*: For statistical purposes, when measuring travel away from home (nonlocal travel), a number of national, regional, and local agencies use total round-trip distance between place of residence and destination as the distinguishing statistical measurement factor. As indicated earlier, these distances can and do vary from zero to 100 miles (0 to 160 kilometers). Therefore, attractions that are less than the minimum prescribed distance(s) travelled are not counted in official estimates of tourism, thereby creating both artificial and arbitrary standards.
(iii) *Duration of trip*: In order to meet the written criteria for defining travellers, most definitions of tourists and/or visitors include at least one overnight stay at the destination area. However, this overnight restriction then excludes many leisure-related one-day trips that often generate substantial business for attractions, restaurants, and other recreation resources.

(iv)*Residence of traveler*: When businesses attempt to identify markets and associated marketing strategies, it is often more important for their business to identify where people live than to determine other demographic factors such as their nationality or citizenship.

(v) *Mode of transportation*: Used primarily for planning purposes, a number of destination areas collect information on visitor travel patterns by collecting information on their mode of transportation, such as air, train, ship, coach, auto, or other means. Finally, according to Williams and Shaw (1991): Each national tourist organization may record different types of information. For example, duration of stay, mode of travel, expenditure, age, socioeconomic group, and number of accompanying persons are all important aspects of tourism but these are not recorded in all tourist enumerations.

3.1.4   Major WTO/UN Definition Developments of Travel and Global Tourism

The growth of world receipts from international tourism that occurred between the two world wars led to the need for a more precise statistical definition of tourism. An international forum held in 1936, The Committee of Statistical Experts of the League of Nations, first proposed that a 'foreign tourist' is one who 'visits a country other than that in which he habitually lives for a period of at least twenty-four hours.' In 1945, the UN (which had replaced the League of Nations) endorsed this definition, but added to it a maximum duration of stay of less than six months. Other international bodies have chosen to extend this to one year or less.

A UN Conference on International Travel and Tourism held in Rome in 1963 and sponsored by the International Union of Official Travel Organizations (IUOTO) (now the WTO)

recommended that a new word, '**visitor' be adopted, which would *define tourists* as *'any person visiting a country other than that in which he has his usual place of residence, for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited.'*** Visitors included two distinct categories of travelers: (1) tourists: temporary visitors staying at least 24 hours in the country visited, and whose purpose was for leisure, business, family, mission, or meeting; and (2) excursionists: temporary visitors staying *less* than 24 hours in the destination visited and not staying overnight (including cruise ship travelers). Since 1963, most world nations have accepted the definitions of *visitor, tourist*, and *excursionist* that were proposed by the UN Conference and many of the revisions made subsequently.

At their 1967 meeting in Geneva, the UN Statistical Commission recommended that a separate class of visitor be established. Tourists stay at least 24 hours, but because some visitors take excursions then return back to their place of residence the same day, they were to be called, 'excursionists.' This group included daily visitors with purposes other than employment, cruise passengers, and visitors in transit. Excursionists could be easily distinguished from other visitors because there was no overnight stay involved.

The definition of the term visitor, refined in 1963, refers to only international tourism. However, although it is more difficult to measure, it is quite obvious that it is also applicable to national (domestic) tourism as well. For example, in 1980, the WTO's Manila Declaration implicitly extended the definition to all tourism. According to Bar On (1989), the Working Party on Tourism Statistics of the WTO Commission for Europe agreed that recommendations on domestic tourism, although narrower than international tourism, were nevertheless compatible. These definitions have undergone subsequent refinements, and it would appear that the WTO/UN definition of tourism should have created a uniform basis for collection of standardized tourism data. Although the majority of countries use these definitions, unfortunately, not all adhere to them.
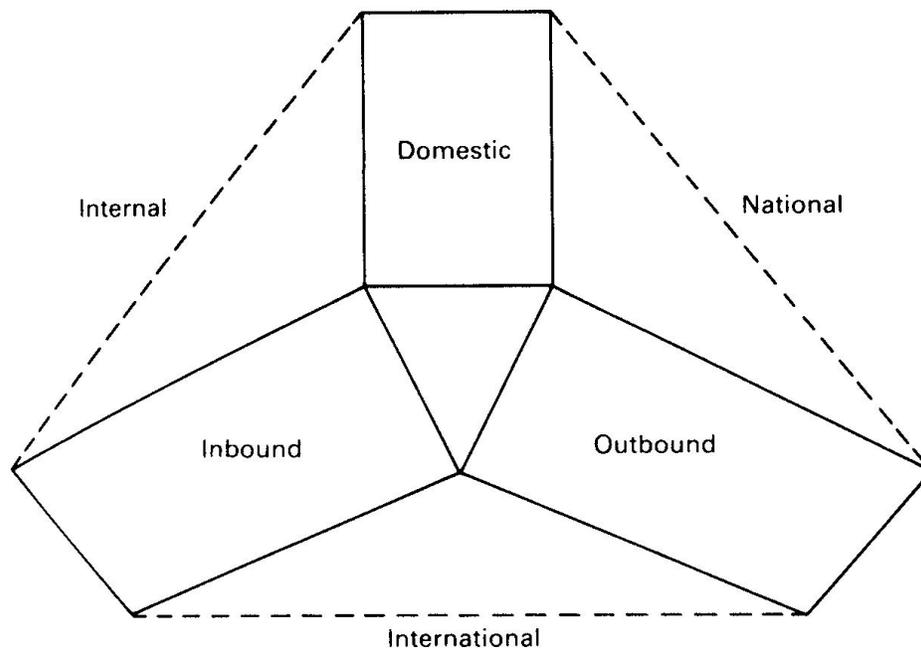
Figure 1.1: Forms of tourism.
Source: World Tourism Organization.

3.1.5 Basic Tourism Units Definitions

As indicated by Figure 1.1, for a given country, three basic forms of tourism were first identified, then defined as:

(i) *Domestic tourism*: residents visiting their own country,

(ii) *Inbound tourism*: nonresidents travelling in a given country, and

(iii). *Outbound tourism*: residents travelling in another country. These forms can be combined in a number of ways in order to derive the following categories of tourism:

(iv) *Internal tourism*: involves both domestic and inbound tourism,

(v) *National tourism*: involves both domestic and outbound tourism, and

3.1.5 International Tourism

International tourism involves both inbound and outbound tourism. It should be noted that although this figure refers to a country, it could be applied to any other geographic area(s). Basic tourism units refer to individuals/households that are the subject of tourism activities and therefore can be considered as statistical units in surveys. 'Travelers refers to all individuals making a trip between two countries or different destinations.

 Global Tourism, for many tourism organizations, performance is dependent on establishing collaborative relationships in order to better serve the customer. The message this unit conveys is that due to economic, social and political pressures, the primary concern of tourism organizations must shift from an individual and competitive focus to an inter-organizational, collaborative domain. The authors provide examples of tourism collaboration and suggest that it is becoming increasingly more difficult for organizations to survive in competitive isolation in tourism.

3.1.6 Referring Tourism as an Industry Issue

In Davidson view, he links the question of whether tourism is really an industry to the misunderstanding, resistance and hostility that often plague proponents of travel and tourism as worthy economic forces in a modern economy. He questions the common practice, especially as suggested in the literature of referring to tourism as an industry. He contends that such a designation may not be correct, and that tourism is not an industry at all. He states that much of the current misunderstanding, resistance and even hostility plaguing proponents of tourism may be due to its mistakenly being called an industry.

Three arguments for tourism's designation as an industry are:

It needs to gain the respect it now lacks among other competing economic sectors;

It needs sound, accurate and meaningful data in order to assess its economic contribution, and;

It needs to provide a sense of self-identity to its practitioners.

Similar to the previous unit, the author decries the difficulty in defining the terms tourist and tourism among others. He contends that tourism is not an industry at all and suggests that rather than a production activity or product, tourism should be viewed as a social phenomenon, an experience or a process. Therefore, defining tourism as an industry is incorrect and demeaning to what it really is.

While the editor agrees with the author that tourism is largely a social phenomenon and experience, and the tourism industry is complex and difficult to define precisely, nevertheless, he believes the preponderance of evidence supports the position that tourism can be industrially classified and measured, and therefore, can indeed be counted as an industry. The debate continues. For many people, much time and effort is expended by looking back to an earlier time in their lives, perhaps in an attempt to recapture a past that for them was happier or more rewarding than what the future might hold.

The past has always been more orderly, more memorable, and most of all, safer. A provocative insight on the meaning and substance of tourism is provided by **Dann** striking at the heart of the motivation for so much travel: nostalgia. The Western drive of escapism to the numerous outlets of yesteryear are enhanced by the 'evocation of the past as a promise to the future'. Daun, further stated that tourism is the nostalgia industry of the future. He suggests that tourism has employed nostalgia for its own financial advantage.

3.1.7 Nostalgia and Tourism

A strong connection between nostalgia and tourism is explored, especially as related to historical figures, accommodations, attractions and cultural institutions. In addition, it is pointed out that tourists often have a strange fascination for tragic, macabre or other equally unappealing historical sites. Nostalgia is grounded in dissatisfaction with social arrangements, both currently and likely continuing into the future. Nostalgia tourism that provides an alternative to the present does so by recourse to an imagined past that people often believe is fact.

Self Assessment Questions

From your understanding of this unit, explain the following:

Who is a Tourist (T, stay-over/overnight)?

Who is *Same-day visitor* (SDV, Excursionist, Day-visitor)?

Explain the meaning of *Cruise Visiting* (CV) ?

4.0 Summary

Third World countries living for generations in one village could not comprehend the concept of nostalgia. On the other hand, today's dislocated Western tourist often travels in order to experience nostalgia. Tourism collateral literature and publicity which is based upon nostalgic images of the past promote glamour and happiness, provide something to be envied, and return love of self to the reader. Nostalgia is big business, and when it is associated with the world's leading industry, tourism, it offers unlimited financial possibilities. Although collaboration is now commonplace in most industrial sectors, **Fyall** and **Garrod** suggest that for years, the tourism industry was (and remains in some instances) highly fragmented and independent. With the accelerating pace of technological innovation and the continuing trend toward globalization, traditional competitive and adversarial relationships between competing business organizations is giving way to collaborative arrangements between them.

5.0 Conclusion

Tourism Industry, Largest Employer of labour whose growth led to the development of a major new industry major tourism in turn, international tourism became the concern of a number of world governments because it not only provided new employment opportunities, but *it also produced a means of earning foreign exchange.*

Today tourism has grown significantly in both economic and social importance. The fastest growing economic sector of most industrialized countries over the past several years has been in the area of services.

One of the largest segments of the service industry, although largely unrecognized as an entity in some of these countries, is travel and tourism.

According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (2003) (WTTC), travel and tourism is the biggest industry in the world on virtually any economic measure, including gross output, value added, capital investment, employment, and tax contributions.

In 2003, the industry's gross output was estimated to be in excess of US$4.5 billion of economic activity (total demand), more than 10 percent of the total gross national product spending. The travel and tourism industry is one of the world's largest employers, with nearly 195 million jobs, or 7.6 percent of all employees. This industry is the world's leading industrial contributor, producing 10.2 percent of the world gross domestic product, and accounting for capital investment in excess of US$685 billion in new facilities and equipment. In addition, it *contributes more than US$650 billion in direct, indirect, and personal taxes each year.* As indicated by Table 1.1, research conducted by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) show the almost *uninterrupted growth of tourism since 1950.*

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) From your study of this unit and according to UNCTAD Secretariat, 1971, discuss the guidelines that the ensuing report suggested that the functions of a comprehensive system of national tourism statistics could serve?

(ii) Besides providing great employment opportunities for the industry, mention and

Explain another major benefit that has attracted world governments into the industry?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

Tourist (T, stay-over/overnight): A visitor staying at least one night in the place visited (not necessarily in paid accommodation).

(iii) *Same-day visitor* (SDV, Excursionist, Day-visitor): A visitor who does not stay overnight in the place visited.

(a) *Cruise Visitor* (CV), A visitor who may tour for one or more days, staying overnight on the ship (includes foreign naval personnel off duty).

Unit 2   Economic and Social Impact of Tourism

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Unit 2   Economic and Social Impact of Global Tourism

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

Peter E. Murphy, opined that today tourism has grown significantly in both economic and social importance.
In this unit, we shall be studying the fastest growing economic sector of most industrialized countries over the past several years in tourism industry and this has been in the area of its services.
One of the largest segments of the service industry, although largely unrecognized.

We will in this unit study further travels and tourism economic and financial business activities, economic predictions and as well as lucrative strong nature of this rapidly growing leader in boosting profitability and enormous sustained jobs creation an entity in some of these countries, in multinational and transnational travel and tourism organizations.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain the economic benefit of tourism
Identify social benefit of tourism
Discuss the tools used in measuring impact of tourism
Explain the global tourism issues

3.0 Main Content

3.1.1   Economic and Social Impact of Global Tourism

According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (2003) (WTTC), travel and tourism is the biggest industry in the world on virtually any economic measure, including gross output, value added, capital investment, employment, and tax contributions.

In 2003, the industry's gross output was estimated to be in excess of US$4.5 billion of economic activity (total demand), more than 10 percent of the total gross national product spending. The travel and tourism industry is one of the world's largest employers, with nearly 195 million jobs, or 7.6 percent of all employees.

This industry is the world's leading industrial contributor, producing 10.2 percent of the world gross domestic product, and accounting for capital investment in excess of US$685 billion in new facilities and equipment. In addition, it contributes more than US$650 billion in direct, indirect, and personal taxes each year.

As indicated by Table 1.1, research conducted by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) show the almost uninterrupted growth of tourism since 1950. Frechtling (2001) suggests that Futurist John Naisbitt in his best-selling book, *Global Paradox*, subscribes to the concept that tourism will be one of the three industries that will drive the world economy into the twenty first century.

Reinforcing Naisbitt's concept is data provided for the WTTC suggesting that there will continue to be significant increases in tourism in the coming years (Table 1.2).

3.1.2 Global Tourism Economic Growth Predictions

Table 1.1 World Tourism Growth: 1950–2002

Year	International Tourist Arrivals (millions)	International Tourist Receipts (billions in US$)
1950	25.3	2.1
1960	69.3	6.8
1970	165.8	17.9
1980	286.0	105.3
1985	327.2	118.1
1990	457.3	263.4
1995	552.3	406.5
1996	596.5	435.6
1997	618.2	439.6
1998	626.4	442.5
1999	652.2	456.3
2000	696.7	474.4
2001	692.7	462.2
2002b	715.6	478.0

(a) International transport receipts excluded.
(b) Estimates.

Source: World Tourism Organization p.234, 2003. *World Tourism in 2002: Better than Expected.* Madrid: WTO News Release.

The WTTC (2003) predicted that during the next decade, world travel and tourism is expected to achieve annualized real growth of:
• 4.6 percent in total travel and tourism demand to US$8.939 billion in 2013;
• 3.6 percent for the industry directly to US$2.279 billion and to US$6.461 billion for the travel and economy overall in 2013;
• 2.2 percent in travel and tourism employment to 83,893,600 jobs directly in the industry, and 2.4 percent to 247,205,000 jobs in the travel and tourism economy overall in 2012;
• 7.1 percent in visitor exports, rising to US$1.308 billion in 2013;
• 4.3 percent in terms of capital investment, increasing to US$1.308 billions in

2013; and
• 3.0 percent in terms of government expenditures to US$378.2 billion
in 2013.
However, one of the major problems of the travel and tourism industry that has hidden or obscured its economic impact is the diversity and fragmentation of the industry itself.

3.1.3 The Assessment of Economic and Employment impact of Travel Industry

The travel industry includes hotels, motels, and other types of accommodation; restaurants and other food services; transportation services and facilities; amusements, attractions, and other leisure facilities; gift shops; and a large number of other enterprises. Because many of these businesses also serve local residents, the impact of spending by visitors can easily be overlooked or underestimated. In addition, Meis (1992) points out that the tourism industry involves concepts that have remained amorphous to both analysts and decision makers. Moreover, in all nations, this problem has made it.

Table 1.2 WTTC Research Projections for Economic and Employment Growth
(world estimates 1996 -2006)

Category	1996	2006	Real Growth
Jobs	255 million	385 million 50.1%	
Jobs (%)	10.7%	11.1%	—
Output	US$3.6 trillion	US$7.1 trillion	48.7%
Gross Domestic Product	10.7%	11.5%	49.6%
Investment	US$766 billion	US$1.6 trillion	57.3%
Exports	US$761 billion	US$1.5 trillion	51.2%
Total Taxes	US$653 billion	US$1.3 trillion	49.6%

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council, Research & Statistical Data. 1997.
Worldwide Web page, *http://www.wttc.org/.*

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• 4.3 percent in terms of capital investment, increasing to US$1.308 billion in 2013; and
• 3.0 percent in terms of government expenditures to US$378.2 billion in 2013.

or more geographic locations, either in their country of residence (domestic travelers) or between countries (international travelers). However, as can be seen in Figure 1.2, there is a distinction made between two types of travelers, *visitors* and *other travelers*.

All travelers who are engaged in the activity of tourism are considered to be 'visitors.' The term 'visitor' then becomes the core concept around which the entire system of tourism statistics is based.

A secondary division of the term 'visitor' is made into two categories:

1. Tourists (overnight visitors) and

2. Same-day visitors (formerly called 'excursionists'). Therefore, the term 'visitor' can be described for statistical purposes as 'any person travelling to a place other than that of his/her usual environment for less than twelve months and whose main purpose of trip is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.'

3.2 *Classification of Travelers Segments of Tourism*

An extended classification system of tourism demand delineating the main purpose(s) of visits or trips by major groups was developed based on that first proposed by the UN (1979) (Figure 1.3). This system was designed to help measure the major segments of tourism demand for planning and marketing purposes.
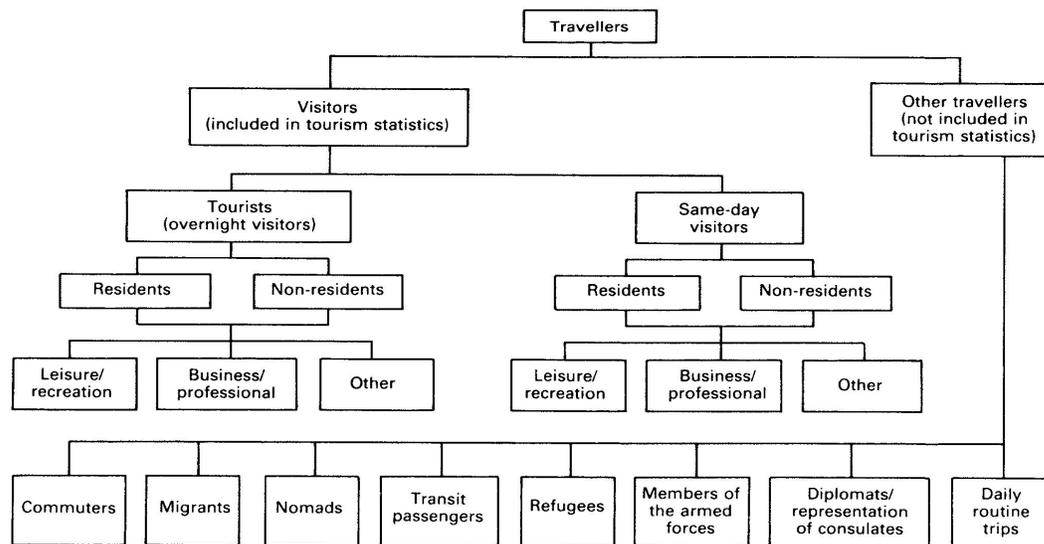

Figure 1.3: Classification of travelers.
Source: World Tourism Organization and the Travel and Tourism Research Organization.

3.2.1 The major groups purposes for tourists and travelers visitation and travel

The major groups are inclusive of the following:

1. Leisure, recreation, and holidays;
2. Visiting friends and relatives;
3. Business and professional;
4. Health treatment;
5. Religion/pilgrimages; and
6. Other (crews on public carriers, transit, and other or unknown activities).

3.2.2 Other measures of tourism demand enumerated.

The demand enumerated were;

1. Duration of stay or trip,
2. Origin and destination of trip,
3. Area of residence or destination within countries,
4. Means of transportation, and
5. Tourism accommodation.

Each of these demand measures was first defined, then where possible, specific examples of each were indicated. Paci (1992) argued however, that not only tourism demand should be considered, but more importantly, tourism 'must seek to more clearly delineate a supply-based conceptual structure for its activities because that is the source of most national economic statistics.' When incorporated into supply-based statistics, the relationship and relative importance of tourism to other economic sectors can be more easily recognised. In addition, Paci pointed out that because such a system would not only foster and provide for greater comparability among national tourism statistics, but would also 'provide statistical linkage between the supply side of tourism and the demand side.'

3.2.3 Classification of Tourism Supply
Tourism expenditure data are one of the most significant indicators used to monitor and evaluate the impact of tourism on an economy and on the various representative tourism industry segments.

The Conference has defined *tourism expenditure* as 'the total consumption expenditure made by a visitor or on behalf of a visitor for and during his/her trip and stay at destination.' It has been proposed that tourist expenditures be divided into three broad categories, depending on the specific periods the visitor makes those expenditures.

The first, advanced spending that is necessary to prepare for the trip (trip purpose); second, expenses while travelling to, and those at the travel destination (trip location) and; third, travel-related spending made at home after returning from the trip (trip conclusion).

3.2.4 Sources of Tourism Consumption Expenditure

It has also been recommended that tourism consumption expenditures
should be identified by a system of main categories, and should include:
(i) Packaged travel (holidays and prepaid tour arrangements);

(ii). Accommodations (hotels, motels, resorts, campgrounds, etc.);

(iii) Food and drinking establishments (restaurants, cafes, taverns, etc.);
(iv) Transport (airplane, rail, ship, bus, auto, taxi, etc.);
(v) Recreation, culture, and sporting activities;
(vi) Shopping; and
(vii) Other.

3.2.5 TSA Assessment of Economy of the Demand of Goods and Services by Visitors

The fundamental structure of the TSA relies on the existing balance within
the economy of the demand for goods and services generated by visitors
and other consumers, and the overall supply of these goods and services.
Therefore, TSA will be able to measure the following:
• Tourism's contribution to gross domestic product,
• Tourism's ranking compared with other economic sectors,
• The number of jobs created by tourism in an economy,
• The amount of tourism investment,
• Tax revenues generated by tourism industries,
• Tourism consumption,
• Tourism's impact on a nation's balance of payments, and
• Characteristics of tourism human resources.

The WTO will be largely responsible for reviewing and revising the definitions, classifications, methodologies, data collection, and analysis of international tourism proposed by the Ottawa Conference. However, the ultimate success or failure of gathering and using comparable tourism statistical data lies with their acceptance and implementation by the entire world community.

Self Assessment Questions

From your study of tourism in this unit, explain the following:

(i) Who is a visitor and indicate also on what concept is tourism statistics based?

(ii) What do you understand by tourism expenditure?

4   Conclusion

Thus, we define a tourist as *a person travelling outside of his or her normal routine, either normal living or normal working routine, who spends money.* This definition of visitor/tourist includes:

• People who stay in hotels, motels, resorts, or campgrounds;

• People who visit friends or relatives;

• People who visit while just passing through going somewhere else;

• People who are on a day trip (do not stay overnight); and

• An 'all other' category of people on boats, who sleep in a vehicle of some sort, or who otherwise do not fit the above. For purposes of this definition a resident (or someone who is not a tourist) is defined as a person staying longer than 30 days. Note that visitors/tourists can:

• Be attending a meeting or convention;

• Be business travelers outside of their home office area; be on a group tour;
• Be on an individual leisure or vacation trip, including recreational shopping; or

• Be travelling for personal or family-related reasons. In today's world there are three problems with this definition:

(i). Some people travel considerable distances to shop, especially at factory outlets. They may do so many times a year. They are difficult to measure. Technically they are not tourists; their shopping has become routine.

(ii) Some people maintain two residences—a winter home and a summer home. Their stay in either one usually exceeds one month and these people are *not* classified as tourists. Again, their travel is routine. However, short stay visitors to their homes whether renting or not *are* tourists.

(iii) When people live in an area just outside of a destination and have friends or relatives visit them, how are these visitors classified when they visit the destination? Actually, the problem here is not whether they are tourists; those visiting friends or relatives clearly are. Rather, the question is which area gets the credit? Or, how should the people they are visiting be classified? Again, although measurement is difficult, the destination area should be credited for money spent therein. Tourism, then can be viewed as:

• A social phenomenon, *not* a production activity;

• The sum of the expenditures of all travelers or visitors for all purposes, *not* the receipt of a select group of similar establishments; and

• An experience or process, *not* a product—an extremely varied experience at that.

To underscore this view of tourism, let us focus on the economic impact of tourism on the economic health of a community.

5   Summary

Now that such an international definition/classification system for the tourism sector does exist, there is finally a universal basis for the collection of standardized data on tourism activity. The implementation of the TSA system has now been placed with the National Statistical Offices throughout the world.

The credibility and legitimacy of this statistical system will be based on the joint cooperation of both the National Statistical Offices and the National Tourism Administrations in each

world country. However, although there has been significant progress in reaching consensus on what constitutes *international* tourism, there is no such consensus in *domestic* tourism

terminology. Therefore, caution must be exercised because a clear distinction must be made between basic definitions of tourism and those elements that describe tourists themselves, and their demographic and behavioral characteristics.

Because the tourist is the principal component of tourism, it is therefore unrealistic to develop uniform tourism data without first deciding the types of variables and the range of phenomena that should be included in data collection efforts.

6.0　Tutor Marked Assignment

(i)　State and explain your understanding of the WTO definition of Global Tourism?

(ii) Can tourism maximize economic contribution to national benefits, why or why not, explain ?

7.0　References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) All travelers who are engaged in the activity of tourism are considered to be 'visitors.' The term 'visitor' then becomes the core concept around which the entire system of tourism statistics is based.

(ii) Tourism expenditure is the total consumption expenditure made by a visitor or on behalf of a visitor for and during his/her trip and stay at destination.' It has been proposed that tourist expenditures be divided into three broad categories, depending on the specific periods the visitor makes those expenditures.

UNIT 3 Development and Marketing of Tourism

CONTENTS

UNIT 3 DEVELOPMENT AND MARKETING OF TOURISM

CONTENT

1.0 Introduction

In this unit, we shall study the development of tourism and marketing of tourism tangible and intangible services. We shall also look into the argument of tourism being an industry or not. The intent of this unit is not to suggest that this designation may not be correct. In fact, Dunn contends that tourism is not an industry at all, it is people. At best, it is a collection of industries. Furthermore, Dunn suggest that referring to tourism as an industry may be a major contributor to the misunderstanding, resistance, and even hostility that often plague proponents of travel and tourism as worthy economic forces in a modern economy.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain why travel and tourism is called an industry

Identify key marketing variables of tourism

Discuss best measure of economic impact of tourism

Describe advantages of tourism

Enumerate the disadvantages of tourism

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Development and Marketing of Tourism

Under this 'industry' view, the tourism industry is made up of a clearly defined grouping of firms that are perceived to be primarily in the business of selling to or serving tourists. Hotels, restaurants, transportation, and amusements are examples of the types of firms that comprise the tourism industry.

The United Nations identifies 7 industrial areas, whereas the U.S. Travel Data Center includes some 14 types of businesses as defined by the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system.

Common practice, at least among those who are involved in the development and marketing of tourism, is to refer to (travel and) tourism as an industry. In fact, considerable effort has been devoted to creating the impression that tourism is a legitimate industry, worthy of being compared with other industries such as health services, energy, or agriculture.

The importance of tourism is underscored by referring to it as 'one of the top three industries in most states,' 'largest or next to largest retail industry,' or 'largest employer (industry) in the world.'(i). **Economist** defines *an industry as being a group of independent firms all turning out the same product. Whether or not two products are 'the same' is defined in terms of their substitutability expressed as the cross-elasticity of demand.* In lay terms, the more that the purchase of Product A replaces (can be substituted for) the purchase of Product B, the more A and B are the same and hence in the same industry.

(iii)The second source for definitions are the SIC manuals. Such publications suggest that the SIC system was developed to classify establishments by the type of activity in which they are engaged. To be recognized as an industry, a group of establishments must share a common primary activity and be statistically significant in size.

It is clear that the focus of 'industry' is:

• Individual business establishments grouped together,

• The revenue received by these economic units, and

• Producing and selling a common product, i.e., the product of one firm is a substitute for the product of any other firm in the same industry. And it is equally clear that the 'manufacturing' sector provides the framework for this focus. Thus, to the extent that tourism is an industry, economists and others will position tourism in terms of these factors—individual businesses, revenues of those businesses, and a common product.

But what is travel and tourism? Do they fit this industry mould? To answer these questions we need to define a tourist and tourism and then relate this phenomenon to an industry as defined above.

Clearly, there is confusion and controversy surrounding the definitions of travel and tourism. Are they the same or are tourists only seeking pleasure whereas travelers may also be on business? How far must one travel from home to be a tourist/traveler? Does paying for a room make one a tourist? . . . And so forth. From the viewpoint of economic development and/or economic impact, a visitor, nominally called a tourist, is someone who comes to an area, spends money, and leaves.

We employ an economic framework to be comparable with the concept of 'industry,' which is an economic term. The reasons for the visit, length of stay, length of trip, or distances from home are immaterial.

Thus, **we define a tourist** as *a person travelling outside of his or her normal routine, either nor mal living or normal working routine, who spends money*. This definition of visitor/tourist includes:

• People who stay in hotels, motels, resorts, or campgrounds;

• People who visit friends or relatives;

• People who visit while just passing through going somewhere else;

• People who are on a day trip (do not stay overnight); and

• An 'all other' category of people on boats, who sleep in a vehicle of some sort, or who otherwise do not fit the above. For purposes of this definition a resident (or someone who is not a tourist) is defined as a person staying longer than 30 days. Note that visitors/tourists can:

• Be attending a meeting or convention;

• Be business travelers outside of their home office area; be on a group tour;
• Be on an individual leisure or vacation trip, including recreational shopping; or

• Be travelling for personal or family-related reasons. In today's world there are three problems with this definition:

(i). Some people travel considerable distances to shop, especially at factory outlets. They may do so many times a year. They are difficult to measure. Technically they are not tourists; their shopping has become routine.

(ii) Some people maintain two residences—a winter home and a summer home. Their stay in either one usually exceeds one month and these people are *not* classified as tourists. Again, their travel is routine. However, short stay visitors to their homes whether renting or not *are* tourists.

(iii) When people live in an area just outside of a destination and have friends or relatives visit them, how are these visitors classified when they visit the destination? Actually, the problem here is not whether they are tourists; those visiting friends or relatives clearly are. Rather, the question is which area gets the credit? Or, how should the people they are visiting be classified? Again, although measurement is difficult, the destination area should be credited for money spent therein. Tourism, then can be viewed as:

• A social phenomenon, *not* a production activity;

• The sum of the expenditures of all travelers or visitors for all purposes, *not* the receipt of a select group of similar establishments; and

• An experience or process, *not* a product—an extremely varied experience at that.

To underscore this view of tourism, let us focus on the economic impact of tourism on the economic health of a community.

3.1.1 Measure of Economic Impact and Typology
The best measure of this economic impact is not the receipts of a few types of business. Rather, the economic impact of tourism begins with the *sum total of all expenditures by all tourists*. This impact includes some of the receipts of accommodations, restaurants, attractions, petrol (gas) stations—the traditional tourism-orientated businesses. (We might note that these are vastly dissimilar businesses.)

However, it also includes retail purchases that often amount to more than the money spent for lodging. These include services (haircuts, car repairs), highway tolls in some countries, church contributions, and so forth. In fact, visitors spend money on just about everything that residents do. Thus, any and every 'industry' that sells to consumers is in receipt of cash from tourism. Clearly, the criteria of similar activity or common product or production process are *not* met in tourism! Further, the requirement of substitution is not met either.

More often than not, most of these expenditures go together as complementary or supplementary purchases. Thus, food is not competitive with lodging. A visitor buys both. Seen this way, travel and tourism—the movement of people outside their normal routine for business, pleasure, or personal reasons—is much, much more than an 'industry' in the traditional sense.

As an economic force, it is the impact of everything the visitor or tourist spends. Thus, we really have an expenditure-driven phenomenon, not a receipts driven one.
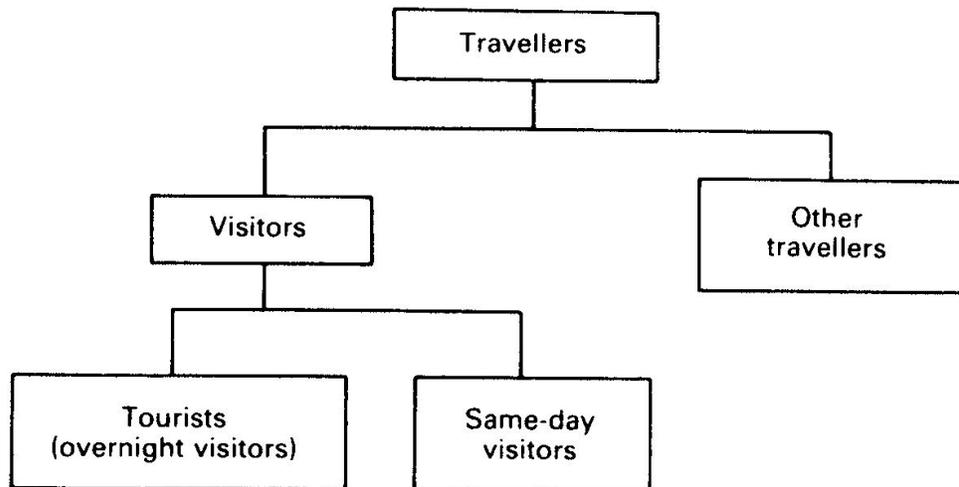
Figure 1.2: Traveler typology.
Source: Travel and Tourism Research Association p.55 2006.

or more geographic locations, either in their country of residence (domestic travelers) or between countries (international travelers). However, as can be seen in Figure 1.2, there is a distinction made between two types of travelers, *visitors* and *other travelers*.

 All travelers who are engaged in the activity of tourism are considered to be 'visitors.' The term 'visitor' then becomes the core concept around which the entire system of tourism statistics is based.

A secondary division of the term 'visitor' is made into two categories:

1. Tourists (overnight visitors) and

2. Same-day visitors (formerly called 'excursionists'). Therefore, the term 'visitor' can be described for statistical purposes as 'any person travelling to a place other than that of his/her usual environment for less than twelve months and whose main purpose of trip is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited.'

3.1.2 *Classification of Tourism Demand for Planning & Marketing Purposes*

An extended classification system of tourism demand delineating the main purpose(s) of visits or trips by major groups was developed based on that first proposed by the UN (1979). This system was designed to help measure the major segments of tourism demand for planning and marketing purposes.

With so much effort to sell tourism as an industry, specifically an 'export industry,' what is the purpose of questioning this designation? Are not many of these people just going to fight for their viewpoint? These are legitimate questions. However, theobald opined that he believe that there are several important, and negative, ramifications in attempting to make tourism an industry when, in fact, it is not an industry in the traditional sense. Let me comment on three such negative ramifications.

The first negative ramification comes from the disbelief that is created. Somehow, whether it is conscious or subconscious, people know that tourism does not fit the traditional definition of an industry. This disbelief tends to discredit the arguments supporting the importance of tourism and the level of support that tourism and tourism growth deserve.

How often do we hear economic development proponents say that tourism is not an industry and, therefore, not economic development? In essence, this ramification says that when people recognize—correctly— that tourism does not fit the classic definition of an industry, then they discredit the argument that tourism deserves the benefits that accrue to a *legitimate industry*.

The second negative ramification is subtler. It says that the attempt to define tourism as an industry has led to attempts to employ traditional methods of measurement and analysis to the study of tourism. But traditional methods just do not work well. One result has been inaccurate results that often understate the size, impact, or benefits to a community of the tourism phenomenon. Let me offer two examples:

(a) The issue of business receipts versus total tourism expenditures. Receipts of specific businesses are the traditional method for measuring an industry. Usually, the total receipts of all of the relevant business units are summed. Yet few businesses receive all of their receipts from tourists and few consumer businesses receive no money at all from tourists. Thus, tourist expenditure is the better measure of the size, scope, and impact of tourism.

(b) The issue of substitute or competitive goods versus supplementary or complementary goods. Traditionally, members of an industry compete on some level for the same money.

If a visitor stays tonight in Hotel A, he or she does not spend tonight in Hotel B, and hotels are an industry. However, many expenditures of tourists are complementary. When spending the night in Hotel A, the tourist travels, eats, pays for entertainment, and may buy a gift to

take home. Taking one action does not necessarily exclude taking another action. It is more probable that all are done during the course of the stay.

The third negative ramification relates directly to the disadvantage tourism faces for public funding. When tourism—an industry made up of individual business firms seeking their own benefit—comes up against education, public health, crime prevention, infrastructure repair or development, etc. (all seen as serving society as a whole), the problem before the appropriations committee is clear. Why should government use limited funds to support one industry—and a 'frivolous' one at that— when there are so many social ills that demand attention? As an industry, tourism is often seen as self-serving when, in fact, it is a key ingredient in the economic health of the community. Thriving tourism can be key to attending to these other issues. Thus, the question raised by this issue is, 'Does the "industry" designation make it harder to argue, and win, the broader implication?' Frankly, as one who has been intimately involved in these confrontations, Daun contends, I believe that it does. The net of this argument is that to truly understand, measure, analyze, and sell tourism we need to go beyond traditional thinking. *We need to 'think outside of the box.'*

• If we are to study tourism to expand it or to control it, is it not better to have an accurate understanding and definition?

• If we are to communicate the value of tourism, is it not more effective to reflect the totality of tourism and not just champion a few industries?

In sum, Daun asserted, that *defining tourism as an industry is incorrect*; and further, *this definition demeans what tourism really is. Tourism is a social/economic phenomenon that acts both as an engine of economic progress and as a social force. Tourism is much more than an industry. Tourism is more like a 'sector' that impacts a wide range of industries. Tourism is not just businesses or governments—it is people.*

Supporting rational tourism growth and development needs to be viewed in this broader context. Given today's economic conditions, environmental concerns, evil, turmoil, and strife, positioning tourism properly takes on added importance. Maybe now is the time to rethink the 'industry' classification and find a way to communicate more clearly just how important tourism's health is to our economy.

3.1.3 Advantages of tourism

(i) The first advantage is the need to gain respect, respect based on understanding the contribution that tourism makes to economic health.

(ii) Tourism has an image problem. It is not really perceived as a legitimate part of economic development. For some, tourism is not even a legitimate part of government and in today's budget crises, not worthy of funding. If tourism can argue that it really is an industry worthy of being considered on the same terms as other recognized industries, then the image of and the support for tourism will improve.

(iii) The next advantage is the need for a sound framework to tabulate, analyze, and publish data about tourism—data that are accurate, meaningful, and believable.

(iv) Historically, economists have used the 'industry' as the basis for measurement and study. If tourism wants to be measured and studied seriously, it follows then that tourism must be an industry. Only by treating tourism as an industry can tourism be compared with other industries in the world economy.

(v) There is a need among some in 'tourism' for a format for self-identity. Being part of an industry is a clear and easy way to achieve identity and the self-esteem that goes with identity.

(vi) Tourism is *beset by many outside pressures: world events; budget problems* and mounting deficits; recession; the staggering need for funds to support education, health care, social needs, and crime prevention; and the maturing, competitive tourism marketplace. In this environment, a great effort has been devoted to legitimizing tourism as a key industry in today's service economy.

(vii) In great measure, these efforts have been successful. But, is this 'success' really positive? Or has the 'industry' label actually hurt the cause that this designation is supposed to champion. To answer this question we need to define what an industry is, use this definition as a framework to look at tourism, and then consider the ramifications of the difference.

3.1.4 Disadvantages of Tourism

One of the major problems of the travel and tourism industry that has hidden or obscured its economic impact is the diversity and fragmentation of the industry itself.

The travel industry includes hotels, motels, and other types of accommodation; restaurants and other food services; transportation services and facilities; amusements, attractions, and other leisure facilities; gift shops; and a large number of other enterprises. Because many of these businesses also serve local residents, the impact of spending by visitors can easily be overlooked or underestimated.

A review of any of the statistics published by the WTO/UN points out the innumerable footnotes to the data indicating national variations, differences in data collection methodology, and significant diversity in terminology standards. Indeed, one of the important tasks of the WTO is to work systematically to improve and help develop definitions and classifications of tourism that are of worldwide application and that emphasize both clarity and simplicity in their application.

Throughout Europe, Wöber (2000) suggests that 'unfortunately, city tourism office managers have very little influence on the local authorities who are usually responsible for conducting national and regional tourism research studies.' Although in 1995 the Federation of European Cities Tourist Offices (FECTO) attempted to establish a common database of primary city tourism statistics among their members, nonetheless it has proved unworkable because of the lack of uniform reporting and definitional difference.

In addition, Meis (1992) points out that the tourism industry involves concepts that have remained amorphous to both analysts and decision makers. Moreover, in all nations, this problem has made it difficult for the industry to develop any type of reliable or credible tourism information base in order to estimate the contribution it makes to regional, national, and global economies.

3.2 Classification System of Tourism

In June 1991, 250 individuals representing 90 countries participated in a landmark meeting held at Ottawa, Canada, and cosponsored by the WTO and Tourism Canada. This meeting, The International Conference on Travel and Tourism Statistics (1991) had three primary aims:

1. Development of a uniform and integrated definition and classification system of tourism statistics,

2. Implementation of a strict methodology for determining the economic impact of tourism and the performance of various sectors of the industry, and

3. Establishment of both a means of dialogue between governments and the tourism industry and a coherent work program for collecting tourism statistics and information.

The Conference was successful in agreeing on approaches to standardize tourism terminology and industrial classifications, as well as indicators of market growth, economic impact, and overall industry development.

3.2.1 Tourism in Export Marketing

All delegates to the Conference endorsed the concepts, measures, and definitions that were proposed in the resolutions that came out of the meetings. In 1993, the UN accepted the report of the WTO and adopted the recommendations of the UN Secretariat's Statistical Division pertaining to tourism statistics.
One of the principal findings that came out of the conference resolutions *(WTO, 1991)* **recommended that <u>tourism be defined</u>** as: *the activities of a person travelling to a place outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within*
the place visited. In addition, **tourism was further defined** as *the activities of people travelling for leisure, business, and other purposes to places outside their usual environment and staying for no more than one consecutive year.* BarOn (1996) has compiled a helpful list of those WTO/UN-adopted definitions as shown in

However, the nature of this very diversity makes travel and tourism an ideal vehicle for economic development in a wide variety of countries, regions, or communities. Once the exclusive province of the wealthy, travel and tourism have become an institutionalized way of life for most of the world's middleclass population.

Self Assessment Questions

(i) When does the economic impact of tourism begins and

(ii) What are the impacts?

4.0 Conclusion

For too long, the tourism industry, both international and domestic, has had great difficulty making statistical comparisons with other sectors of the economy. In all nations, this has led to difficulty in developing valid, reliable, and credible information or databases about tourism and its contribution to local, regional, national, and global economies.

5.0 Summary

In addition, Meis (1992) points out that the tourism industry involves concepts that have remained amorphous to both analysts and decision makers. Moreover, in all nations, this problem has made it difficult for the industry to develop any type of reliable or credible tourism information base in order to estimate the contribution it makes to regional, national, and global economies.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) What is tourism and how was it further adopted and defined by WTO/UN?

(ii) Explain two major advantages of tourism that could impact a developing nation like Nigeria?

7.0   References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i)   The economic impact of tourism begins with the *sum total of all expenditures by all tourists*.

(ii) The impact includes some of the receipts of accommodations, restaurants, attractions, petrol (gas) stations—the traditional tourism-orientated businesses. (We might note that these are vastly dissimilar businesses.)

Unit 4 Global Tourists Attractions, Sites & Hostels of History

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Unit 4   Global Tourists Attractions, Sites & Hostels of History

CONTENT

1.0 Introduction

In this unit, our look and concentration will be focused on tourists attractions world-wide and nostalgia related issues.

There is thus a certain indulgence associated with nostalgia tourism, one that approvingly believes that the past is good for you rather than 'a poison that kills by cloying'— a more puritanical disapproving position (Nicolson, 1998a). It should also be evident that nostalgia tourism appeals more to those who can afford to indulge in it. Although reminiscing is of course a free activity, actual participation in touristic pursuits that evoke the past can be quite expensive.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Define the global tourism attractions and Disney World ?

Explain why tourist visit historic Sites, great amusement Parks and hostels of history?

Identify some strategic and historic sites often more visited by tourists.

Differentiate between imagination and motivational appeal and reality of tourism

Know what millennial moment is all about be able to elaborate with example?

3.0   Main Content

3.1   *Global Tourists Attractions, Sites & Hostels of History*

The tourism industry has been quick to realize the potential of providing hostels of history for its clients. The following illustrative examples include the paradors of Spain, the Udaipur Lake Palace Hotel in India, and the English stately home of Cliveden.

3.1.1   Castles in Spain

According to Paradores (1992), a 'parador,' meaning an 'inn' or 'stopping place' appears in many classic Spanish texts. Yet, it was not until 1926 that the Royal Tourist Commissioner, the Marquis de la Vega-Inclán, persuaded King Alfonso XIII to approve the establishment of state paradors throughout the land. They were to be located in places that were not commercially viable for the private sector to develop and which were spaced at intervals within an easy distance for the motor vehicles of the period. Behind the plan also was the idea of taking advantage of 'ancient monuments— old hospices, palaces, castles and convents.' Soon a national network was established and a star system of grading (ranging from 3 to 5) introduced. Currently top of the range is the 5-star GL Hotel de los Reyes Católicos at Santiago de Compostela, originally constructed in 1499 as a royal hospital for pilgrims to the shrine of St. James (and, as such, the oldest hotel in the world [Paradores, 1992]). There is also a 5-star GL Hotel San Marcos in León. Built originally in 1515 as the Mother House for the Knights of St. James, in 1965 it was converted into a luxury parador (Paradores, 1992).

Even a modestly graded 3-star parador, like the one at Ávila, has so much to offer that it favourably compares with, or even exceeds, the comforts of a traditional 5-star establishment

(such as adobe floors and fourposter beds). For example, a former sixteenth-century palace (Piedras Albas) is surrounded by the town's ancient walls, which conserves a monastic, devout and spiritual air that is characteristic of the city (where St.

Theresa was born). Leading out from the dining room is a beautiful secluded garden with archaeological remains and an orchard. Inside, patrons of taste savour such local delicacies as roast sucking pig, veal steak, 'judías de el Barco.' 'puncheretes teresianos,' and the famous 'yemas de la Santa' (Parador de Ávila, n.d.). This is typical of the delights to be had at a parador. Everywhere the language of the general brochure is shamelessly couched in motivational references to nostalgia. The following is a typical example: Thus the traveller will discover today, with pleasant surprise, that he can sleep in the same room in the Castle of Jarandilla de la Vera where Carlos V is said to have stayed while he waited for his lodgings in the nearby monastery of Yuste to be made ready; or he can dine in the rooms which belonged to the Alcalá de Henares University founded by Cardinal Cisneros; or even spend a few days in the Castle of Hondarribia against which the Prince of Condé laid a useless siege three hundred years ago (Paradores, 1992). Here the discovery of today becomes a 'pleasant surprise' precisely because it can turn the clock back hundreds of years ago to a world of kings, castles, and cardinals. All this becomes possible because the contemporary tourist can sleep in the same room and eat in the identical quarters as the leading figures of a glorious past.

3.1.2   Udaipur Lake Palace

Udaipur Lake Palace

Over in India, where colonial times (for the British at least) are synonymous with the days of the Raj and of Empire, visitors can sample the life of a maharajah in one of several lake palaces operated by the prestigious Taj Palace Hotels group. Here is a year 2003 description of the Lake Palace Hotel, Udaipur: The Lake Palace is one of the most beautiful palaces in the world, arising out of the turquoise waters of the Pichola like an elegant fantasy in white marble. The place was built in the 17th century on a natural foundation of 4 acres of rock. It was initially called Jaginwas after its founder Maharama Jaggit Singh. The Maharama, ruler of Jaipur from 1628 to 1654, was very friendly with Moghul Emperor Shah Jahan, and encouraged his craftsmen to copy some of the glories of his incomparable building at Agra. The successive rulers used this cool haven as a summer resort, holding their regal durbars in its courtyards. These courtyards lined with columns, pillared terraces and fountains, add to its impressive image. The rooms are decorated with cusped arches, inlaid stones of pink and green lotus leaves, and apartments like the Bada Mahal, Kush Mahal, Ajjan Niwas, Phool Mahal and Dhola Mahal. It is subsequently explained that the Lake Palace Hotel has 84 rooms (ranging in price from $280 [superior, lake view] to $750 [grand royal suite] single, per night). Each room is designed according to a particular theme and is decorated with textiles and handicrafts of the region. Their names are said to conjure up a romantic setting and give a taste of regal splendour of a bygone era. The Amrit Sagar bar is decorated with intricate glass mosaic work on the walls and ceiling, whereas the Neel Kamal restaurant facing a lily pond serves Indian and continental cuisine. There is a complimentary puppet show and Rajasthani folk dance and music. All the ingredients are here—rulers, emperors, the Taj Mahal, elegant fantasy, romance, servants, and lotus leaves. It just needs the discerning, well-heeled nostalgic tourist to complete the picture.

3.1.3 Cliveden House

Cliveden House

Hostels of history would be somehow incomplete without the presence of a stately home. Here Cliveden House in the English county of Berkshire is a good example. As the Web site explains, Cliveden was originally constructed for the second Duke of Buckingham in 1666. It has hosted 'almost every British monarch since George I' **(Cliveden House, 2003)** (Queen Victoria was a frequent visitor), and since becoming the family home of Lord and Lady (Nancy) Astor, has accommodated the likes of President Roosevelt, George Bernard Shaw, Winston Churchill, and Charlie Chaplin. In 1986 it became a 5-star hotel set on 376 acres of rolling countryside, where patrons can now 'walk in the footsteps of Cliveden's notable past guests' **(Cliveden House, 2003)**. Its individually furnished rooms range from £250 a night (classic) to £1375 a night for a minimum of two nights (Spring Cottage), inclusive of full English breakfast and value added tax (VAT). There are more than four members of staff per bedroom, the house *still* makes its own bread, cakes, biscuits, and confectionery *just as it has always done*, and there are four dining rooms—the Terrace, Waldo's, the French, and the Cellar. The last mentioned is for private functions and run by a team whose 'knowledge of wines and spirits is

3.2 Playful Pilgrimage

Playful Pilgrimage

From the idea of a stately home and all that it conjures up, it is just one small step to the notion of 'home' itself and its connection with nostalgia. Etymologically, nostalgia means a form of homesickness—the pain experienced by those away from home—a pain alleviated only by a physical return to home (Davis, 1979; Nicolson, 1998a). This *heimweh*, or aching for home, thus turns into an act of regression, a longing for the maternal home of childhood, and ultimately a primeval desire to re-enter the womb. This is the yearning for a reunion with the most significant other of all—mother. Hence the discourse about 'the tourist as child' (Dann, 1989). However, what is rarely discussed is the possibility of returning to a cultural centre once inhabited by alternative or additional significant others—those who bestow a quasispiritual meaning on the lives of people engaged in a quest of this nature. Such is the case of popular cult figures who fill the void left empty by secularisation—icons of the order of Elvis Presley, Diana Princess of Wales, and Marlene Dietrich that are examined here. This should not imply that there is no longer room or need for traditional pilgrimage to the shrines of saints and martyrs. Rather it signifies that, for many persons, premodern pilgrimage has been replaced by a postmodern equivalent—playful pilgrimage.

3.2.1 Elvis, the King

Elvis, the King

Although some refuse to believe that Elvis ever passed away, August 16, 1977, is generally acknowledged as the day the 42 year old died. Consequently August is known as 'death month' for those who make the journey to Graceland with floral tributes and teddies at the ready to lay at Presley's grave (Langley, 2000). There is also the more concentrated 'death week,' introduced by Priscilla when opening this home of amazing grace to the public—a shrine visited by more pilgrims than those paying respect to John F. Kennedy, and the most popular home attraction in the United States after the White House (Anon, 1997).

Today's mansion tour (US$16.25 adults, US$6.25 children 7 to 12) includes a new digital guide featuring the voice of Elvis. It takes in the living room, music room, his parents' bedroom, the dining room, kitchen, TV room, pool room, and jungle den. Pilgrims can gaze upon the desk from his office, his collection of stage costumes, gold records, awards, jewellery, and photographs. The tour concludes with a visit to the meditation garden where Elvis and his close relatives are interred (Elvis Presley Official Site, 2003). Here the family grave is surrounded by teddy bears, hearts, and guitars made of roses, and there is a simple plaque that reads, 'It was a precious gift from God we cherished and loved dearly. He became a living legend in our time. God saw that he needed some rest and called him home' (Cohn, 1991).

It is important to recognize that there are several occasions during which visitors can communicate with the King. They can listen to his tape-recorded voice speaking personally to them, sample peanut butter and mashed banana sandwiches (Elvis's favourite snack), purchase spirit portraits from street artists (Cohn, 1991)—the list is endless. At the corporate level, Elvis Presley Enterprises also extends to the Elvis Presley Memphis Restaurant and Heartbreak Hotel, arranging special events such as weddings, issuing news bulletins, organising charities, and a fan collectors' club (Elvis Presley Official Site, 2003). All this commercial activity ensures that the dead King is today worth more than he ever was alive.

3.2.2 Diana, Princess of Wales

In August 1997, Diana Princess of Wales was the fatal victim of a high-speed car crash in a Parisian subterranean tunnel where **she perished with her lover**, **Dodi Fayed**, heir to the Harrods' fortune. The outpouring of national grief as her funeral was beamed around the world to the accompaniment of Elton John's *Candle in the Wind* was immense, and the British readily identified with her Tony Blair's New Labour inspired sobriquet, 'the people's princess.' Diana was buried on an island in a lake forming part of her brother's Althorp estate.

On July 1, 1998, the home was opened for two months to 2500 visitors a day who had paid £9.50 a head for the privilege, a considerable increase on the previous year, which had a total of just 5000 persons (Gillan, 1998). '**Dianaville,'** as it came to be known, was said to be the **English Graceland** (Nicolson, 1998b).

 In June 1998, a special concert was arranged at Althorp as a tribute to Diana, and featured such artistes as Cliff Richard, Lesley Garrett, and Chris de Burgh. Fans queued for 10 hours in the rain for the 15,000 tickets on offer at £40 each (Milner, 1998).

 Today, Althorp, seat of the Spencer family for nearly 5 centuries and 20 generations, is described as having a warm and welcoming feel of a home with an unbroken link, a 'house with a soul.' There is now a permanent exhibition located in six of the rooms that are dedicated to the life and work of Diana.

Relics include her bridal gown, her childhood letters and school reports, and 28 designer outfits (complete with accessories and shoes) that cover the period from the 1980s to her last public engagement (Althorp House, 2003). However, and in addition to visits to Diana's last resting place, it is now possible to take a 'Diana Memorial Tour.'

One organized by the London Tourist Board takes in St. Paul's Cathedral (where she was married) and provides lunch at the *Orangery in Kensington Palace*. It then proceeds to St. James's Palace, an Earls' Court gym (where she exercised), and her Coleherne flat (an eighteenth birthday present from her parents in 1979). Afterwards, it includes a Pimlico nursery (where she worked), Vacani's School of Dancing (where she had lessons), the Kensington Odeon Cinema, and two South Kensington shops (owned by her designer friend, Catherine Walker).

Finally, the tour traces the route of the funeral cortège from Kensington Palace, via Hyde Park and Buckingham Palace, to Westminster Abbey (Leventhal, 1998). Alternatively, pilgrims can undertake 'The Diana Walk,' a seven-mile trek marked by 90 plaques at a cost of $1.9 million. According to Lucy Moss (2000), it is best to start at the seventeenth-century Kensington Palace, Lady Di's residence from the time of her marriage (1981) to her death (1997), and meander through the state apartments. The gardens are where she used to roller blade and jog incognito. South of the palace are the black and gold Crowther gates where thousands of mourners left flowers, messages, and toys (and some still do), and through which her funeral procession began on September 6, 1997. North of the palace is the $2.5 million Diana Princess of Wales Memorial Playground with a Peter Pan theme and pirate ship for children. East of Kensington Gardens is Hyde Park. Thereafter, pilgrims can wander to Green Park, the Mall, Buckingham Palace, St. James's Park, St. James's Palace (home to Charles after the 1992 separation), and Clarence House (home of the late Queen Mother, and the place where Diana spent her wedding eve). Whether devotees of Diana go to Althorp or follow in her footsteps, there is a deep reverence associated with her name. Indeed her death in 1997 completely eclipsed that of the far more saintly Mother Teresa of Calcutta occurring a few days later.

The Tate Liverpool's 'Heaven: An Exhibition that will Break Your Heart' (December 1999– February 2000) to mark the transition into the new millennium even had a statue of Diana dressed as the Virgin Mary in which she was clearly treated as a religious figure (Petre, 1999).6 Here nostalgia conveniently overlooks her serial affairs and instead treats her as all but canonised.

3.2.3 Marlene Dietrich

Marlene Dietrich
The year 2001 saw Berlin celebrating Marlene Dietrich's one-hundredth birthday (she died in 1992). Today, *aficionados* can trace her life around the city. According to Cook (2001), they can begin at her birthplace in Leberstrasse 65, located close to the restaurant of the *Blauer Engel* (named after her best known film, *The Blue Angel*). Thereafter, they proceed to her old school in Gasteinerstrasse and to Hildegardstrasse 54, the flat where she lived as a young actress. Next comes the Kaiser Wilhelm Memorial Church where she married Rudolf Sieter, followed by the Komödie Theater (revue performances), Deutsches Theater (classical dramas), Babelsberg studios (where *The Blue Angel* was filmed), and the Zooplast cinema (where it opened on April 1, 1930).

Thereafter she left Germany for California, and subsequently Paris where she lived and died, never to reside in Berlin again, although she did return in 1945 attired in American uniform to entertain the allies and in 1960 took part in a postwar tour of the country. Her last resting place is the Stubenrauchstrasse cemetery where a simple plaque announces the name 'Marlene.' Most of the Dietrich memorabilia, purchased with her estate from her daughter in 1993 for £3.6 million, are to be found in the New Film Museum in Potsdammer Platz.

They include her love letters, diary, gifts from Ernest Hemmingway and Douglas Fairbanks, Jr., as well as 3000 dresses, 10,000 photographs, and 35,000 documents. This anti-Nazi icon (who refused several of the Führer's invitations for her to return in a triumphant procession through the Brandenburg Gate) in many ways encapsulates all that is best in the postmodern German psyche, a rags to riches saga based on Weberian hard work. Even with the reconstruction of Berlin all around them, her compatriots do not forget. The future is thus connected to the past via nostalgia. Mother Marlene has at last come home to the fatherland.

3.3   Theming and Dreaming

You know that it's time to take a fad seriously when someone dedicates a film and a theme park to it. –Marshall, 2003 According to Swarbrooke (1997), there are four main types of visitor attractions—natural, man-made though not designed primarily to attract visitors (e.g., cathedrals), special events, and man-made and purposely built to attract tourists.

The last of these categories comprises 20 subtypes ranging from amusement parks to garden centres and waterfront developments. However, of particular interest here are those subtypes that specifically employ nostalgia in their appeal, notably theme parks, openair museums, heritage centres, craft centres, factory tours, and shops.

In the United Kingdom at least, most of these variants appeared from the 1970s onward and were generally successful in terms of visitor numbers and return on capital. Undoubtedly part of this success was due to their postmodern pastiche and emphasis on the past (e.g., Beamish Open Air Museum, Ironbridge Gorge Museum). As far as theme parks are concerned, the paradigm case is Walt Disney World.

3.3.1   Walt Disney World

Whether the Florida complex (equal in area to San Francisco) comprises four or seven theme parks, depending on how they are counted (Fjellman, 1992), the one that most clearly evokes nostalgia is the Magic Kingdom. Here Main Street USA leaps over two world wars and the Depression to the hazy Victorian era of 1880–1910. It is a microcosm of warm, small town America with its ice cream parlours, apothecary shops, and candy stores, where 'harassed people in a dangerous, impersonal and unfriendly world can symbolically locate friendship, order, intimacy, innocence' (Fjellman, 1992).

Under a prevailing collective amnesia, there are no references to messy, unpaved, muddy streets, with their ubiquitous telephone poles and billboards; there are no bars, no jails, no 'other side of the tracks.' The grim reality of these times and places has been filtered out. It is

now replaced by a false benign history, or 'distory,' an edited version of history as it should have been, a powerful set of pleasant messages that parents feel compelled to share with their children (Fjellman, 1992).

All this fantasy is underlain with the corporate mantra, 'if we can dream it, we can do it.' The Disney 'product,' with its deodorised, de-sexed version of human relationships, where goodness is always rewarded, suffering is superficial, and we're all nice guys really, is based on a thoroughly sentimentalized vision of life . . . communism, fascism, and socialism have come and gone over the course of the century. Disney has remained and looks well set for the next millennium (Palmer, 1999).

Yet these criticisms cannot negate the fact that 'there's no business like old business' (Morley, 1972). In this connection, although admittedly referring to Disneyland Paris and its 40,000 a day visitors, more than half of whom are adults, Lawson (1998) remarks,
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3.3.2   The Holy Land Experience

The Holy Land Experience
Also in Florida (isn't it strange how nostalgia flourishes in one of the most futuristic states of the union?) is another theme park, only this time based on a different ideology—that of religion. This is 'The Holy Land Experience.' First conceived in 1991, and opened on February 5, 2001, it is the brainchild of Baptist minister, Marvin Rosenthal. It occupies some five acres, was designed at a cost of US$16 million by ITEC entertainment, and is run by Zion Hope.

The Holy Land, with its 20-minute films shot on location in Jerusalem, covers the whole gamut of biblical history and eschatology from Adam and Eve to the Second Coming. Employees are decked out in period costume from the time of Christ, and a l00-strong cast plays out parts ranging from Roman soldiers to flower girls. Exhibits include a smoke emitting Ark of the Covenant, a Wilderness Tabernacle show featuring the observances of the 12 tribes of Israel in the desert, and laser and dry ice rituals of the High Priest on the Day of the Atonement.

There is also a projection of a Nativity scene, a reconstruction of the Temple of the Great King, a first century Jerusalem street market, a Via Dolorosa, the caves of Q'mran, and the rock tomb of Jesus complete with discarded shroud. The gift-retailing emporia are known as Methuselah's Mosaics and The Old Scroll Shop (Langton, 2001).

According to the official Web site, 'it's been 2000 years since the world has seen anything like this' (The Holy Land Experience, 2003). For just US$29.75 adults and US$19.75 children, the stated purpose of the Holy Land Experience is to 'provide answers to life's most important questions: Where am I from? Why am I here? Where am I going? What is life really about?' It claims to be able to achieve this goal by taking people '7,000 miles away and 3,000 years *back* in time' (emphasis added) and by giving
them a 'unique experience' in a 'search for enduring truth and the ultimate meaning in life' (Holy Land Experience, 2003).

Such an experience is said to be 'educational,' 'inspirational,' 'theatrical,' and 'historical,' one that can be enjoyed outside in 'the beautiful Florida sunshine' and inside in air-conditioned comfort (Holy Land Experience, 2003). Although food and drink cannot be brought on to the premises, the gastronomic delights of the Oasis Palms Café supply this gustatory need in the forms of 'Goliath Burgers,' 'Jaffa Hot Dogs,' 'Oasis Chicken,' 'Bedouin Beef,' 'Tabgha Tuna,' 'Arabian Chicken,' 'Centurion Salad,' 'Shepherd Soup,' and 'Caesar's Delight.'

The underpinning nostalgia message of this theme park seems to be that in a largely atheistic Western world, it is necessary to *return* to biblical times in order to discover authentic personal identity. As such the project is at odds with the predominantly secular message of Walt Disney World (WDW) that celebrates 'Americana' as the true meaning of life for civil religion.

3.3.3   Haw Par Villa

Haw Par Villa
Another themed attraction based on a religious or moral set of ideas is Haw Par Villa in Singapore. Originally a gift in 1937 from the indigenous entrepreneur, Aw Boon Haw, to his brother, Aw Boon Par, to mark their joint success in the Tiger Balm menthol ointment business, it was intended as a Chinese mythological complex, and opened to the public under the name of Tiger Balm Gardens. It featured such terrifying exhibits as 'The Ten Courts of Hell,' a graphic display illustrating the fate of those who misbehaved in this life, and was one of the island's top leisure sites from the 1950s to the 1980s. Subsequently, in 1985 it was acquired by the government, handed over to an offshoot of Disney production, Battaglia Associates, rebranded as 'Dragon World,' and introduced a number of flume rides and multimedia shows. Thus began a rare failure for the corporation who witnessed a decline in visitor numbers from 1.44 million in 1993 to 382,000 in 1997. According to many locals—the main patrons—it was too American and too expensive. As for overseas tourists, they preferred shopping in the new malls.

By 1998, the theme park was recording losses of US$17.5 million and in 2001 there was talk of returning it to the Singapore Tourist Board (STB) for demolition. However, there was strong support (more than 80 percent) from Singaporeans to go back to the original and to preserve the Chinese mythology of the prototype for moral, cultural, and historical reasons. Indeed, all the Chinese staff who had remained with the project from the 1990s firmly believed that the statues and figurines had divine power and were inhabited by spirits.

They consequently prayed to them, made daily offerings of incense, and erected an altar to appease the Hungry Ghosts. They further decided to give the exhibits their former old look. They painted back the Disney mountains from blue to a more sober brown, and placed a wooden pillar at the entrance with the inscription 'The Spirit of Haw Par,' accompanied by two Chinese notices urging 'perseverance and hard work' and 'remember your benefactor.' In such a manner they were able to preserve their sense of roots in a rapidly globalizing era and to retain the nostalgic philanthropy and filial piety of the Haw Par brothers (Teo and Li, 2003).

3.3.4   Viking Museums

Attempts to provide roots experiences and a sense of history can also be found in Northern Europe, particularly Scandinavia. According to Halewood and Hannam (2001), they generally fall into one of four types: Conventional museums (e.g., Viking Ships' Museum at Bygdøy, Norway, where three 19th century ships are housed in an ecclesiastical style edifice that helps construct a sense of nationhood and enables people to return to the very heart of Norwegian culture) Heritage centres (e.g., Jorvik Viking Centre in York, England, with its time car ride, together with sounds and smells of the past)8; Reconstructed villages (e.g., Foteviken in Sweden, with handicraft demonstrations, houses, people working with pottery and tending crops, Viking markets, and re-enactments of cooking and fighting); Theme parks (e.g., Tusenfryd, 20 kilometres south east of Oslo, Norway).

The last mentioned contains 'Viking Land,' constructed at a cost of $4.9 million in 1995. It comprises a mountain hall, a multimedia auditorium wherein participants go for a ride in a long-ship to 'Vinland.' On the way they encounter storms, attacks by pirates, and the intervention of gods. There are additional facilities for corporate banquets with host and guests in Viking attire. There is also a re-created village by a lake, a quay, a ship, a nobleman's house, and a market place filled with staff in period costume.

In spite of the seemingly contrived nature of some of these displays (e.g., the carnival-like atmosphere of the markets), Halewood and Hannam maintain that there is a strong emphasis on authenticity (albeit in various ways) in all four of these types of Viking experience.

There is a validation by expert historians, archaeological evidence, scripting by professional linguists—a meticulous concern for detail—in order to ensure that the past is portrayed accurately. What Halewood and Hannam do not say, but nevertheless imply, is that this open parading of origins for people today may be suggesting to them that the way they were is superior to the way they are. It may be proposing that things were made better in the past, that a sense of community prevailed, and that people could enjoy themselves so much more when they knew exactly who they were.

Although acknowledging that there are several more variants that require exploration (e.g., retailing, travelling by train), this chapter has examined three types of tourism nostalgia of the noughties. Yet even based on a limited number of cases, it is possible to evaluate the phenomenon by inducing its essential characteristics. By way of conclusion, this assessment is conducted under the following headings: imagination versus reality, motivational appeal, and millennial moments.

3.3.5   Imagination Versus Reality

Nostalgia tourism that presses an alternative to the present does so by recourse to an imagined past, a version of reality that people carry around in their heads. This observation is true for the Indian palace that screens outside surrounding poverty, for in-the-footsteps tours that are carefully zoned to remove references to contemporary surroundings, or for themed attractions that are instances of hyper-reality. Nostalgia tourism is thus the very antithesis of reality tourism. It stands at the opposite end of the continuum of the sort of tourism promoted by Global Exchange that takes its clientele into such places as the Gaza Strip, Haiti, and Cuba to witness firsthand the abuse of human rights (Langton, 1998; Purdy,

1998). Nostalgia tourism is not concerned with such matters; in fact, it studiously ignores them.

3.3.6 *Motivational Appeal*

From what has been seen already, and given the hazards of political labeling, it is clear that nostalgia tourism is more likely to appeal to an ideology that is conservative rather than liberal. By definition, a conservative wishes to preserve all that is wholesome from the past, whereas a liberal is more intent on change. Postmodernism itself is also said to be conservative in outlook, and its pastiche-like touristic theming in Disney and its imitators is indicative of this trend.

Nostalgia tourism can additionally appeal more to the elderly (Davis, 1979; Swarbrooke, 1997) than to the young, if only because the former has a richer data bank of memories with a longer time span. A loss of status among retirees may also encourage backward glimpses to the past, just as a sense of lack of future may lead to a retrieval of worth from yesteryear (Davis, 1979). Even so, those of more tender years can and do experience nostalgia, particularly in such rites of passage as going to a new school, entry into adolescence, and so on where nostalgia thrives on transition (Davis, 1979). Also related, it is important to realise that it is not so much a question of how long ago an event occurred, as it is how individuals contrast it with present circumstances (Davis, 1979). Then, too, there is a certain narcissism or *amour propre* (Davis, 1979) connected with nostalgia, one that may appear to the psychocentric personality (Plog, 1977).

Here self-approval is cultivated in order to make the present seem less frightening (i.e., an experience of flow as opposed to schizophrenic timelessness) (Davis, 1979). Arguably, too, because nostalgia thrives where identity is threatened, it may be experienced to a greater degree by men than by women. Male roles and statuses are often more sharply demarcated with respect to occupation, geographical location, reference groups, and lifestyle (Davis, 1979). For that reason, it may not simply have been a *lapsus calami* that the parador brochure addressed itself solely to males.

Self Assessment Questions
    (i) From your study of nostalgia tourism, what are the perspectives of conservatives?
    (ii) And what are the perspectives of liberals?

4.0 Summary
As each year draws to a close and a new year dawns, thoughts turn to change and to the making of fresh resolutions. Such a trend is even more pronounced at the turn of a century and the entry into its first decade. At the same time, however, this can be a period of the greatest anxiety, when the continuity of identity is most threatened. Here, then, it becomes necessary to establish appreciative stances of former selves and to eradicate from memory unpleasant and shameful experiences. It is correspondingly essential to rediscover and rehabilitate 'marginal, fugitive and eccentric facets of earlier selves' in order to assert, 'look how far I've come' and 'how well equipped I am to deal with challenges of the present' (Davis, 1979). Nostalgia responds to this existential tension in

the subject. Tourism can also alleviate such anxiety in its language of promotion. It is not sufficient simply to provide luxury accommodation, playful pilgrimage, and themed attractions.

5.0 conclusion

It must strike a resonance with the corresponding personalities of nostalgia prone clients. In such a manner, Croatia is now advertised as 'the Mediterranean as it used to be' (Croatia Tourist Board, 2003) and Scotland is still marketed as a romantic land of mists, glens, landscapes, and castles 'as people want to find it' (Elsworth, 1998a). As for Cool Britannia, well, in the words of a spokesman for the English Tourist Board, Debbie Waite, 'While we are very excited about the production of a new face of Britain, we do need to make sure it goes hand in hand with our history and heritage' (Elsworth, 1998b).

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Identify and discuss any two tourist Sites you are familiar with within Nigeria?

(ii) Explain the relevance of any other tourist Sites location you have studied in this unit

and outline their Significance to tourism?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions
- (i) It is clear that nostalgia tourism is more likely to appeal to an ideology that is conservative rather than liberal.
- (ii) By definition, a conservative wishes to preserve all that is wholesome from the past, whereas a liberal is more intent on change. Postmodernism itself is also said to be conservative in outlook.

UNIT 5 Competition to Collaboration in the Tourism Industry

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UNIT 5   Competition to Collaboration in the Tourism Industry

CONTENT

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Unlike in the foregoing unit in we studied tourism attractions and historic Sites. In this unit, we shall take a closer look and study the essential concept of globalization.

Globalization has been, and continues to be, driven by an array of converging forces. Advances in information technology, communication methods, and distribution systems, along with continued economic growth in the developing world, have all contributed greatly. Likewise, policy changes in many countries around the world and the emergence of transnational corporations are also reinforcing the trend toward globalization.

In the specific context of tourism, Wahab and Cooper (2001) suggest that the continuing growth in demand for tourism, the expansion and diversification of travel motivations, and the enlarged expectations of tourists are all contributing to the increasing global presence and significance of tourism in the world economy.

2.0   OBJECTIVES
   At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
   Explain the meaning of globalization as it relates to tourism
   Discuss the importance of marketing concept in tourism
   Identify the importance of collaborative strategy in aviation &tourism industry
   Understand the concept of collaborative advantage
   State *your understanding of* Inter-organizational Collaboration in the context of tourism Marketing.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Tourism and Collaboration

Interest in collaboration in tourism has arisen at a time of increasing environmental turbulence and operational complexity for organizations of all kinds.

A variety of drivers are behind this trend, the majority being linked in some way to the wider issue of globalization. There can be little doubt that the predominant force acting on the world's economic systems today is that of globalization.

The process of globalization has broken down the barriers between economic systems and encouraged them to become progressively more integrated with one another. The result has been the emergence of what can increasingly be described only as a single, global economy.

3.1.1 Collaborative Strategic Alliance in International Airlines

Deregulation is particularly apparent in passenger air transportation, in that the policy of 'liberalisation' has resulted in the emergence of numerous bilateral 'open skies' agreements between international airlines. This policy has undoubtedly contributed to the development of airline hubs and the emergence of 'collaborative' strategic alliances in recent years (World Tourism Organization, 2002).

More generally, globalization is leading to an increasingly borderless and interdependent world, and this serves as the catalytic focus for much collaborative activity. Given the enormous power and reach of globalization as a driving force in the business environment, Kanter (1995) argues that the success criteria for tourism organizations in a globalised society are changing. Kanter suggests that in the future, tourism organizations will no longer be judged only on the quality of their concepts and competencies, but also on their connections.

The notion of 'connections' relates to the organization's collaborative networks, that is, the alliances and relationships that lever core capabilities, create value for customers, and remove boundaries. The benefits of obtaining 'added value' through the creation of integrated networks or alliances can be considerable. Drawing on Porter's (1980) concept of the value chain, Ashkenas and colleagues (1995) argue that in a globalised society, the value chain has come to represent the single most significant concept by which organizations and enterprises are linked together.

By integrating the activities along their value chain, organizations can work together to create products and services that have more value combined than separately. The increasingly competitive nature of global markets suggests that cooperation between firms, especially among smaller players, will continue to expand. This collaborative imperative is of particular importance in tourism, where the value chain is central to the creation of products by intermediaries.

In this instance, globalization provides the environment for a new way of thinking in the tourism distribution channel, as individual tourism businesses, intermediaries, and tourists in a channel cease to be adversarial and move to a more relational mode of behaviour (Crotts and Wilson, 1995).

Many collaborative initiatives have already begun to evolve among organizations seeking to serve the increasing growth in tourism demand worldwide. The most notable form of inter-organization collaboration, strategic alliances, offers organizations the flexibility they need to 'deal with globalization, increased consolidation of economic power, the high cost of keeping up with constantly changing technologies and a highly competitive business environment' (World Tourism Organization, 2002). Participants in such alliances are able to share resources and risks in a relatively cost efficient manner, thereby combining their strengths and enhancing their ability to achieve economies of scale.

3.1.2 Emerging Collaborative Relational Perspectives of Marketing

Emerging Collaborative Relational Perspectives of Marketing adherence to the marketing concept has served the management and marketing literature well for the past 40 years. However, in view of the above drivers of change, Donaldson and O'Toole (2002) suggest that the traditional orientation of marketing is now insufficient to meet the demands of a more dynamic and complex marketplace, and that the manipulation of former marketing tools is deficient as a vehicle for an organization to compete effectively in the global marketplace.

Marketing conducted at the organizational level in the future that does not make explicit reference to the organization's relationship with other key stakeholders is therefore unlikely to meet the objectives set for it.

If the collaborative dimension is overlooked or ignored, marketing strategies of the future will lack relevance and therefore potency. The suggestion is that the marketing domain is intrinsically one in which collaboration is not just desirable but indispensable. This migration toward a collaborative relational view of marketing has not simply surfaced overnight.

Indeed there have been calls for definitions of marketing to include longer term relational aspects over the past 15 years. Grönroos (1989) and Morgan and Hunt (1994) *suggested that the aim of marketing should ultimately be to establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers, and other stakeholders, at a profit, so that the objectives of the parties involved are met.*

This viewpoint, which provides the *definitional basis* for this unit, is underpinned by the philosophy of mutual exchange and the fulfillment of promises.

The winds of collaborative change are now such that this view of business— one that encompasses exchange and relationships, and focuses on collaboration and the needs of different stakeholders—is widely seen to be the way forward. To accommodate the collaborative relational approach to business, however, change

is deemed vital. Organizations need to reconfigure in terms of philosophy, organization and management, development and maintenance of partnerships with a range of stakeholders, and development of ways to secure competitive advantage and deliver superior added value. For example, Christopher, Payne, and Ballantyne (2002) suggest that collaborative arrangements 'satisfy customer needs at a profit more effectively than does a single firm that undertakes multiple value-creating activities.' They go on to argue that the growth of collaborating 'network' organizations has 'profound implications for relationship marketing and may potentially change the whole basis of competitive advantage.'

The question to be addressed, therefore, is the extent to which this emerging collaborative relational orientation to business may be considered consistent with the notion of the marketing concept. The traditional understanding of the marketing concept is based on the notion of business as a system of exchange.

A comparison with the emerging collaborative relational approach to business can be viewed *in Table 4.1*. The previous discussion might be taken to suggest that there are two polar cases: the 'competitive' transaction and the collaborative relational approaches to business.

However, Figure 4.1 shows that, more realistically, a continuum is likely to exist between these two extremes.

On the one hand the extreme transaction-based approach indicates that little or Table 4.1 A

3.1.3 Comparison Between the 'Competitive' Transaction and Emerging Collaborative Relational Approach to Business

Transactional Approach	Relational Approach
Transaction focus	Partnership focus
Competition	Collaboration
Organisation induced	Cooperation
Value to the organisation	Value in partnership
Buyer passive	Buyer as an active participant
Organisation as a focus for control the process	Organisation as part of
Organisation as a boundary	Boundary less
Short-term focus	Long-term focus
Independent	Dependence and network led

Source: Adapted from Donaldson and O'Toole, 2002.
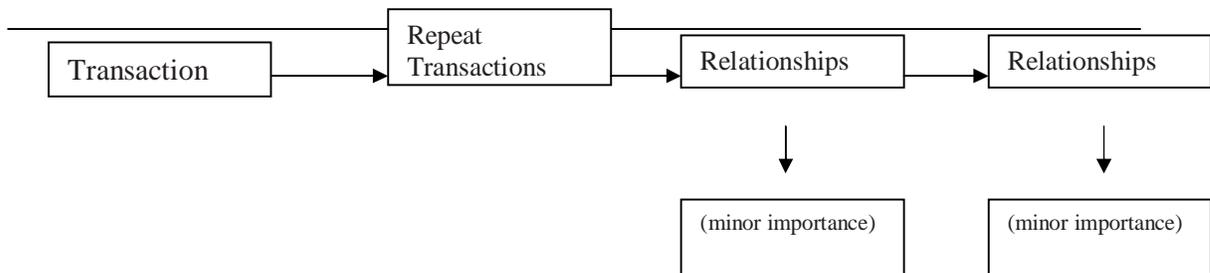
Figure 4.1: A continuum of business relationships.
Source: Donaldson and O'Toole, 2002.

no joint involvement is necessary or desirable, whereas, at the other extreme, the more significant relationships existing between organizations may be formalized into various forms of collaboration such as partnerships, joint ventures, and strategic alliances. In between these extremes exist two other approaches to business. The first, the repeat transaction scenario, is where some evidence of repetition is in existence (and possibly opportunities for the development of relationships). The second focuses on relationships of minor importance

where, although they may be deemed important by organizations, they do not represent a strategic imperative.

Perhaps more importantly, a critical issue is the extent to which the traditional view of market orientation is able to incorporate the emerging collaborative relational approach to business. Indeed, this relational view of markets fundamentally questions the appropriateness of the established notion of the marketing concept. A recent study by Helfert, Ritter, and Walter (2002) has, however, begun to grasp the issue. The study argues that in most cases it is better to under- stand the organization's 'surroundings' as a network of inter-organizational relationships rather than an anonymous 'market.' The primary conclusion to be drawn from the study is that the existing formulation of the marketing concept needs to be translated to a relationship level in order to be effective. The study also concludes that market orientation on a relationship level can be interpreted in terms of the resources the organization employs and the activities it undertakes further to the process of relational exchange.

3.2 Relational Management Task

For market orientation to be relevant in the collaborative relational sense, Helfert, Ritter, and Walter (2002) argue that **four main relationship management 'task bundles'** need to be performed.

These are:
1. *Exchange activities*. This refers to exchanges that can involve product service-, problem-, or person-related activities.
2. *Inter-organizational coordination*. This refers to the synchronization of the relationship partners' actions and comprises the establishment, use, and control of formal rules and procedures and the exertion of informal influence.
3. *Conflict resolution mechanisms*. Partners will need to address conflict arising in nonstandard situations, which are bound to occur in every long-term relationship.
4. *Adaptation*. This is a prerequisite to meeting the special needs or capabilities of a partner.

Figure 4.2 provides an overview of this conceptualization of market orientation at the collaborative relational level. The connection between the above four tasks and the dimensions of market orientation can be summarized as follows:

• With the desire to understand and meet customer needs, a market orientation can serve as an enabler for relational activities.

• With customer satisfaction measures in place, employees can be motivated to fulfill the relationship management tasks in order to satisfy the customer.

• An understanding of competitors and their movements can serve as a basis upon which to build mechanisms to resolve conflict.

• Because most relationships are handled by more than one individual and often require complex exchange, inter-functional coordination is the key to serving customers. For the previous to be achieved, Helfert, Ritter, and Walter (2002) suggest that informational, physical, human, and financial resources are required for relationship management to be

present in market-oriented firms. This conceptualization will be put to the test at the end of this chapter where
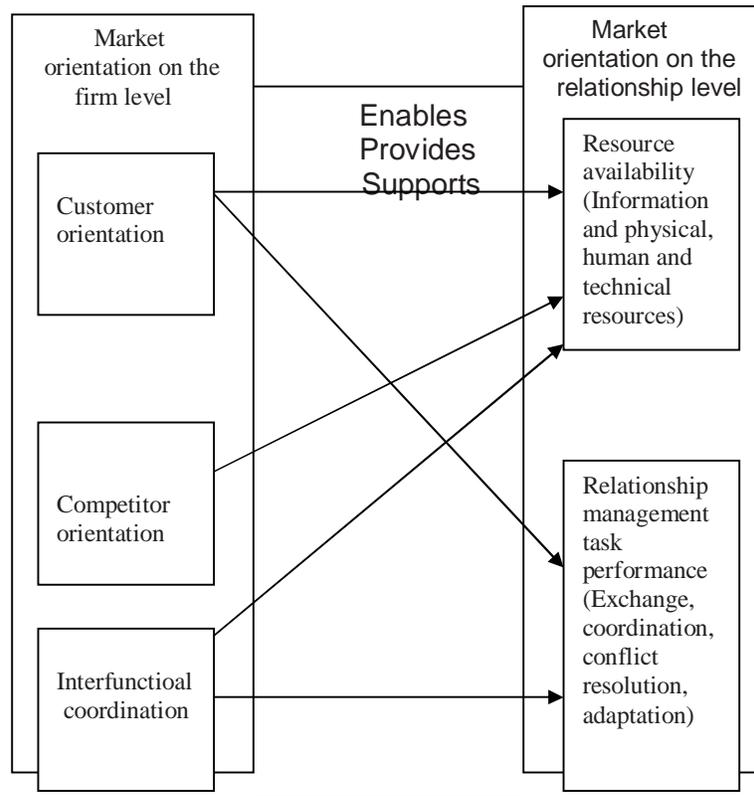
```
┌─────────────────────┐                                    ┌─────────────────────┐
│ Market              │                                    │ Market              │
│ orientation on the  │          Enables                   │ orientation on the  │
│ firm level          │          Provides                  │ relationship level  │
│                     │          Supports                  │                     │
│  ┌───────────────┐  │                                    │  ┌───────────────┐  │
│  │               │  │                                    │  │ Resource      │  │
│  │ Customer      │──┼────────────────────────────────────┼─►│ availability  │  │
│  │ orientation   │  │                                    │  │ (Information  │  │
│  │               │  │                                    │  │ and physical, │  │
│  └───────────────┘  │                                    │  │ human and     │  │
│                     │                                    │  │ technical     │  │
│                     │                                    │  │ resources)    │  │
│  ┌───────────────┐  │                                    │  └───────────────┘  │
│  │ Competitor    │  │                                    │                     │
│  │ orientation   │  │                                    │  ┌───────────────┐  │
│  │               │  │                                    │  │ Relationship  │  │
│  └───────────────┘  │                                    │  │ management    │  │
│                     │                                    │  │ task          │  │
│  ┌───────────────┐  │                                    │  │ performance   │  │
│  │ Interfunctioal│  │                                    │  │ (Exchange,    │  │
│  │ coordination  │──┼────────────────────────────────────┼─►│ coordination, │  │
│  │               │  │                                    │  │ conflict      │  │
│  └───────────────┘  │                                    │  │ resolution,   │  │
│                     │                                    │  │ adaptation)   │  │
└─────────────────────┘                                    └─────────────────────┘
```

Figure 4.2: A relationship concept of marketing orientation.

Source: Donaldson and O'Toole, 2002.

the application of collaborative relational marketing strategies within two tourism sectors will be critically explored and examined with regard to their adherence or otherwise to the principles of the collaborative relational concept of market orientation. Although not perhaps true for all industrial sectors, the collaborative relational concept of market orientation is particularly appropriate for service providers, specifically inasmuch as they are more likely to interact intensively with their customers. As a key component of the wider service industry, tourism is clearly a candidate worthy of investigation.

The interdependent nature of tourism and the unavoidable need for contact with a number of other partners and stakeholders, often across the public–private sector divide, in particular, serves as the principal catalyst for the adoption of more collaborative relational approaches to marketing in tourism. It is clear that the vast majority of the industry is no longer able to meet the likely future needs and demands of customers by working independently.

By adopting the relational principles advocated by Helfert, Ritter, and Walter (2002), an alternative notion of the marketing concept is therefore proposed as a viable solution to manage and develop tourism to its full potential. The consequences are that in the future, the marketing of tourism conducted at the organizational level, without explicit relevance to the organization's relationship with other key stakeholders, will be unlikely to meet its objectives fully. If the collaborative dimensions are overlooked or ignored, marketing strategies in the future will lack relevance and hence potency.

3.2.1 Inter-organizational Collaboration in context tourism Marketing

Collaboration activity has been a key feature of the marketing of tourism for a number of years. For example, airlines, hotels, and local authorities have been working together successfully in a variety of collaborative forms. Whether referred to as alliances, consortia, or partnerships, these are all forms of working together for the achievement of a mutual goal, that is, they are all forms of collaboration.

For collaborative relational marketing to succeed inter-organizational collaboration, be it vertical, horizontal, or diagonal, is a prerequisite for success. Inter-organizational collaboration in the context of tourism marketing can be defined in this instance as:
To examine the application and appropriateness of inter-organizational activity in pursuing individual and collective goals in the context of tourism marketing, two sector-based case studies will be introduced.

However, before exploring the dynamics of such activity, four issues require clarification:

(i)The concept of collaborative advantage,

(ii)The rationale and motives for collaboration,

(iii)Collaborative forms, and

(iv)Drivers of collaborative effectiveness.

Each, in turn, contributes to a better understanding of collaborative relational marketing and its application in tourism.

3.2.2 *Collaborative Advantage*

Consistent with the earlier definition of collaboration, is the term 'collaborative advantage,' first identified by Huxham (1993). Which he defines as: *the concept focuses on the outcomes of collaboration, which Huxham argues can (but need not necessarily) create synergy between the participating organizations.* This means that the joint outcomes of collaboration are in some sense greater than the sum of individual outcomes that could be achieved in the absence of collaboration.

The notion of collaborative advantage has enormous implications for the concept of collaborative relational marketing. Through collaboration, organizations that do not have any significant competitive advantage in a given market environment independently might be

able to achieve sufficient collaborative advantage to compensate for this and enable them to out-perform longer established organizations.

Self Assessment Questions

   (i) What does the increasingly competitive nature of global tourism markets suggests?
   (ii) Is the concept of collaborative imperative of any importance in tourism and how?

4.0 Conclusion

In an industry where the existence of a large number of relatively small organizations is the norm, the scope for achieving such collaborative advantage can be considerable. Similarly, seeking collaborative advantage rather than competitive advantage might be a particularly effective market-entry strategy where the product is a composite one and the industry highly fragmented, as is often the case in the context of tourism. Such outcomes simply cannot be achieved in a market environment where organizations are operating independently from one another.

5.0 Summary

Indeed, Huxham argues that the concept of collaborative advantage is in some ways more important than that of collaboration. In particular, the notion of collaborative advantage has enormous potential value in legitimizing collaboration as an activity that is worth investing in. Given that it is often necessary to invest substantial organizational and financial resources in order to collaborate, the potential for benefits to be achieved
through collaboration, benefits moreover, that would otherwise not be captured by the organization must form the cornerstone of the rationale for collaboration.

6.0Tutor Marked Assignment

   (i)   What do you understand by collaborative Strategic Alliance in aviation
           industry?

   (ii)   Explain what you understand by collaborative advantage?

   (iii)   Are their compelling benefits for relational marketing application in tourism?

7.0   References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) The increasing competitive nature of the industry suggest that by integrating the activities along the value chain, organizations can work together to create products and services that have more value combined than separately. And that cooperation between firms, especially among smaller players, will continue to expand.

(ii) A collaborative imperative is of particular importance in tourism, where the value chain is central to the creation of products by intermediaries. In this instance, globalization provides the environment for a new way of thinking in the tourism distribution channel, as individual tourism businesses, intermediaries, and tourists in a channel cease to be adversarial and move to a more relational mode of behavior. Many collaborative initiatives have already begun to evolve among organizations seeking to serve the increasing growth in tourism demand worldwide.

UNIT 6   **Resource Dependence Theory and Theory of Relational Exchange in Collaborative Tourism**

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3.0   Main Content

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     6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

     7.0 References/Further Readings

UNIT 6 Resource Dependence Theory and Theory of Relational Exchange in Collaborative Tourism

1.0 Introduction

In this unit, we shall look into some collaborative theoretical perspectives of global tourism and arguments for underpinning their derivation for economic activities. Arguably, the focus on the market benefits of inter-organizational collaboration are in no small part due to the increasing globalization of economic activities in the last quarter of the twentieth-century—a phenomenon that has been felt particularly strongly in service industries. Organizations have typically found the need to collaborate in order to take up better strategic positions in the emerging global marketplace.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

State the theory of Rational exchange & Resource dependence importance in tourism

Compare and contrast the theory of Resources dependence to Rational Exchange

Explain motives and motivation for organizations to seek for collaboration

Identify types of collaborations in tourism industry

Discuss the principal features of collaboration

Understand the key drivers of collaborative effectiveness

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Resource Dependence Theory and Theory of Relational Exchange in Collaborative Tourism

Internal growth strategies are often impeded by short-term funding constraints, whereas the conventional external growth strategies, which are based on mergers and takeovers, have tended to prove unwieldy and drawn out given the speed of change implied by the globalization of markets. Collaboration, meanwhile, represents an alternative market-access strategy that can, given the right conditions, steal the march on other external growth strategies. One issue arising out of the earlier discussion relates to the degree to which organizations work together in a truly relational spirit.

Two distinct theoretical standpoints exist on this matter. First, there is the theory of resource dependency.

3.1.1 Resource Dependence Theory

This theory is based fundamentally on the view that interdependencies exist among organizations because individual stakeholders in the domain own or have control over vital resources (be these material, human, political, structural, or symbolic).

These, in turn, represent sources of environmental pressure for other firms in that lack of access to these resources may seriously impede the individual organization in meeting its strategic goals. As such, resource dependency and access to resources may introduce significant uncertainties to the environment in which the organization is operating.

Under resource dependency theory, organizations seek to reduce these external pressures by gaining control over crucial resource supplies. Traditionally this is achieved through a process of competition, with those organizations most willing and able to pay the highest price for the resources concerned being the most likely to secure access to them. In this way, organizations hope to reduce the uncertainty they experience for themselves, although in many cases this will actually increase it for others operating in the same domain.

3.1.2 Theory of Relational Exchange

The second theoretical standpoint relates to the theory of relational exchange. ***This theory begins with the assumption that problem domains tend to become more turbulent as they develop and become more densely populated.*** In this way, organizations become increasingly mutually dependent, so that their central task, which is to solve such problems and reduce the uncertainties encountered in the domain, becomes ever more difficult to achieve if they operate in isolation from one another.

Thus, organizations operating within an increasingly complex problem domain
are expected to develop inter-organizational relationships that will help them solve their problems by working together (i.e., to engage in a process of collaboration). There is, however, ***a sharp contrast between relational exchange theory and resource dependency theory.*** For resource dependency theory, the task for organizations is to enter into such relationships in order to make use of other parties' resources, which would otherwise be unavailable to them, thereby achieving their own objectives more fully. For relational exchange theory, collaboration is the result of organizations recognizing the interdependence of problems in their domain and the benefits of developing reciprocal relationships aimed at solving them.

It is the latter theory that epitomizes the true spirit of collaborative relational marketing as identified in ***the model developed by Helfert, Ritter, and Walter (2002).*** For example, relational exchange theory accepts self-interest as the underlying motivation for an organization to become involved in collaborating with others but argues that collaboration typically involves cases in which this self-interest is best served by the adoption of joint-working strategies. Relational exchange theory also focuses on relationships rather than transactions, in that exchanges are achieved through processes of relational contracting, involving bilateral mechanisms for coordinating the activities of the organizations involved.

This forms a management structure with mutuality rather than competition at the core. Consequently, the boundaries between organizations become blurred, so that organizations become progressively linked to others in the form of a network.

Finally, unlike resource dependency theory, which focuses on power and control, the key forces driving exchanges under relational exchange theory are trust and commitment. These

forces serve to moderate the impact of power within the network of organizations and establish a perception of fairness in the exchange relationship.

Table 4.2 Motives for Collaboration

Market entry and market position-related motives

• Gain access to new international markets

• Circumvent barriers to entering international markets posed by legal, regulatory, or political factors

• Defend market position in present markets

• Enhance market position in present markets *Product-related motives*

• Fill gaps in present product line

• Broaden present product line

• Differentiate or add value to the product

 Product-/market-related motives

• Enter new product/market domains

• Enter or maintain the option to enter into evolving industries whose product offerings may emerge as either substitutes for, or complements to, the firm's product offerings

Market structure modification-related motives

• Reduce potential threat of future competition

• Raise/erect barriers to entry

• Alter the technological base of competition

Market entry timing-related motives

• Accelerate pace of entry into new product/market domains by accelerating pace of research and product development

Resource use efficiency-related motives

• Lower production costs

• Lower marketing costs

Resource extension and risk reduction-related motives

• Pool resources in light of large outlays required

• Lower risk in the face of large resource outlays required, technological uncertainties, market or other uncertainties

Skills enhancement-related motives

• Learning new skills from alliance partners

• Enhancement of present skills by working with alliance partners

Source: Adapted from Beverland and Brotherton, 2001.

3.1.3 Motivation in Building Customer base in Tourism through Collaboration

Numerous motives undoubtedly exist to explain why organizations come
together to form collaborative arrangements in pursuit of collaboration
marketing objectives. Table 4.2 provides a useful overview in that it motives for collaboration and divides the motivations for inter-organizational collaboration into eight main groups. Many of the previous motives are market related. This is particularly true in the context of tourism where motivations related to building the customer base, gaining access to new markets, defending existing markets, and conducting marketing strategies more generally are commonplace.

3.2. *Types of Collaboration*

As with most aspects of inter-organizational collaboration, opinion varies as to how best one categorizes collaborative types. For example, directional categorization, perhaps more commonly used in respect of corporate integration, is one mean in that horizontal collaboration refers to instances where collaboration takes place between organizations that are in other respects in competition with one another.

Vertical collaboration, meanwhile, refers to instances of collaboration between suppliers of a product and its buyers.

Finally, diagonal integration refers to collaboration between organizations in different sectors or industries.
Another, perhaps somewhat simplistic but nevertheless very useful, typology of collaboration is provided by Terpstra and Simonin (1993).

3.2.1 Four Principal Features of Collaboration

Here, ***four principal features of collaboration*** are used to distinguish conceptually between different types of collaboration.

(i) Coverage,
(ii) Form,

(iii)Mode, and
(iv)Motive.

The coverage of a collaborative type refers to its extensiveness in terms of the markets, marketing functions, or geographical areas with which it is concerned (Bleeke and Ernst, 1995).
Simpler forms of collaboration are likely to be restricted in their activities to specific products or markets, specific components of the marketing mix, and/or close geographical areas.

The most basic coverage of a collaboration is thus represented by single-sector collaborations (e.g., among hotels), whose purpose is narrowly defined (e.g., the joint production of promotional brochures).
More mature forms of collaboration, on the other hand, will have a more complete coverage in terms of competitive product areas and components of the marketing mix.

They may also have a more extensive geographical coverage.
By extending its coverage, members of the collaboration will be able to increase their control over the domain; where specific product areas are excluded, control is lessened. Similarly, excluding specific marketing functions will weaken the degree of control that collaborating organizations are able jointly to exert on their external environment.

The form of collaboration refers to the constitutional characteristics of the collaboration.

According to Terpstra and Simonin (1993), *the least developed form of collaboration is a non-equity arrangement.* This involves members agreeing on methods of operation, joint promotion, and so on, but the collaborating organizations do not share financial resources, funding their own contributions to the collaboration independently.

A more developed form of collaboration, on the other hand, is the **joint venture.**

This involves the collaborating organizations retaining financial independence but may involve the creation of an 'offspring' through the pooling or exchanging of resources. The most evolved form of collaboration, meanwhile, occurs when members acquire equity stakes in one another, leading to financial interdependency at the organizational level rather than simply at the level of the collaboration. The mode of collaboration refers to the intrinsic nature of relationships among the members involved.

According to Palmer and Bejou (1995), there are two main dimensions to the mode of a given collaboration: the personal characteristics of individuals involved and the cultural characteristics of the organization each is representing.

Finally, and as discussed in the previous units there is the issue of motive. *The motive for collaboration can, for example, include the desire to internalize the core competencies of other members, achieving economies in advertising and intelligence gathering, joint development of new facilities, making a stronger case for the acquisition of resources.* The primary motive for collaboration is likely to differ from participant to participant, and may change as the collaboration evolves.

3.2.2 *Drivers of Collaborative Effectiveness*

Although opinion varies greatly as to what are the key determinants of collaborative effectiveness, opinion is united in that collaboration is considered to be difficult to implement. One of the problems in commenting on this subject, however, is that although there exists a broad assumption that 'relationships improve performance' (Donaldson and O'Toole, 2002), few measures exist upon which such an assumption can be substantiated. Work by Jamal and Getz (1995), however, provides six overarching propositions relating to the enhancement of collaborative effectiveness, these being based on previous studies conducted by Gray (1985; 1989).

The six propositions are as follows:

(i) Collaboration requires recognition of a high degree of interdependence in planning and managing the domain.
(ii) Collaboration requires recognition of individual and/or mutual benefits to be derived from the process.
(iii) Collaboration requires the perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented.
(iv) Collaboration will depend on encompassing key stakeholder groups.
(v) A convenor is required to initiate and facilitate collaboration.
(vi) Collaboration requires formulation of a vision statement on desired tourism development and growth, joint formulation of tourism goals and objectives, self-regulation of the planning and development domain through the establishment of a collaborative (referent) organization to assist with ongoing adjustment of these strategies through monitoring and revisions.

The range of possible factors facilitating collaboration is evidently very wide. However, Jamal and Getz (1995) narrow down the focus considerably by arguing that two particular issues are critical in that they influence every stage of the collaboration process. These relate firstly to the legitimacy of stakeholder process and, secondly, to the power relationships that develop as the collaboration proceeds.

Both of these factors can inhibit the initiation and success of collaborative relationships considerably. For example, the exclusion of key stakeholders at the beginning of the collaborative process may lead to problems in implementing decisions made, particularly if this restricts the collaborative group's legitimacy as a valid decision-making body in the problem domain.

Meanwhile, *the issue of legitimacy of participating stakeholders is also considered to be critical, especially in the context of tourism because of the complications introduced to the collaboration process by the often very large number of actual and potential participants, who may well have highly diverse and opposing interests.* In such cases, difficulties experienced in collaboration may be directly related to differences in the value orientations of the various stakeholders. We will now explore two specific sector-based examples of inter-organizational collaborative relational marketing in contrasting sectors of the wider tourism industry, namely global airline alliances and hotel consortia.

3.2.3 Collaboration in Practice and Market Factors
Although collaborative alliances among airlines are not a new development, the extent to which truly 'global' alliances have emerged clearly is.

Prominent among these is Star, One World, and Sky Team, which include carriers such as Lufthansa, British Airways, and Air France, respectively. By the end of the 1990s global

alliances accounted for 63.6 percent of passenger traffic, 55.8 percent of passenger numbers, and 58.4 percent of group revenues (Morrish and Hamilton, 2002).

Market factors have been instrumental in driving the development of such alliances, insofar as collaboration represented a suitable means by which airlines were able to combat market turbulence and shift relatively effortlessly between weakening and emerging markets.

With a variety of inter-organizational arrangements, such as code-sharing arrangements, block space agreements, franchising, and reciprocity between frequent-flyer programs, alliances continue to present airlines with means of securing access to new markets.

In many instances, alliances have in fact helped airlines to extend their reach into areas in which their influence has been limited by government regulation at the national level.

Market factors are not alone, however, in providing the catalyst for change; technological motivations have also been important in some instances. For example, the need to develop common technology so as to achieve efficiencies in aircraft maintenance has served as a primary motivation for collaboration in some cases. Hanlon (1999) identifies a lone instance in which both technological and market motivations have been important in the airline industry: the development of *computerized reservation systems (CRSs).*

In the case of *CRSs*, few airlines would have been able to muster the financial resources necessary to develop such highly complex systems on their own. However, airlines have been able to cluster together and share the cost of developing them.
 In doing so, they have developed highly sophisticated CRS systems, which have not only led to efficiencies in booking and the reduction of operational costs, but have also enabled valuable marketing links to be developed between organizations.

3.2.4 Six Factor Catalyst for the Growth in Global Airline & Stakeholder Alliance

In summarizing the rationale for the growth in global airline alliances, Oum and Park (1997) identify the following six forces:
(i) Consumers tend to prefer airlines serving a large number of cities, so to attract more customers in a more competitive environment airlines need to be able to offer flights to an extensive range of destinations worldwide. As alliance partners link up their networks they can provide a 'seamless' service, thereby expanding their network into new territories.

(ii) Traffic feed between partners helps increase load factors and achieve economies of density. Partners may also be able to increase flight frequency without actually increasing the number of flights they themselves operate.

(iii)Alliance members can reduce unit costs by taking advantage of economies of scale, increased traffic density, and economies of scope.

   (v) Frequency, schedule convenience, and convenience of connections are seen as major features of quality. By coordinating their activities, alliance partners can improve the quality of their services.

   (vi)An alliance can offer far more variety of itinerary and routing choices than a single carrier of a similar size.

(vii)   Members can take advantage of alliance-wide CRSs through the practice of code sharing. Flights sharing the same code are listed more than once on a CRS search. This has the effect of pushing competitor flights off the first booking screen, from which many travel agents prefer to book.

With regard to coverage, alliances now have a much wider remit than was previously the case. For example, collaboration now takes place on a wide range of issues including purchasing, aircraft maintenance, booking and sales, customer incentives, marketing and advertising, and staff training.

Hanlon (1999) also points out that although airline alliances are predominantly horizontal and market motivated, vertical and technology-based alliances are not unheard of British Airways, for example, has extensive vertical linkages with companies in its supply chain, including hotel groups such as Marriott, Hertz for car hire, and Diners Club for charge cards. Meanwhile, a good example of a technology based alliance in the airline industry is the KLM, SAS, and Swissair (KSS) consortium, wherein through coordinated purchasing decisions, member airlines (KLM, SAS, and Swissair) are able to specialize in different aspects of aircraft maintenance: one in airframes, another in landing gear, another in engines, and so on.

One of the key features of global airline alliances is that they are predominantly of a non-equity form. On the one hand, this arrangement protects individual airlines from the negative consequences of a partner that encounters serious difficulty, such as bankruptcy.

On the other hand, alliances are only as strong as their weakest member. Thus, the failure of one member to participate fully may seriously compromise the degree of collaborative advantage an alliance is able to achieve relative to competitor alliances.

The current financial problems being encountered by United Airlines, Air Canada, and American Airlines suggest that the current form of inter-organizational collaboration among airlines is going to be put to the test in years to come.
Recent alliance and collaboration of Air France and KLM Royal Dutch appears to be productive and rewarding
Much will depend on the extent to which there exists a truly relational exchange 'mode' of collaboration among participating airlines.
The influence of individuals and personalities and diversity of cultural characteristics among the three predominant global airline alliances are such that in truth there is a mix of both resource dependence and relational exchange dynamics in each.

What is clear is that the future effectiveness and longevity of such inter-organizational forms is uncertain in that the degree to which individual airlines have fully been able to reconcile their naturally competitive and emerging collaborative tendencies has yet to be tested fully.

Self Assessment Questions
  (i)   What form of collaborative initiative is more developed and why?
  (ii)   Which form of collaborative initiatives is least developed and why?

4.0 Conclusion

In conclusion, two future scenarios can be envisaged.

In *the first*, further consolidation and concentration of the industry takes place, either through greater merger and acquisition activity or the development and/or creation of further alliance structures. In *the second* there is an explosion of individual competitive activity in response to the emerging threat from discount airlines and the greater price sensitivity of passengers. In view of the considerable weight of forces driving collaboration that were mentioned at the beginning of this unit further collaborative relational marketing alliance activities are viewed as the least destructive choice for the airline industry.

The tourism and allied hotel industry is complex, fragmented, and highly competitive, and over recent decades has witnessed unparalleled growth driven principally by globalization.

5.0 Summary

Through a combination of mergers and acquisitions, and various forms of collaboration, considerable consolidation and concentration have taken place across the industry, to the extent that the ten largest chains of hotels now account for well over three million rooms. This, however, represents less than one-fifth of the total world supply, with only 26 percent of all hotel rooms being marketed under the brand names of the top 50 global companies (World Tourism Organization, 2002). The vast majority of the hotel industry remains under independent ownership, although the scale and reach of independents varies enormously. Among independent hotel operators, it is widely acknowledged that it is becoming ever more difficult to survive alone.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) What are the key motivations in Building Customer base in Tourism industry today ?

(ii) Identify and explain the principal drivers for collaborative effectiveness in tourism?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

   (i) The least developed form of collaboration is a non-equity arrangement. This involves members agreeing on methods of operation, joint promotion, and so on, but the collaborating organizations do not share financial resources, funding their own contributions to the collaboration independently.
   (ii) A joint venture form of collaboration is more developed form of collaborative initiatives. This involves the collaborating organizations retaining financial independence but may involve the creation of an 'offspring' through the pooling or exchanging of resources. The most evolved form of collaboration, meanwhile, occurs when members acquire equity stakes in one another, leading to financial interdependency at the organizational level rather than simply at the level of the collaboration.

UNIT 7 The positive and negative impacts of tourism

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UNIT 7 The positive and negative impacts of tourism

CONTENT

1.0   **INTRODUCTION**

In this unit, we shall be studying the general impact of international tourism. Domestic tourism, on the other hand, can act as an integrating force strengthening national sentiment. Peoples in outlying areas are traditionally more preoccupied with local village affairs and, in consequence, sometimes prove easy prey to separatist agitators. If, by travel to other parts of the same country, such people can begin to experience pride in their national heritage, a sense of national unity may help to prevent regional fragmentation.

In the more developed countries, visits to national historical monuments, stately homes, and ancient battlefields form a significant motivation for domestic travel, and similar developments are already taking place in other parts of the world.

In many developing countries, students and groups of schoolchildren travel to other regions of their homelands, and such movements of people can do much in the long run to strengthen the political unity of a country. Provided that the individual characteristics and identities of the various regions are not submerged and lost, such travel can benefit both tourists and residents alike.

2.0   **OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain your understanding of Carrying Capacity and Cost in tourism

define the what positive impact of tourism meant

Identify negative areas of tourism business

Discuss the importance of cost benefit analysis of tourism

Understand social impact of tourism to a developing nation like Nigeria

Enumerate economic impact of tourism to a developing nation

3.0   **MAIN CONTENT**

   3.1 The positive and negative impacts of tourism

Tourism creates impacts and consequences; we cannot prevent these, but need to plan and manage to minimize the negative impacts and accentuate the positive impacts of tourism. These impacts occur because tourism, both international and domestic, brings about an intermingling of people from diverse social and cultural backgrounds, and also a considerable spatial redistribution of spending power, which has a significant impact on the economy of the destination.

Early work on the impact of tourism on destinations focused primarily on economic aspects. This was not only because such impacts are more readily quantifiable and measurable*, **but***

also there was a pervading climate of optimism that these studies would show that tourism was of net economic benefit to host destinations. In many cases, this was indeed true.

Yet tourism, by its very nature, is attracted to unique and fragile environments and societies and it became apparent that in some cases the economic benefits of tourism may be offset by adverse and previously unmeasured environmental and social consequences.

The benefits and costs of tourism accrue to two quite distinct groups of people. On the one hand, the visitors themselves receive benefits and incur costs in taking holidays.

On the other hand, the resident populations of the host region benefit from tourism (not only financially) but at the same time incur costs of various types. Because it is not possible to deal adequately with both aspects within the limited scope of this single unit, attention will be devoted to the positive and negative effects of tourism from the point of view of the host country or region.

The general issues central to any discussion of the posit
ive and negative impacts of tourism must include notions of carrying capacity and also of how impacts can be assessed.

3.1.1 Carrying Capacity

Carrying capacity is a relatively straightforward concept.
By definition, **Carrying Capacity** in simple terms it *refers to a point beyond which further levels of visitation or development would lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience* (Getz, 1983; O'Reilly, 1986; McCool and Lime, 2001).

Commentators point out that operationalizing capacity is difficult. Buckley (1999), for example, mounts a scathing attack on the concept and its utility, stating that carrying capacity is 'ultimately meaningless.'

This is echoed by McCool and Lime (2001) who state that *'the concept of a tourism and recreation carrying capacity maintains an illusion of control when it is a seductive fiction, a social trap, or policy myth.'* Yet, despite this debate and discussion in the literature, the basic conceptual framework of carrying capacity remains the same (Saveriades, 2000), and however it is approached, there is no doubt that any consideration of the impact of tourism must recognize the pivotal role that carrying capacity plays by intervening in the relationship between visitor and resource.

Effectively, the impact made by tourism depends on both the volume and profile characteristics of the tourists (including their length of stay, activity, mode of transport, and travel arrangement). In this respect, a number of authors have attempted to classify tourists according to their impact on the destinations (see, for example, Smith, 1977). The character of the resource (including its natural features, level of development, political and social structure) is equally important because it determines the degree of its robustness to tourism and tourism development (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

A range of variables, therefore, needs to be taken into account in any determination of the impact of tourism.

3.1.2 Determination impacts issues.

In economics, impact methodology has a long pedigree, but the measurement of environmental and social impacts has not progressed anywhere near as far.

Indeed, in all forms of impact analysis, it is important to distinguish tourism-induced events from other agents of change, ensure that secondary and tertiary effects are considered, and have a view as to what the situation was before tourism intervened.

All of these points are problematic and the tendency is therefore to simplify and narrow the scope of investigation to 'contain' the research into a manageable outcome (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

In part, the difficulty of quantifying the environmental and social impacts of tourism has delayed the development of impact methodologies.

But the rising tide of environmentalism has caught up with tourism and has lent support to the view that in some cases the economic benefits of tourism are more than outweighed by the environmental and social costs of tourism.

Concepts such as 'sustainable tourism development' and 'the responsible consumption of tourism' are seen by many as the answer, along with the enhanced planning and management of tourism. These issues are discussed later in other units.

Nonetheless, the issue of management is closely related to the notion of carrying capacity because a destination can be 'managed' to take any number of visitors. Simply 'hardening' the environment and managing the visitor can accommodate large volumes without an unacceptable decline in the environment or the experience.

McCool and Lime (2001) re conceptualize carrying capacity along these lines, suggesting that managers should be looking at the particular conditions that are desired or appropriate at a destination to support recreation and tourism activity—'sustaining these conditions is at the heart of concerns over impacts, saturation and carrying capacities.'

The question must therefore be asked, managing and sustaining these conditions for whom? In pluralistic societies, the conflicts and tensions between the stakeholders in tourism—tourists, developers, planners, environmentalists, and communities—will in the end determine levels of tourist development.

Butler (1999) then raises the question as to how we judge the notion of the 'satisfaction' of these various stakeholders as one of the key research questions for sustainable tourism. After all, tourism takes place within political and social contexts of power, relationships, and governance.

It is, however, heartening that the result of this discussion is a continued pressure for sustainable tourism amongst the various groups in society and that this is changing the perceived balance between the positive and negative effects of tourism.

This balance has also been influenced by the events of the early years of the twenty-first century including *the terrorist attacks on Twin Towers of New York World Trade Centre*

and the bombings in Bali in India. *It could be said that these 'shocks' to the tourism system have acted to reduce the impacts of tourism in some parts of the world because levels of international travel have reduced and tourists have switched to domestic travel or opted for destinations that are perceived as 'safe.'*

3.1 The Economic Impact of Tourism

International tourism is an invisible export in that it creates a flow of foreign currency into the economy of a destination country, thereby contributing directly to the current account of the balance of payments.

Like other export industries, this inflow of revenue creates business turnover, household income, employment, and government revenue.

However, the generation process does not stop at this point. Some portion of the money received by the business establishments, individuals, and government agencies is respent within the destination economy, thereby creating further rounds of economic activity.

These secondary effects can in total considerably exceed in magnitude the initial direct effects. Indeed any study purporting to show the economic impact made by tourism must attempt to measure the overall effect made by the successive rounds of economic activity generated by the initial expenditure.

The process has been documented with attention drawn to the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of the various approaches (see, for example, Archer and Fletcher, 1991).

Domestic tourism has somewhat similar economic effects on the host regions of a country. Whereas, however, international tourism brings a flow of foreign currency into a country.

3.2.1 Domestic Tourism and Income Redistribution

Domestic tourism redistributes currency spatially within the boundaries of a country. From the point of view of a tourist region within a country, however, domestic tourism is a form of invisible export.

Money earned in other regions is spent within the host region creating additional business revenue, income, jobs, and revenue to local government. The process of secondary revenue, income, and employment generation within the host region is then the same as for a national economy.

The principal difference during these secondary stages, however, is that individual regions within a country are usually less economically self-contained, and, hence, a far greater proportion of the money is likely to leak out of the regional system into other regions.

The secondary effects in individual regions are far lower in magnitude than for the national economy as a whole. Moreover, tourism seems to be more effective than other industries in generating employment and income in the less developed, often peripheral, regions of a country where alternative opportunities for development are more limited.

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Indeed, it is in these areas that tourism can make its most significant impact. In such places many of the local people are subsistence farmers or fishermen, and if they become involved in the tourism industry their household incomes increase by a very large amount.

The growth of tourism in such areas may provide also a monetary incentive for the continuance of many local crafts, whereas the tourist hotels may create a market for local produce. Indeed, the introduction of a tourism industry into such areas can have a proportionally greater effect on the welfare of the resident population than the same amount of tourism might have on the more developed parts of the same country.

The development of tourism, especially in a previously underdeveloped part of a country, requires the existence of an infrastructure, as well as hotel accommodation and other facilities specific to tourism. In many cases these utilities are economically indivisible in the sense that, in providing them for the tourism industry, they at the same time become available for the use of local people.

Thus, in many countries, highways and airfields, constructed primarily to cater for tourism, now provide an access to wider markets for many locally produced goods.

Unfortunately, in many cases the local people still receive little direct benefit from these developments. This in essence is a problem of both physical and economic distribution (i.e., of the extent to which, and the speed at which, these facilities should be made more generally available).

As tourism continues to grow in a region, it makes increasing demands on the scarce resources of that area. Land in particular is required and in consequence land prices rise.

Farmers and other local landowners are encouraged to sell, with the result that, although they may obtain shortterm gains, they are left landless with only low paid work available. Indeed much of the benefit from higher land prices may accrue to speculators who buy land from the previous owners before it has been scheduled for development.

These problems can be overcome, however, if either the land is acquired at an early stage by the government for a fair, market price or if the land is rented rather than sold to the developers.

Market forces do not necessarily ensure that development keeps pace with demand. There is a need for realistic planning and the effective enforcement of planning regulations to reduce possible conflicts of interest and, where appropriate, to conserve unique and unusual features for the enjoyment of future generations of visitors and residents alike.
This is a lesson that has been learned rather late in many developed countries.

Superficially at least the economic 'benefits' of tourism seem self-evident. Yet in recent years several writers have expressed reservations about the nature and size of the benefits attributable to tourism and have become increasingly skeptical about the potentialities of tourism as a tool for development and growth and as a means of maximizing the welfare of the indigenous population. For example, Tosun, Timothy, and Öztürk (2003) found that although tourism as an economic development strategy in Turkey has increased the rate of economic development, it has also created inequalities between Turkish regions and social classes.

In particular this was caused by the approach of offering economic incentives for mass coastal tourism developments at the expense of rural areas.

The problem is essentially one of resource allocation and of whether or not the development of a tourism industry offers the optimum usage of the resources available—in other words an assessment of the costs and benefits of tourism development vis-à-vis alternatives.

3.2.2 *Cost-Benefit Evaluation*

In cost-benefit terms, the economic benefits gained by a recipient country from tourism have been outlined previously. Again, these benefits have to be offset against the economic costs involved.

Apart from the purchase of import requirements, the earnings of expatriate workers, and the overseas expenses incurred by the foreign companies concerned during both the construction and operating phases of the development, none of which benefits the resident population, the country itself incurs considerable costs internally.

The real cost to society of employing resources and factors of production in any one sector, including the construction and operation of hotels and other associated tourism services, is the value of the output that could have been obtained from their use in other sectors of the economy (Archer, 1996).

Because capital and skilled labor are rarely, if ever, abundant in such countries, the development of a tourism industry requires some of these scarce resources to be diverted from their alternative uses.

Admittedly, some factors of production might otherwise be unemployed, in which case their use in tourism involves no real cost to society, but in most cases the opportunity cost incurred is the value of the production lost in other sectors.

Whether or not tourism creates greater net benefits to society than other forms of development depends primarily on the nature of the country's economy and what alternative forms of development are practicable. Also, in the interests of diversification, it is sometimes considered desirable to promote several forms of development even though one or more of these may offer relatively lower net benefits.

3.2.3 Economic Effects of Tourism Demands

Despite the plethora of economic analyses undertaken during the last 25 years, economists have not displayed any noticeable propensity to work jointly with specialists from other disciplines in multidisciplinary teams. Their contribution to such work has normally consisted of analyses undertaken in parallel but not jointly with other specialists. There is a need for research in the following areas:

• A more balanced view of the economic effects of tourism demands a deeper understanding of the human issues surrounding the impact made by tourism. This requires joint work by economists, sociologists, political scientists, and others. In particular, economists should

work more closely with sociologists in analyzing and quantifying the social costs and benefits of tourism.

• The long-term advantages and disadvantages of tourism can be better understood if economists work more closely with environmentalists as well as specialists in the various humanities.

• The economic analysis of tourism will be improved if more economists apply their efforts to improving the methodology of existing techniques rather than merely replicating them in a succession of case studies. Wagner (1997), for example, employs a social accounting matrix to examine the economic impact of tourism on a Brazilian ecosystem.

There is an special danger that replication of economic impact studies in isolation will simply fuel the call for development in destinations and omit considerations of other costs.

In addition to the economic costs and benefits already mentioned, tourism also imposes political, cultural, social, moral, and environmental changes on the host country. The fact that such costs are rarely quantifiable in money terms has prevented more all-embracing considerations of the impact of tourism on destinations.

However, techniques are being developed to allow comparison across impacts utilizing a standard set of variables. For example, Lindberg and Johnson (1997) have developed a framework for measuring social impacts in a metric consistent with economic impacts using contingent valuation to provide a cost-benefit framework.

Political Effects

3.2.4 *The Political Costs and Benefits of Tourism*

Whereas the virtues of international tourism have been extolled as a major force for peace and understanding between nations (World Tourism Organization, 1980; 1982; Litvin, 1998; Leitner, 1999), the reality is often far removed from this utopian image.

Long-haul travel between developed and developing countries is increasing annually and is bringing into direct contact with each other people from widely different backgrounds and with very contrasting lifestyles and levels of income. Where these disparities are very great, the political as well as the socio-cultural consequences may be severe.

In extreme cases international tourism has imposed a form of 'neo-colonial' type development on emerging nations (Hall, 1994; Hall and Jenkins, 1995). Quite simply, this neo-**colonialism takes power from the local and regional levels** and concentrates it into the hands of multinational companies.

These companies will negotiate only at the national level and expect any 'problems' to be solved by national governments, otherwise investment will be withdrawn. At the operational level, the higher paid, more 'respectable' posts in hotels and other establishments are sometimes occupied by expatriates who possess the necessary expertise and experience.

Although the lower paid, more menial jobs are frequently reserved for the indigenous population, it is possible that such apparent discrimination can foster resentment and can sour international relationships. In extreme cases such development can even inhibit the growth of a national consciousness in a newly dependent country.

Unfortunately, contact between peoples of different backgrounds is not always beneficial and may in some cases generate additional cultural, social, and moral stresses. Although the mixing of people from different regions of a country can produce a better understanding of each other's way of life and a better appreciation of problems specific to particular regions, it can at the same time create misunderstandings and even distrust.

3.2.5 Impact of Tourism on many aspects of Human life and Organization

So far political scientists have contributed relatively little to the analysis of tourism, and most of the work in this field has been concerned with the situation in particular countries. Noteworthy exceptions include books by Hall (1994), Hall and Jenkins (1995), Hall (2000), and Kerr (2003) and a paper by Mathews and Richter (1991).

The unit provide a framework for the examination of tourism and politics/policy making, whereas the paper by Mathews and Richter reviews the efforts made by political scientists to apply their special disciplines to the study of tourism. The authors examine first the ways in which many important aspects of tourism involve some of the central concepts of political science and, second, the contribution that political science can make to the study of tourism.

Two major issues in tourism can be addressed by political scientists.

(i) A fuller understanding of the human impact of tourism on destination areas can be achieved only by a much greater integration of the work of political scientists with specialists in other disciplines and with tourism practitioners.

(ii) Knowledge of the impact of tourism on many aspects of human life and organization can be improved if more political scientists are willing to use their expertise to study tourism as an independent variable affecting areas of concern in public administration, comparative politics, political theory, international relations, and national politics (Richter, 1983). Specific work is needed in a variety of areas but particularly welcome would be:

• Studies examining the influence of tourism on the roots of power in communities and the implications for community-based investment and the integration of tourism into the community. A major contribution here would be in terms of examining the many political interests involved in the development of tourism and the role
of conflict resolution and consensus models (Jamal and Getz, 1995);

• Work examining the stage of destination life cycle at which community involvement is most appropriate, and the stages at which communities are most vulnerable to external political and commercial decision making; and

• Further examination of policy impact analysis within a tourism and event context (Whitford, 2003).

3.2.6 Socio-cultural Effects and Benefits
Although political effects are influential, it is difficult to disentangle them from the social and cultural effects of tourism. For example, Tsartas (2003) examines the influence of local social

structures, particularly the family, on both tourism development and policy in the Greek islands and coastal areas. These social influences on policy and planning have led to unplanned and rapid tourism development, partly driven by the pressures of mass tourism and the downgrading of agriculture as an economic sector.

Wide cultural differences occur between different countries and sometimes between different regions within the same country. Indeed the existence of such differences may be one of the principal stimulants of a tourism industry.

In some developing countries such traditional cultural behavior patterns of particular groups of people form one focus of the tourism industry (Butler and Hinch, 1996).

Sometimes, however, differences in physical appearance and, perhaps more importantly, differences in cultural behaviour between visitors and residents, are so great that mutual understanding is replaced by antipathy.

The problem is exacerbated because tourists are, by definition, strangers in the destination. Their dress codes and patterns of behaviour are different to the residents and, often, different from those that the tourist would display at home; inhibitions are shed and the consequent problems of prostitution, drugs, gambling, and sometimes vandalism ensue.

As strangers, tourists are also vulnerable and fall victim to robbery and crimes perpetrated by the local community who may see these activities as a way to 'redress the balance.'

Lindberg, Andersson, and Dellaert (2001) chart the social gains and losses to residential populations as a result of tourism stating that the attitudes of residents are heterogeneous, with this very diversity creating a challenge to decision makers who try to reach consensus.

This comes down to recognizing that the values of residents, rather than straight demographics, may explain antecedents of opinions on tourism (Williams and Lawson, 2001).

When the cultural distinctions between the residents and tourists from more prosperous countries and regions are strongly marked, local culture and customs may be exploited to satisfy the visitor, sometimes at the expense of local pride and dignity. Here the issue of staged authenticity is an important one where the host destination is able to convince tourists that festivals and activities in the 'front region' of the destination (e.g., public areas such as hotel lobbies or restaurants are authentic and thus they protect the real 'back region', i.e., residents' homes and areas where life continues) (McCannell, 1973; Ingles, 2002).

Tourists are increasingly motivated by a quest for authenticity, and one of the problems of 'alternative tourism' is that the tourists are encouraged to penetrate the 'back region.' With good management and planning, however, tourism can provide an impetus for the preservation of ancient cultures, but too often the local way of life degenerates into a commercially organized effigy of its former self.

The traditional dances and the skilled craftwork give way to cheap imitations to satisfy the needs of the visitor and to obtain money with the least possible effort. Here, Medina (2003) recounts that Mayan indigenous peoples even access new channels (such as archaeologists) to research and revive their traditional practices. In some cases this is merely an initial response

and, later, tourism can stimulate high quality revivals of crafts in particular. Nonetheless, there is a constant tension in countries wishing to be part of the global tourism movement but also to retain their cultural authenticity (Brunet, et al., 2001).

In primitive and isolated areas, the arrival of too many visitors can even cause local people to leave their settlements and move to new areas where they can remain undisturbed. To combat this in vulnerable areas such as North American Indian reservations, 'governing rules' for visitors have been formulated. In more developed areas, in extreme cases, tourism has disrupted completely the way of life of the local people.

The institution of the national park system in some parts of Africa, although justifiable on the grounds of wildlife conservation and tourism, has in some cases seriously affected the hunting and nomadic existence of the local people.

The problem is not confined, however, to developing countries. In Canada, for example, the creation of parks of outdoor recreation and domestic tourism at Forillon and Gros Morne necessitated the eviction of previous residents and in consequence aroused considerable local opposition.

Insufficient research has been carried out so far to disentangle the social and cultural side effects of tourism development. Where the cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds of the tourists are very different from those of the local population, the results of their intermingling may be favourable but it can be explosive.

The so-called demonstration effect of prosperity amid poverty may create a desire among local people to work harder or to achieve higher levels of education in order to emulate the way of life of the tourists.

On the other hand, in many cases the inability of the local people to achieve the same level of affluence may create a sense of deprivation and frustration, which may find an outlet in hostility and even aggression.

The merit of social intercourse between tourists and the indigenous population as a means toward fostering better understanding and goodwill between nations has been extolled as a major social benefit obtained from tourism. Although this is true in many cases, particularly in those countries where tourists are still comparatively rare, it is certainly not true in many countries where tourists' tastes and habits have proved offensive to particular sectors of the local population.

Because of factors such as these, some writers have rejected the term 'demonstration effect' and substituted the term 'confrontation effect.' Perhaps the most significant and one of the least desirable by products of this confrontation is the effect on the moral standards of the local people. In extreme cases, crime, prostitution, gambling, and drug traffic may be imported into the holiday areas from other regions.

Many of the social conventions and constraints imposed on tourists in their home areas are absent when they visit another region, and in consequence their moral behaviour can deteriorate without undue censure.

As a result, many local people find that by catering to the several needs of their visitors they themselves can achieve a relatively high level of prosperity. Although the credit or blame for developments such as red light districts can be attributed more to the growth of international tourism than to an increase in domestic tourism, the latter must bear its share of responsibility.

A critical issue here is the form of contact between host and guest. In the 'enclave' tourism model, so berated by proponents of 'alternative forms of tourism,' contacts are controlled and minimal, mainly confined to 'culture brokers' who speak the language of both host and guest and who understand both cultures.

It is when the tourist penetrates into the daily lives and homes of the hosts, the back region, that real exposure of cultural and social differences between the two groups emerge, and problems may occur.

3.3   Tourism Accompanying Health Hazards

Tourists have been blamed for assisting the spread of sexually transmitted diseases and AIDS in many countries, but their contribution is probably very small in relation to the part played by the local population. Indeed, visitors themselves do not always emerge unscathed from their interaction with the local community (Petty, 1989; Cliff and Grabowski, 1997; Wilks and Page, 2003).

Poor hygienic conditions in many tourist resorts create suitable conditions for the spread of various intestinal diseases, typhoid, cholera, and hepatitis. Lack of forethought and ignorance result in cases of severe sunstroke and skin cancer.

Inappropriate precautions result in infection by the AIDS virus, which already affects a significant percentage of the population of some countries in Africa.

Governments, tour operators, airlines, and resort operators have a duty to visitors and residents alike to provide adequate information to ensure that these risks are known and minimized.

Many of the other socio-cultural problems associated with tourism are related to the degree of intensity of tourism development. Although difficult to measure, there is a relationship between tourism density and the growth of local resentment toward tourism.

The flow of tourists into a region increases the densities at which people live and overcrowds the facilities that tourists share with the local population.

Overcrowding reduces the value of the holiday experience and creates additional strain for the resident population. In extreme cases local people may be debarred from enjoying the natural facilities of their own country or region.

Along part of the Mediterranean, for example, almost half of the coastline has been acquired by hotels for the sole use of their visitors, and in consequence the local public is denied easy access.

3.3.1 Choice of Strategies issues and Socio-Cultural Characteristics

The literature on the socio-cultural effects of tourism is quite extensive, although the majority of the contributions are concerned with specific cases in particular countries. Some of the more general contributions have been made by Dogan (1989), Dann and Cohen (1991), Smith and Brent (2001), and Reisinger and Turner (2003). Dogan (1989) provides an interesting analysis in which he shows how the reactions of the host community to the influx of tourists and the changes that tourism brings has been quite diverse, ranging from an active resistance to the complete acceptance and even adoption of the tourists' culture patterns.

He shows how the choice of strategies, deliberate or otherwise, to cope with the changes depends on both the nature of the socio-cultural characteristics of the host community and the magnitude of the changes themselves. His conclusion is that even in the case of a previously homogenous community that adopts a particular response to tourism, the community will itself become diversified and groups will emerge within the community exhibiting very different responses to tourism developments. Dann and Cohen are concerned with the contribution that the discipline of sociology can make to the understanding of the tourism phenomenon. Here, different perspectives on tourism have been adopted by sociologists, and in consequence this has lead to the emergence of a variety of approaches. Dann and Cohen believe that '. . . some of the best work in tourism has been eclectic, linking elements of one perspective with those of another, rather than opting for an exclusive point of view.'
Two major issues require the attention of sociologists.

  (i) There is a need for many more multidisciplinary studies where sociologists can contribute the insights of their discipline to the study of particular aspects of the tourism phenomenon or to the analysis of tourism in specific countries and regions. Here there is a clear need for work to examine the social-carrying capacity of destinations; work that must be closely linked to community-based models of tourism planning and the 'limits of acceptable change' (Saveriades, 2000). Mitchell and Reid (2001) stress the need for research into mechanisms of community integration into the planning process. Indeed, although much is written on why community empowerment is important, there is much less written on how to do it.

  (ii) The quantification of the socioeconomic costs and benefits of tourism requires the joint efforts of sociologists and economists. At present this work is being carried out almost entirely by economists, who are not always in the best position to identify all of the phenomena requiring quantification or the appropriate weightings to apply to each (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997).

3.3.2 *The Environmental and Ecological Effects, Costs and Benefits of Tourism*

The extent and nature of the environmental and ecological damage done by tourists is related to the magnitude of the development and the volume of visitors, the concentration of usage both spatially and temporally, the nature of the environment in question, and the nature of the planning and management practices adopted before and after development takes place.

Excessive and badly planned tourism development affects the physical environment of destinations. In many areas the uncontrolled commercial exploitation of tourism has produced

unsightly hotels of alien design that intrude into the surrounding cultural and scenic environment. In such cases the architectural design has been planned to meet the supposed wishes of the visitor rather than to blend into the local environment.

The effects, moreover, are not solely scenic, because the waste and sewage from these developments are often discharged in an unprocessed form and pollute the rivers and seas of the holiday areas. Poor and ill-conceived forms of tourism development also destroy irreplaceable
natural environments, the true and long-term benefits of which may not have been properly evaluated. Thus, for example, marshlands and mangrove swamps, which provide both outlets for flood control and also the basic ingredients for local fishing industries, have been drained to create tourist marinas.

Water resources needed by local farmers and villages have been diverted for the use of tourist hotels and golf courses, and, in some mountainous areas, forests have been depleted to create ski slopes with much resultant soil erosion, flooding, and mud slips causing substantial loss of life and damage to property.

Furthermore, *the tourists themselves are often guilty of helping to destroy the surrounding environment—the more attractive a site, then the more popular it becomes and the more likely it is that it will be degraded by heavy visitation (Hillery, et al., 2001).*

In many areas *tourists, sometimes ignorantly, sometimes deliberately, damage crops and farm equipment, frighten farm animals, and bestrew large quantities of garbage over the countryside.*

From one mountain alone in Great Britain during the summer months, almost a ton of litter a day (mainly discarded lunch wrappings) is brought down from the summit, whereas from the New Forest in Southern England approximately 25,000 empty bottles are retrieved each year. In other areas wildlife has been severely disturbed, coral reefs have been despoiled, and alien forms of plant life have been introduced into delicate ecosystems on the shoes and clothing of visitors.

Lest the picture appear too bleak, *it should be remembered that tourism, both domestic and international, is at the same time a positive force in helping to conserve the environment of the holiday regions.* In the twenty-first century, for example, new forms of tourism, such as 'clean up' tourism, are combating these problems, leaving the destination in a better environmental condition than they found it—a form of 'enhanced sustainability.'

Many of the disadvantages mentioned previously can be offset by high quality planning, design and management, and by educating tourists to appreciate the environment.

3.3.3 African Extraordinary Tourism Heritage

Nigeria Slave Hurt, Badgary, Lagos Nigeria

Nigeria Natural Museum and Monuments, Onikan Lagos.

Gold Coast, Slave Depot (Ghana)

Yankari Games Reserve, Northern Part of Nigeria

Kenya Game Reserve, in East Africa.

Tourists are attracted to areas of high scenic beauty, regions of historical and architectural interest, and areas with abundant and interesting wildlife. Some of the money spent by tourists in the region, in particular the revenue received from entry fees, can be used to conserve and improve the natural and manmade heritage (as is the case for example in the **Kenyan game reserves**), whereas tourism may also provide a use for otherwise redundant historic buildings.

There is obviously a need for research to examine the environmental impact of tourism, particularly in regions and environments that have been neglected in past work. Holden (2000), for example, states that research on the environmental impacts of tourism is still 'relatively immature and a true multidisciplinary approach to investigation has yet to be developed.' Butler (2000) provides a list of the research priorities in this area including:

• A need to better understand the elements that comprise environmental attractiveness and quality;

• Integration of research in the physical sciences into tourism planning and management, particularly in terms of the causes of impacts rather than their effects; and

• Assessment of 'the real impacts of tourism and the level of sustainability achieved requires in-depth longitudinal research and environmental, economic and social auditing.' This demands long-term funding commitments. Taking the last point, environmental indicators should be developed for use in cost-benefit analysis and also to allow environmental standards to be devised at destinations to assist consumers in their choice. Manning (1999) has devised indicators of tourism sustainability to act as an early warning system and identify emerging problems.

Already, the World Tourism Organization has embraced this concept and published work in the field. It is therefore implicit in this trend that planning for tourism will be undertaken.

Here the 'planning in' of the environmental, social, and cultural context of tourism at the destination (in terms of using local architectural styles, etc.) is vital. In other words, the relationship between tourism and the environment is mediated by planning and management. These tourism planning and management techniques exist and are well tried in many areas.

What is necessary **is for the barriers to planning and management, which exist in many areas, to be removed to allow the existing techniques to be applied effectively**. This requires that an agency is willing to implement these approaches (Butler, 2000), whereas planners must also understand the role of stakeholders in operational planning and management approaches to sustainable tourism (Hardy and Beeton, 2001).
 On this point, Nepal (2000) stresses the need for national level policy and management issues for protection of valuable sites integrating scientific research and forging partnerships between local people, the industry, and tourism professionals.

A major stumbling block here is the privatization of many public tourist agencies and the deregulation of planning in some western nations.

A future issue to consider will be the development of new financing models to ensure continuity of funding for privatized agencies that perform a regulatory role.

A critical issue for the foreseeable future, therefore, will be the relationship of tourism and the environment. The environment has moved into centre stage in the debate, as evidenced by the study on tourism at both the 1992 Rio de Janeiro Earth Summit and the 2002 Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development. Here, although the excesses of tourism development have been identified, the alliance of tourism with environmentalists to sensitize tourists to the issues is also recognized. It is this issue that forms the next section of the chapter.

3.3.4 Sustainable Development and Responsible Consumption of Tourism

This unit has reviewed the key elements of the positive and negative impacts of tourism. As mentioned in the introduction, it is only in recent years that the negative 'downstream' effects of tourism on the environments, societies, and vulnerable economies have been set more fully against the tangible economic gains. Add to this the rise of environmentalism and 'green' consciousness in the mid to late 1980s, and the stage was set for a reassessment of the role and value of tourism.

In part, this is also a reflection of the growing maturity of both the tourist as consumer and the tourism sector itself. In the early decades of mass tourism, short term perspectives prevailed as the industry and public agencies attempted to cope with burgeoning demand.

In the 1980s, 1990s, and early years of the twenty-first century, growth rates slowed and tourists began questioning some of the excesses of tourism development. In response, longer planning horizons are being considered and new forms of tourism advocated as industry and governments slipstream behind public opinion and media attention given to these issues.

One of the most valuable results of this reassessment has been the belated discovery of the relevance of the sustainable development concept to tourism (see, for example, Pigram, 1990; Farrell and Runyan, 1991; Bramwell and Lane, 1999; and Holden, 2000). As with many service industries, some of the most important ideas and innovations come from outside the industry or the subject area.

The concept of sustainable development has a long pedigree in the field of resource management and has, at last, become an acceptable term in tourism. It has also become a debated term with definitional arguments over its meaning and operationalisation, particularly as the meaning of sustainability increasingly implies a 'triple bottom line' approach (Hardy, Beeton, and Pearson, 2002).

The often quoted Brundtland Report defines sustainability simply as 'meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

The concept of sustainability is central to the reassessment of the role of tourism in society. It demands a long-term view of economic activity, questions the imperative of continued economic growth, and ensures that consumption of tourism does not exceed the ability of a host destination to provide for future tourists. In other words, it represents a trade off between present and future needs.

In the past, sustainability has been a low priority compared with the short-term drive for profitability and growth, but, with pressure growing for a more responsible tourism industry, it is difficult to see how such short-term views on consumption can continue. Indeed, destination 'regulations' have been developed in some areas, and already the bandwagon for sustainable development and responsible consumption is rolling. This is evidenced by a number of initiatives:

• Public agencies are issuing guidelines for the ethical consumption of tourism (see, for example, the WTO's global code of ethics for tourism).

• Industry sector organizations have developed sustainable auditing procedures for destinations (see, for example, the WTTC's 'Green Globe').

• Pressure groups and professional societies have devised codes of conduct for visitors and travelers (see, for example, the Audobon Society's 'travel ethic' and the Sierra Club's 'wilderness manners').

• The private sector is developing responsible tourism policies for the operation of their companies (a major collective project here is the 'Tour Operator's Initiative for Sustainable Tourism Development' representing 25 companies worldwide; see also individual companies such as Exodus Holidays www.exodus.co.uk).

• Tourism consumer groups are growing in number and influence (Botterill, 1991) and guides to responsible tourism are increasingly available (Mann, 2002).

• Sustainable tourism is becoming integral to tourism curricula (Jurowski, 2002). As a philosophical stance or a way of thinking, it is difficult to disagree with the concept of sustainable tourism development and responsible consumption of tourism. But a little knowledge is a dangerous thing and some commentators have oversimplified the complex relationship between the consumption and development of tourism resources. This is particularly true of the so-called alternative tourism movement, which is lauded by some as a solution to the ills of mass tourism. Indeed, the tenor of much of the writing about alternative tourism is that any alternative tourism scheme is good, whereas all mass tourism is bad, although this is rightly refuted by Jafari (2001). Butler (1990) provides a useful characterization of the two extremes, whereas Wheeler (1991; 1992) provides telling criticism of alternative tourism.

Others too warn of the ecotourism bandwagon; Beaumont (2001) is concerned that it preaches its values to the converted, whereas Ascot, La Trobe, and Howard (1998) classify deep and shallow ecotourism on the basis of commitment of the visitor. There is, of course, a case for alternative tourism, but only as another form of tourism in the spectrum. It can never be an alternative to mass tourism, nor can it solve all the problems of tourism (Duffy, 2002). Cohen's (2002) criticism is telling. He sees forms of sustainable tourism as 'green washing,' misrepresenting the concept and using it to gain access to take over the control of natural sites

or cultural practices. He also warns of issues of equity in terms of using sustainability as an instrument of power in the restriction of visitation to key sites.

A variety of issues emerge from these trends. It is important to disseminate cases of good practice in sustainable tourism, and to draw out generalities from these cases. In this way, responsible behaviour may pervade the provision and consumption of tourism and displace the more extreme calls for 'politically correct' tourism development. It must be recognised that the relationship of economics to environmental and social issues and policies in tourism is a complex one (Archer, 1996).

3.3.5 Economic Policy and Good Model Community Participation
Often economic policy is determined at the regional or national level, yet the impact of that policy is felt at the local level on environments and societies (Hough and Sherpa, 1989). Teo (2002) observes that globalization has heightened the imperative for sustainable tourism as global process impact on tourism at the local level and are then moderated by a range of processes and power relationships that determine the success or failure of sustainable tourism.

Good models of community participation and planning in tourism are increasingly available (Richards and Hall, 2000), and in particular the notion of destination 'visioning ' is growing in acceptance as a means of communities taking control of their tourism futures (Murphy, 1985; Haywood, 1988; Ritchie, 1999; Richards and Hall, 2000; Ruhanen and Cooper, 2003).

But it must also be recognised that tourism takes place in many different social and political contexts and what works in one place may need adaptation for another. From this point of view, Go (2001) is less optimistic that there has been real progress in converting the good intentions of sustainable tourism into practice. This also applies to the borrowing of concepts and techniques from other subject areas and industries. Nevertheless, tourism has much to learn from others.

In particular, techniques of environmental management, visitor planning and management, and studies of visitor/environment relationships are well developed in the recreation literature, and are just as applicable to tourism (Cooper, 1991). In particular, recreational managers are much more advanced in their use of the notion of 'capacity' than are tourism planners (Barkham, 1973; McCool and Lime, 2001), although such mechanistic planning techniques are now being questioned (Butler, 1996). Perhaps the central issues emerging from this section are the gradual shift from short-term to longer-term thinking and planning in tourism; it is no longer acceptable for the industry to exploit and 'use up' destinations and then move on (Cooper, 1995). In addition there is an urgent need for tourism to sharpen up its terminology (e.g., alternative? responsible? soft, appropriate tourism?), to think clearly about the implications of sustainable/ responsible initiatives, and to develop a code of business ethics.

Self Assessment Questions
(i) What is carrying capacity in tourism?
(ii) Briefly explain the effective impact of tourism to carrying cost ?

4.0 Conclusions

Over the last 25 years, both the planning and marketing of tourism have been primarily orientated toward the needs of the tourist and the provision of interesting tourist experiences. This attitude has its basis first in the need of developers and operators to attract large numbers of visitors and hence ensure an adequate financial return on their investments and operations, and, second, in the desire of politicians and planners to maximize the financial benefits from tourism for their country or region. For both parties the primary concerns have been how many tourists will come, how can we attract more, and what facilities and services will they require? Fortunately the climate of thought is changing, albeit slowly.

Increasingly politicians and planners are becoming aware of the longer-term social, economic, and environmental consequences of excessive and badly planned tourism expansion. Sharpley (2000), for example, calls for national and international cooperation to facilitate the adoption of sustainable tourism-development policies.

However, he notes that 'the political structure and fragmented nature of the industry suggest the political systems dedicated to equitable development and resource use are unlikely to be forthcoming.' If the adverse effects of tourism are to be prevented or remedied, it is crucial that politicians and planners become less preoccupied with increasing the number of visitors (and indeed with volume as a yardstick of success) and devote more consideration to the long-term welfare of the resident population. As Ritchie and Crouch (2003) note, it is the enhanced welfare of the local community that is the key yardstick of success for a competitive destination.

5.0 Summary
Planning for the resultant impact of tourism necessitates a careful definition of the respective responsibilities of the public and private sectors and communities. Planning should be designed to maximize the economic and social benefits of tourism to the resident population, whereas at the same time mitigating or preferably eliminating the adverse effects. In the past most of this type of planning has been remedial—it has taken place after much development has occurred. In the future, planners and communities must take a more proactive role in controlling the nature of such development in terms of stricter building and design regulations; controlled access to vulnerable sites and attractions; strict transport regulations, especially in core areas; and the use of entry fees, barriers, and designated routes for vehicles and pedestrians alike. Tourism creates both positive and negative effects in the destination country or region.
Thoughtful policy making and planning can do much to minimize or even remove the negative effects. Tourism can be a very positive means of increasing the economic, social, cultural, and environmental life of a country. The major issue now is can politicians, planners and developers, and citizens rise to the challenge and create a truly responsible, and thus acceptable, tourism industry, one which brings long-term benefits to residents and tourists alike without compromising the physical and cultural environment of the destination region.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) How can tourists contribute to the enhancement of the lifestyles of the residents and destinations?

(ii) Explain how planning should be designed to maximize the economic and social benefits of tourism to the residents population as well as mitigating or eliminating the adverse effects?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) *Carrying Capacity* in simple terms it *refers to a point beyond which further levels of visitation or development would lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience.*
Commentators point out that operational capacity is difficult for example, mounts a scathing attack on the concept and its utility, stating that carrying capacity is 'ultimately meaningless.' *'the concept of a tourism and recreation carrying capacity maintains an illusion of control when it is a seductive fiction, a social trap, or policy myth.'*

(ii) Effectively, the impact made by tourism depends on both the volume and profile characteristics of the tourists (including their length of stay, activity, mode of transport, and travel arrangement). In this respect, a number of authors have attempted to classify tourists according to their impact on the destinations. The character of the resource (including its natural features, level of development, political and social structure) is equally important because it determines the degree of its robustness to tourism and tourism development.

UNIT 8 The role of relationships in the tourist experience

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1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

UNIT 8 The role of relationships in the tourist experience

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The experience of being a pleasure traveler often poses several unexpected relationship challenges for any individual. The challenges arrive in several guises. The difficulties and rewards may include dealing with oneself and with one's familiar travel companions, of interacting with fellow travelers who are strangers, and of trying to communicate with the locals across cultural divides.

In this unit, we shall study the relevance and importance of relationship building in tourism.

Philip Pearce opined that these kinds of issues are of immediate concern to the travelers themselves but there can also be a management interest in these topics.

Tourism industry personnel want to influence customer satisfaction and, if improving social rapport in its various forms can achieve this goal, then a commercial interest is assured.

The range of relationships inherent in the tourist experience is portrayed and discussed extensively. This unit will describe and discuss each social interaction level depicted in Table 6.1.

The greatest attention will be paid to travelers' experiences with other travelers because it can be argued that this element is the least well described in the existing literature

2.0 OBJECTIVE

By the end of this unit, you should be able to :

Discuss the meaning of relationship building in tourism

Explain the importance of building relationship to tourist and host

Identify some challenges individuals may have establishing relationship with hosts

Understand why positive and friendly relationship critical in tourism is everything

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 **The role of relationships in the tourist experience- Travelling with Oneself**

Philip Pearce opined that it is sometimes a surprise for travelers to 'discover themselves' in an exotic location. This kind of relationship with oneself as a surprising companion is described as reporting on a holiday trip to Barbados, 'A momentous but until then overlooked fact was making its first appearance: that I had inadvertently brought myself with me to the island.' The sentiments may be clearly expressed but they are not original. Two thousand years before Horace wrote, '*Coelum, non animum, mutant, qui trans mare current. (Those who cross the sea change the sky, not their soul.)*' (Pearce, 1982).

Table 6.1A Hypotheses Potentially Explaining User–User Conflict in Recreation Settings

Factor	Specific Theme	Proposition
Activity style, the Style	Intensity	• The more intense the activity greater the likelihood that social interaction with less intend participants will result in confluence Status • When the private activity style contracts

Disregard the status conscious activity style, results because the private activity style's disregard to status symbols negated the relevance of the other participating hierarchy.

Factor	Specific Theme	Proposition
	Status occurs snobbery status	• Status-based intra-activity conflict when a participant deserving high must interact with others viewed as lower status.
	Status who disagreement hierarchies.	• Conflict occurs between participants do not share the same status
	Quality judgement the	• The more specific the expectations of what constitute a quality experience, greater the potential for conflict.
Resource when a Specificity as	Respect for place	• Evaluations of resource quality: person who views the place's qualities unequalled confronts behaviours indicating a lower evaluation, conflict results.
	Ownership when as	• Sense of possession: conflict results users with a possessive attitude toward the resource confront users perceived disrupting traditional uses and behavioural norms.
	Privacy of status exclusive	• Status: conflict occurs for high status place users forced to interact with low status users who symbolise devaluing intimate relationship with place.

Mode of mode	Focus	• When a person in the focussed
Experience is not, conflict		interacts with one who
		results.
Tolerance for evaluated as	Lifestyle	• If group differences are
Lifestyle to	tolerance	undesirable or a potential threat
Diversity when		recreation goals, conflict results
		group members contract one another.

Source: World Trade Organization Manual on International Development 113.021

:

The implication of this unexpected discovery of self is that travelers have to deal with their own limitations and moods, their lingering concerns derived from the world they have left, and the planning of their immediate future activities. Dealing with oneself is perhaps a curious form of a social relationship but represents a traditional concern in the social psychology of leisure and travel (Mannell and Kleiber, 1997). As Bammel and Bammel (1992) suggest, classical views of the wider field of leisure that see it as the cultivation of mind, spirit, and character reinforce the view that contemporary tourists may often have to confront themselves as if they were another person and think about who they are in their social and work worlds.

The growth of qualitative methods in tourism research (Jamal and Hollinshead, 2001) offers the promise of investigating and reporting more fully how individuals deal with themselves and their emotional development during travel experiences. Such studies, which have yet to be developed in full, could consider the extent to which tourists play different roles and take on different personalities to explore their own styles (see Desforges, 2000; Murphy, 2001; Yiannakis and Gibson, 1992).

In addition, more quantitative work assessing and reporting traveler moods and transient emotional states might enrich our understanding of the variability in traveler satisfaction and assessment (see Pearce, 1981). Foster (2002) describes an innovative study directed at what travelers learn and how they perceive themselves during extended periods of travel. In a comprehensive survey of 370 youth travelers, Foster reported that more than 60 percent of all those studied perceived themselves to have improved their self-insights.

The youth travelers reported themselves to be more self-confident and open minded and better able to deal with their own emotions, pressures, and stress. Although this work is built on a self-report methodology, Foster established a convincing consistency between these reported skills and parallel themes drawn from spontaneously generated Internet stories from a similar cohort of travelers.

The Internet component of Foster's material was accessed by using phrases such as 'backpacker travel stories' and 'travelogues.' The resulting 95 Web pages, rich in youth traveler accounts, were coded by three researchers resulting in substantial agreement on the recurring themes. The skills of self-evaluation, independent learning, and self-awareness

emerged and are reflected in such comments as: Not all of Foster's respondents were actually travelling by themselves.

The establishment of insights about oneself can be derived from both solo travelling and of interpersonal experiences developed with one's travelling companions. The opportunity to study the psychological and interpersonal consequences in the relationship of 'travelling with oneself' should be developed as a research topic to enrich our understanding of tourism's meaning in postmodern societies.

3.1.2 Goal Interference Theory, Travelers & Strangers Role

One source of information in the study of how travelers deal with and relate to fellow tourists who are strangers lies in the extensive literature on recreation users.

This work, conducted almost exclusively in the United States, is centrally concerned with how to manage conflict between recreation users and how to set limits for the number of people in a setting.

Conflicts over use relate to and depend on perceptions of crowding. It was quickly realized in the early studies in this field that crowding was not simply about the number of people involved. Graefe and Vaske (1987), striving towards definitional clarity in this area, argued that crowding is a negative evaluation of a particular density of people.

The phenomenon is therefore psychological and interpersonal rather than simply determined by observable physical parameters such as people per area.

There are three major lines of analysis in the recreation crowding and conflict literature. *The first and dominant interpretive framework is referred to as **goal interference theory (Jacob and Shreyer, 1980).***

Gold Interference Theory
This approach, which essentially states ten hypotheses thought to be of importance in defining user–user interaction, defines recreation conflict as 'goal interference attributed to another's behaviour.' In this approach, the style of activity, the importance attached to a particular place, the focus needed for the activity, and the broad scale tolerance of the users are the pivotal forces predicting conflict.

Because so much of the subsequent work in the recreation field has built on, tested, and confirmed many of ***Jacob and Shreyer's hypotheses they are outlined in Figure 6.1.***

There are lines of research in the recreation and park management literature pursuing many of these variables and their influence on perceived crowding and on conflict. For example, users participating in focused activities have often been shown to report negative attitudes towards other groups in the area (Watson, Niccoulucci, and Williams, 1994). In particular there is often an asymmetry in these reactions with the non-motorized, traditional, and quieter users of the setting objecting more strongly to their motorized, newer, and noisier neighbours (Shelby, 1981;

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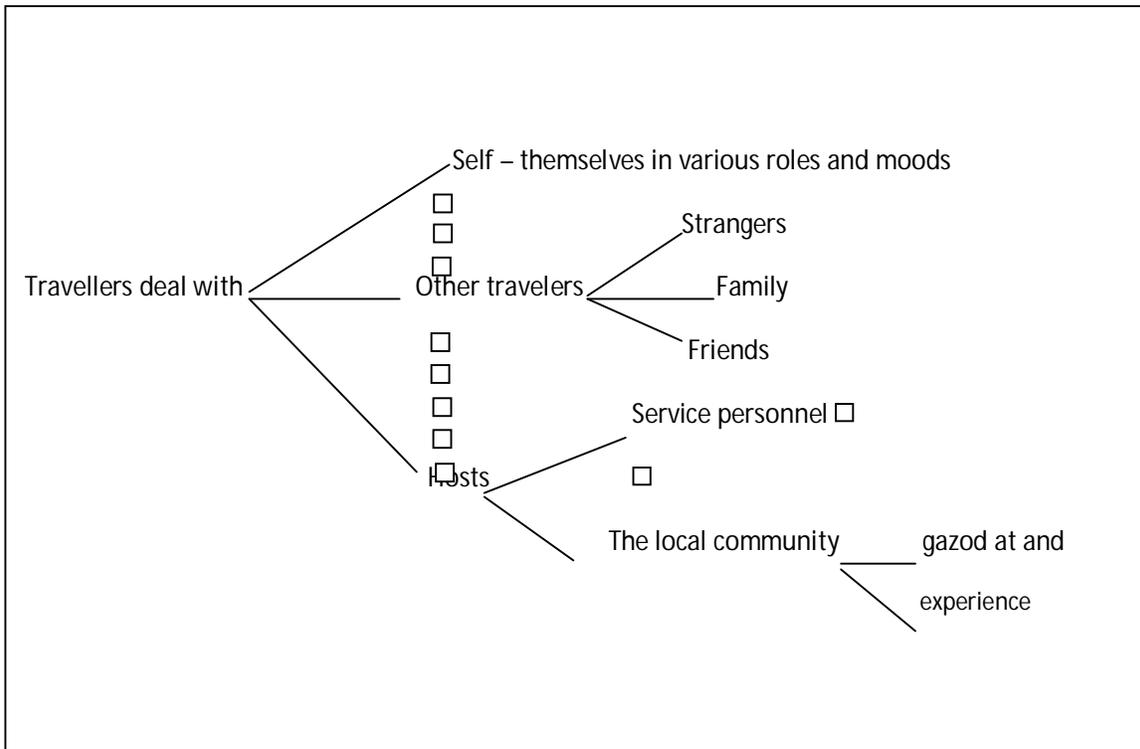*The role of relationships in the tourist experience.*

Figure 6.1 b : The social players in tourist experience.

Source: World Trade Organization Manual p.174

Jackson and Wong, 1982; Ruddell and Gramman, 1994; Gibbons and Ruddell, 1995; Rathmun, 1995). For example, in one of the earlier studies Shelby (1981) reported that paddling canoeists disliked motor boaters, but this negative perception was not reciprocated in the attitudes of the motor boating respondents.

The structure of this finding, that is the mechanized and more recent users appearing to be less bothered by the passive, appreciative users, is consistent in studies in the recreation area in mountain and snow use settings, on beaches and along rivers, and in landscape touring and appreciation. Additional insights concerning the important dimensions of user–user conflict are to be found in the work of Rathmun (1995).

He questioned the empirical value of all of Jacob and Shreyer's categories, viewing them as somewhat overlapping and hence at times redundant. In his own studies he placed emphasis on an additional underlying dimension—the identification of being a member of an in-group or an out-group.

This approach is in accordance with *fundamental social psychological research on group identity and response reported in detail in the work of Tajfel (1981).* This explanatory dimension will be explored further later.

A third perspective in the analysis of conflict between users was identified by Schneider and Hammitt (1995). They argued that ***conflict is best understood by viewing it as a process,*** often a series of events and perceptions leading to stressed participants and possibly a defining point of annoyance. Vaske and colleagues (1995) further observed that these defining points of annoyance do not have to be actual physical contacts involving the presence of the other group, but instead, can be social value
conflicts where the idea of other people sharing the disputed space is the prime concern of the stressed group.

Although this work on recreation user–user conflict has been conducted for some years and would seem, at least initially, to be relevant to tourist–tourist encounters, there are some limitations and assumptions that warrant examination. First, the guiding principle in these predominantly North American–based studies is that larger numbers of users are not appreciated. Glasson, Godfrey, and Goodey (1995) provide a set of graphical appraisals that indicate the importance of questioning the broad applicability of the wilderness and national park–based work.

They depict the relationship between user satisfaction and use levels in a number of contexts.

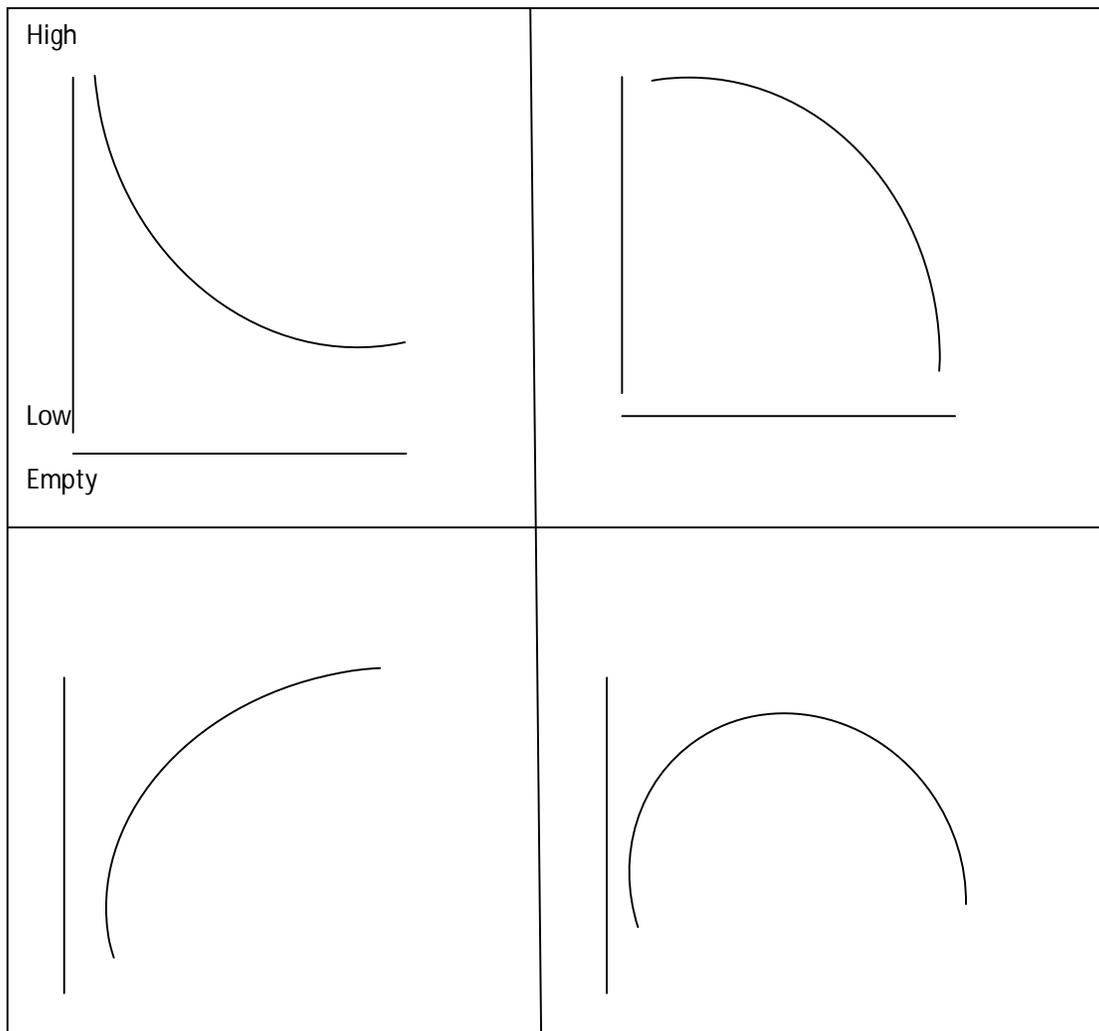Figure 6.2 Source: UNESCO Almanac 2004 p 601

Figure 6.2: User satisfaction and use levels (number of people). An important implication to be drawn from Figure 6.2 is that most of the studies discussed have actually been drawn from the first quadrant of the figure.

Tourists use all of the environments depicted in Figure 6.2 so an initial caution on the applicability of the recreation literature and its findings must be exercised. Secondly, even in the first quadrant of Figure 6.2 the findings are drawn from studies of North American users.

There is a mounting argument from cross-national studies of social behavior that other cultural groups, such as Chinese, Indonesians, Koreans, and Japanese, prefer or at least tolerate group-based and high-density natural settings (Kim, 1997; Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001).

A third point of commentary on the recreation findings relates to the subtly different purpose of travel associated with tourist activities. Recreational conflict appears to be particularly acute when the specific, focused purposes of a group of people are thwarted by the actions of another group.

Tourists, in many situations, are sharing the one set of goals—to see, experience, and enjoy the same setting. In this kind of scenario tolerance of the sheer presence of other people might be high. One version of this argument has been developed in some detail by Urry (1990). He used the expression 'the tourist gaze' to describe the commonality of tourists' goals in many settings. Further, he identified a romantic gaze, rich in historical Western tradition and precedent, which emphasis the value for individuals in experiencing an environment by themselves or in very small numbers of like-minded companions. Work in the recreational conflict literature may be squarely located as explicating the dimensions of user contact within the romantic gaze framework.

 By way of contrast Urry also identified a collective gaze. In this style of environmental and social experience, users enjoy and indeed require the presence of others in the setting in order for it to be seen and experienced as popular, lively, successful, and socially enriching. In Figure 6.2 the third and fourth quadrants depict this kind of setting. Afinal and further elaboration pertaining to the tourist–tourist encounters lies in the identification of the in-group and out-group (see Rathmun, 1995).

3.2 Western Tourists in Great Wall of China

One can raise the question of who constitutes the in-group and the out-group in a specific tourism context. For example, consider a package group of tourists from the United States walking along the Great Wall of China north of Beijing. In this context there are multiple

possible out-groups present in the setting; these include North American tourists on other package tours, European tourists travelling in group arrangements, young independent

Western travelers doing their own thing in seeing China, and, of course, large numbers of domestic Chinese tourists also walking the Wall.

It would appear that the attitudes toward other tourists and the kinds of relationships developed may need more than one simple in-group and out-group classification to understand the developing relationships. One such distinctive concept developed to understand tourist–tourist relationships is that of the familiar stranger (Simmel, 1950; Pearce, 1981; Yagi, 2002). In many tourism settings, and particularly in extended travel journeys, individuals repeatedly see the same other travelers. This can be illustrated by considering an international flight from Shanghai to Sydney.

On checking in at the airport travelers have to wait in line with other passengers, they are then likely to see these same faces in the airport waiting lounge, and in adjacent or nearby seats during the flight. On arriving at the destination the same faces will be in the customs hall and baggage collection area. It is functional for travelers to pay some attention to these familiar strangers.

They provide some guidance as to where to go, they may be people to engage in time-passing conversation, and in times of stress they may be sources of help. Simmel (1950) reported familiar strangers in everyday urban life noting such contexts as fellow commuters, shop assistants, and patrons of favoured restaurants.

Pearce (1980) noted in a quasi-experiment field study of Greyhound bus travelers in the United States that these familiar strangers were reliably more helpful on a range of small tasks to fellow travelers than were total strangers. It can be suggested that the familiar stranger is a distinctive and often frozen form of social relationship associated with but not exclusively confined to the travel experience. It is an additional mechanism, beyond those noted in the recreation literature, for understanding distinctive tourist–tourist relationships. Yagi (2002) has noted a particular extension of the familiar stranger concept by paying attention to the obvious physical characteristics of the travelers.

She observes that it is an inescapable fact of perception that such physical characteristics as race, gender, age, and dress style are readily observable by all travelers, and of course by tourist service personnel. In cross-national tourism encounters, such as when there are numerous visitors of varied nationalities in popular settings, it is likely that travelers of the same age, appearance, and nationality constitute a special kind of familiar stranger. Thus, Japanese travelers admiring the
Eiffel Tower will note the presence of familiar Japanese, Germans in Australia's outback desert setting will quickly identify other Germans, and North American tourists in Egypt will be likely to hear and identify Canadian and U.S. citizens. In a substantial program of research dealing with the relationships tourists have with other tourists, Yagi (2002) asked the question, will tourists prefer to mix with the familiar strangers of their own nationality? The studies were conducted with multiple methods.

Travelers' own accounts of their experiences were accessed from Internet diaries, tourists were shown digitally altered photographs of visitors from various nationality mixes in environmental settings and focus groups were conducted to explain such preferences.

The particular nationality contrasts pursued in her work were the preferences of Japanese and Western (largely Australian and U.S.) travellers toward mixing with their own and other nationalities in natural environment settings. From the spontaneously generated travelogues provided on a range of Internet sites, Yagi concluded, using a sample of both Japanese and North American stories, that the Japanese showed consistently greater awareness of the presence of other Japanese. Sometimes a positive attitude toward these fellow travellers was expressed, but at the same time a desire to escape the confines of their own compatriots' expectations emerged.

In the studies using digitally altered photographs of different mixes of tourist appearance and density Yagi and Pearce (2002) found that Japanese travelers compared with Western travelers consistently preferred larger rather than smaller numbers of visitors in rainforest environmental settings.
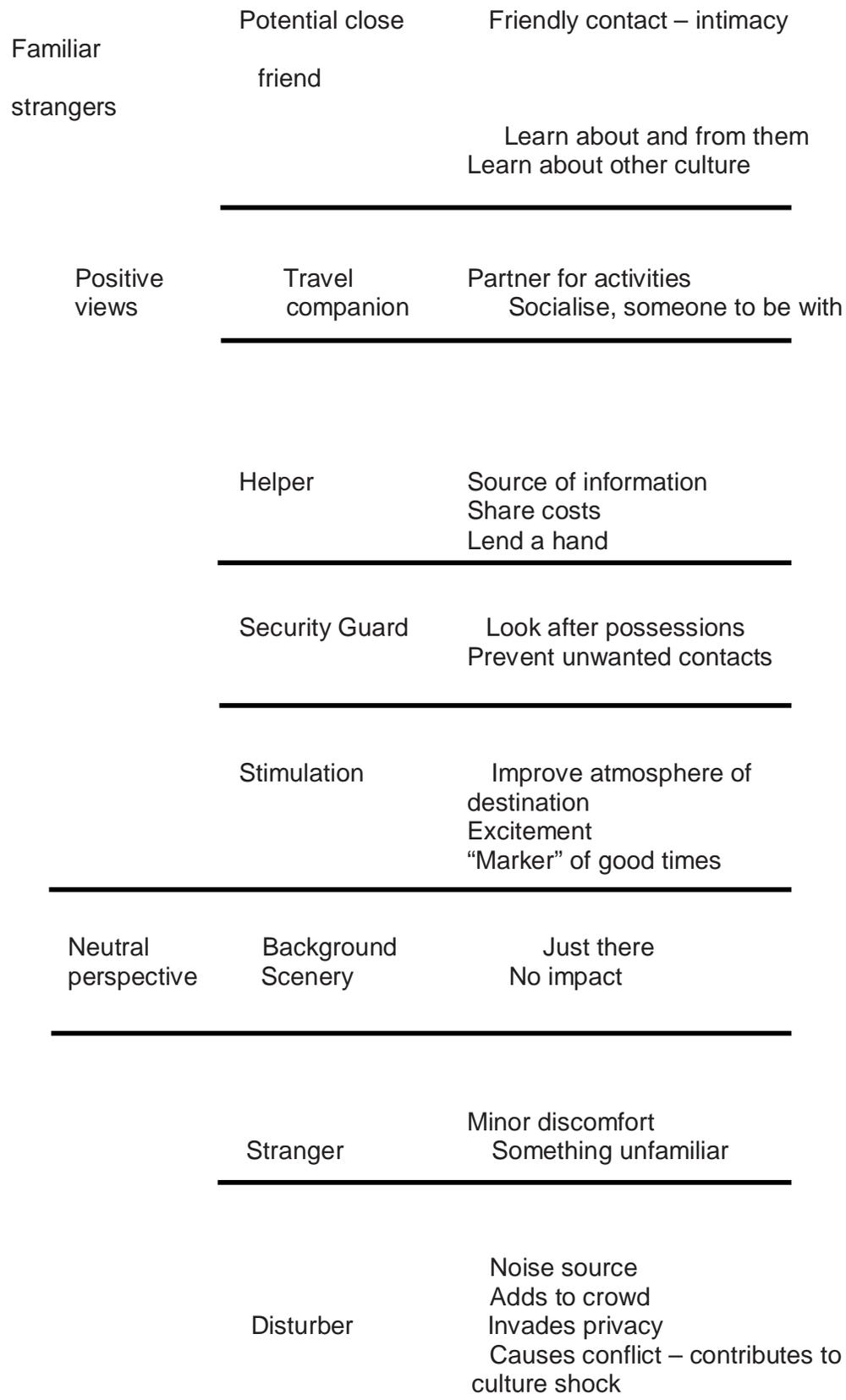
Perhaps surprisingly, Japanese travelers also preferred the digitally altered photographs depicting more Caucasian faces as opposed to those depicting more Asian faces in the photographs. The surprising element in this finding derives from an apparent contradiction of the preferences for one's own nationality predicted by in-group and out-group theory. For the Western travelers there were no differences in the preferences for Caucasian or Asian faces in the photographs.

One explanation of these findings is that the Japanese travelers have 'Akogare' (respect, enthusiasm, and admiration) for the Western world and the greater numbers of Western faces enhances the international atmosphere of the site. This finding is congruent with Urry's analysis of the collective gaze, but extends Urry's perspective by incorporating a cross-national addition where the symbolic value of the personnel making up the crowd is important.

The number of ways in which tourists may respond to other tourists is depicted in Figure 6.3. One kind of emotional state and sequence of behaviours can be identified as noteworthy in influencing the range of responses in Figure 6.3. Armstrong (2003) observes that in time of emotional and physical stress, individuals are particularly appreciative of small acts of kindness and tenderness from others. He terms this feeling and process 'katabasis' and emphasises that it represents a vulnerability where people are confronted with loneliness and disappointment, and thus have a heightened appreciation for assistance from others. The stress of travelling has been recorded by a number of writers and Armstrong's argument that katabasis operates in tandem with positive, even ecstatic emotional episodes, is a valuable additional insight into the genesis of companionship-based tourism (see Herold, Garcia, and DeMoya, 2001). Our understanding of stranger-based tourist relationships can be summarized by integrating the work done in the recreation settings and these more recent cross-national studies using the familiar stranger dimension.

In Western countries there are strong historical and sociological forces.

	Tourists seen as	Behaviours	
		102	

Familiar strangers	Potential close friend	Friendly contact – intimacy

Learn about and from them
Learn about other culture

Positive views	Travel companion	Partner for activities

Socialise, someone to be with

Helper	Source of information

Share costs
Lend a hand

Security Guard	Look after possessions

Prevent unwanted contacts

Stimulation	Improve atmosphere of destination

Excitement
"Marker" of good times

Neutral perspective	Background Scenery	Just there

No impact

Stranger	Minor discomfort

Something unfamiliar

Disturber	Noise source

Adds to crowd
Invades privacy
Causes conflict – contributes to culture shock

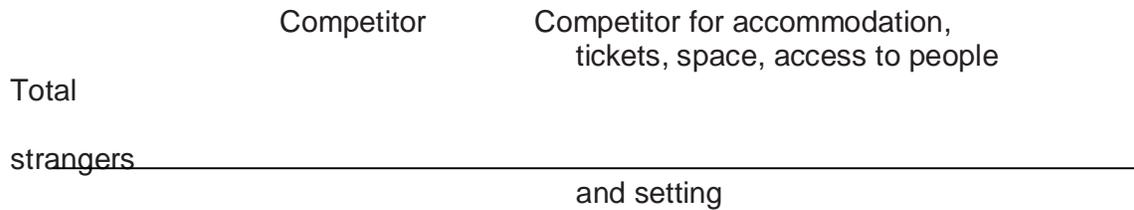| | Competitor | Competitor for accommodation, tickets, space, access to people |
Total		
strangers		
		and setting

Figure 6.5 sources :The multiple perspectives tourists may have of other tourists UN Almanac, p. 127, 2007.

predisposing travelers to experience settings, particularly natural settings, in isolation or at least small, like-minded groups. In this kind of scenario relationships with most other travelers are limited and are viewed as unwelcome intrusions because they restrict the achievement of the travelers' goals. In more purpose-built tourist attraction settings there are findings from North American studies that suggest familiar strangers may be tolerated and be useful companions.

Indeed larger crowd numbers enhance the atmosphere of certain settings. For travelers of more group-oriented or collectivist cultures, the relationships with other travelers is less problematic in natural environmental settings and may be seen to enhance the appeal of the location because of the symbolic value of con- noting a noteworthy site (**see** Kagitcibasi and Berry, 1989; Triandis, Chen, and Chan, 1998; Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001).

Familiar strangers are a defining category in traveler relationships and interaction with familiar fellow travelers may include such positive roles as developing friendship, providing assistance, and aiding traveler safety and security. These relationships may be developed in times of shared positive experiences or they may arise in times of stress where katabasis operates. Less positively, tourist–tourist relationships may also degenerate into competitive and marginally hostile encounters when, as in the recreation literature, there is conflict over achieving goals and limited resources such as tickets and space.

Some significant analogies between these poles of positive and negative roles for fellow travelers will be reiterated in considering traveler relationships with the members of the local community.

3.2.1 **Travelling with Family and Friends**

Regrettably much of the foundation work on tourist behaviour has unwittingly adopted a very individualistic orientation. This direction is undoubtedly linked to and driven by the dominance of questionnaire based methodologies to explore visitor behaviour; questionnaires and surveys are typically given to and filled in by individuals and the processing of the data aggregates individual responses.

Nevertheless many researchers and students of tourist behaviour in naturalistic settings will quickly recognize that many travel parties are composed not of individuals but of couples, friends, and complex family groupings. As a brief illustration of this social dimension of tourism some diverse examples can be cited. Long distance car touring in Australia is dominated by senior couples (Pearce, 1999), young budget travelers are often in small shifting friendship groups (Buchanan and Rossetto, 1997), visitors to zoos and attractions are

dominated by family groups (Turley, 2001), and gay male couples comprise more than half of the U.K. gay market holidaying at home and abroad (Clift, Callister, and Luongo, 2002).

In this interconnected and social view of travel behaviours three emphases can be identified. First, the decision making about where to go on holidays is undoubtedly a complex amalgam of the motivations of and restrictions on the entire party (see Um and Crompton, 1990). Thus Moscardo and Pearce (1999) report that one cluster of visitors to a major Aboriginal cultural park in Northern Australia was not very interested in the attraction and cited their main reason for being present as 'accompanying others.'

It can be suggested that this kind of tourist motivation may account for some of the moderate satisfaction scores obtained in tourist settings. The interest in this topic of 'accompanying others' and the challenge for tourism managers is to find ways to engage the interest of the whole travel party. Travel parties and their composition also influence what people do in the site. Ryan (1992) reports that children are often the most willing participants in activities at heritage sites.

Such participation may galvanize parental and adult interest and result in an extended time of visiting with some commercial implications in terms of food and souvenir purchases. In a more restrictive sense, travelling with senior members of a family or friendship group may limit participation in physically demanding activities, such as when visitors to Australia's Great Barrier Reef do not participate in snorkelling because they choose to 'stay dry' and accompany their older relatives in glass bottom boat inspections of the coral (Moscardo, 1996).

The presence of familiar faces in the form of family and friends may also exert a powerful influence on the development of the other relationships discussed in this chapter. Couples, family groups, and friendship parties are often self-sufficient in their social needs. Such self-sufficiency will limit the extent to which they fraternise with fellow travellers or seek out members of the local community for conversation and stimulation.

The third consideration pertaining to travelling with others is shared satisfaction with the experience. Unlike individual travelers, those journeying around the world or across their own region with others have a commonality of experience which they can reflect on, retell, and reinterpret as a part of their social and shared experiences.

Thornton, Shaw, and Williams (1997) argue that children in particular are discerning customers and because many parents consider the satisfaction of their children to be important in the leisure context, the adult satisfaction may be influenced by the reactions of their offspring. This argument could also be extended, even though the empirical work is lacking, to other satisfaction ratings; one could anticipate that close friends should at least be somewhat influenced by the satisfaction of their travelling companions in forming their own attitudes, whereas long-term partners should demonstrate even more awareness and mutual influence in satisfaction scores.

At this point, however, these links remain research propositions rather than established findings.

3.2.2   Travelers' Relationships with Hosts

The use of the term 'hosts' in this section of the chapter warrants a justification. Aramberri (2001) has suggested that the term should be removed from the lexicon of tourism research. He notes that its derivation and use by anthropologists writing about tourism proceeds on the basis of three features—the term connotes an implicit contract by the host to extend protection to the guest, it suggests a future reciprocity of such protection, and it implies a set of rule-following behaviours so that hosts and guests can coexist as a virtual family.

Aramberri (2000) elaborates as follows: Table 6.1, which depicts the relationships to be explored in this unit does use the generic expression 'hosts,' but subdivides the term into two categories with which Aramberri would presumably be more comfortable— interaction with service providers and interaction with local community members.

The presentation of information in this section simply uses the term 'host' as a convenient integrating expression for the two groups with whom tourists have contact. There is an agreement here with the argument that it is not considered appropriate to embrace the more anthropological and noncommercial use of the term 'hosts' in its traditional premodern format.

The dominant trends in the literature on tourist service personnel contact is written from the perspective of evaluating how well the service personnel perform. As Noe (1999) reports, service providers are typically evaluated on such dimensions as their reliability, the assurance they provide, the tangible aspects of their performance, and their empathy and responsiveness to client needs.

These kinds of service provision evaluations have been developed by researchers such as Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1994). This line of inquiry is peripheral rather than central to the theme of tourists' relationships as presented in this unit. The question can also be asked in this context of what does it mean to have a relationship with a service provider or indeed is the very term 'relationship' appropriate?

The perspective adopted here is that a relationship involves multiple encounters with other people that one is able to recall and, further, the person encountered must be individually identified. The service encounters typically reported in the service quality literature essentially offer brief points of contact and many travelers would undoubtedly struggle to remember and recognize individual taxi drivers, hotel personnel, restaurant waiters, booking clerks, customs personnel, and coach drivers. For some service providers a relationship can be considered to be a more appropriate term. For example, a tour guide who spends a day with a traveler, an interpreter or booking clerk who guides a visitor through complex travel rescheduling, and a tourist information officer who influences a day's activities may provide memorable encounters and be seen as incipient relationships.

It is noteworthy that with the exception of some efforts to develop cross-cultural awareness training there is little research or analysis of how well tourists behave in these relationships (see Pearce, Kim and Lussa, 1998; Ward, Bochner, and Furnham, 2001).

It would seem to be another area of potential research investigation to explore the attitudes and behaviours of different tourist market segments toward the staff and assisting personnel they encounter. To date, the research has been very much focused on the service providers' behaviours rather than the tourists' responses.

There is one marked exception to the lack of research on relationships in tourist–local encounters. The area in question involves sexual encounters. There is widespread agreement that the relationships developed by tourists seeking sexual activities with local people is complex in terms of the motivation of the participants, the effect on the host society, and the range of relationships that develop in these situations.

Herold, Garcia, and DeMoya (2001) suggest the use of the term 'companionship tourism' to help integrate the multiple relationship possibilities identified by other researchers.

For example, Pruitt and Lafont (1995) noted the existence of romance tourism in Jamaica where female tourists developed relationships with the local males that included emotional involvement, courtship, and sometimes sexual intimacy.

3.2.3 Romance Tourism in Asia and *Associated Scams and Exploitative Tactics*

 In their study it was noteworthy that indirect rather than immediate financial payments were made. By way of contrast de Alburqueque (1999) suggested that romance tourism involving female tourists was a euphemism.

In his view the relationships were not romantic ones but a form of prostitution using the local beach boys. Herold, Garcia, and DeMoya (2001) reject de Alburqueque's view. They suggest that for the North American and European women travelling to the Dominican Republic the term 'consensual romantic relationships' best describes the tourist–local interaction.

By interviewing both male and female tourists and male and female local participations with a female interviewer Herold, Garcia, and DeMoya (2001) reported that 'more of the women (were) motivated toward the romance end of the (companionship) tourism continuum and more of the men motivated toward the sex part of it. More generally, McKercher and Bauer (2003) report that tourism and travel can be a unique facilitator of sexual relationships.

The themes of anonymity, sensory stimulation, reduced social control, and new potential partners all act to expand the range of same sex and opposite sex encounters (Selanniemi, 2003). On many occasions the relationships are brief and financially well defined (Opperman, 1998; Truong, 1990).

The question of who is exploiting whom is not easily assessed; there are radical tourist views that the sex workers are without power, whereas others see at least some of the tourists as cautious customers, powerless to complain about any problems and controlled by the situation and experienced partners (Truong, 1990; McCormick, 1994; Ryan, 1999).

The ways in which these tourist relationships are managed were portrayed in some detail by Herold, Garcia, and DeMoya (2001) in their study of the Dominican beach boys. *These kinds of scams and exploitative tactics are not new or confined to the Caribbean. Cohen (1982) noted almost identical strategies in earlier studies of Thai women and Western men, Zinovieff (1991) identified similar exploitative manoeuvres in Greece (1991), du Cros and du Cros (2003) reported the use of ingratiation and flattery by young Cretan males, and Dahles and Bras (1999) identified sets of Indonesian males who 'worked' the tourists as resources to be exploited in Yogykarta.*

It would be misleading, however, not to view some of these relationships as providing mutual, even if temporary, satisfaction and rewards to the participants. For Taiwanese men, Lee (2002) reports that the sexual liberation of other parts of Asia are synonymous with a better, freer lifestyle. Further as Cohen (2003) has documented, the sexually oriented tourism relationships may not always be short-lived. Cohen considered the weaknesses and strengths of marriages between Thai women and foreign men resulting from the chance tourism encounters.

This relationship development represents the expressed goal of at least a subset of participants in the romance tourism category (du Cros and du Cros, 2003; Wong, 2003). Cohen's analysis noted the difficulties of such marital relationships, which included the persistent and expanding financial demands by the women on behalf of themselves and their family.

The problems appeared to be the greatest when the foreigner stayed in Thailand. For some of these marriages, an initially difficult period was encountered, but a number of the relationships persisted, held together by children, common property, and growing mutual understanding.

If successful albeit infrequent marriages between tourists and local partners represent a positive pinnacle of tourist–local encounters, there are some contrasting troughs of exploitative and harmful encounters.

Tourists can be targeted as victims in organized criminal attacks and assault (Chesney-Lind and Lind, 1986; Harper, 2000). The scale of this phenomenon can vary from small opportunistic attacks, such as stealing and snatching handbags and wallets, to organized terrorism against identifiable national groups such as in Bali in October 2002.

The attacks may also be targeted at the elderly or identifiable groups such as gay tourists (Want, 2002). Other forms of negativity can also be identified.

Self Assessment Questions
  (i) Can unsuspecting travelers be taken advantage of and exploited by residents and why?

  (ii) Do you think that at times visitors can be victim of stereotype of intrusive harassment and what recourse should be resorted?

4.0 Conclusion

The focus of this unit has been on the specific relationships that tourists develop during their travels. It has not considered the wider impact of these relationships on the visited community in terms of cultural change, social structure, and business performance. Many of these wider implications, together with the effects of tourist infrastructure itself, have been reviewed in studies on tourist impacts, such as in previous editions of this volume (**see** Archer and Cooper, 1998; Mercer, 1998; Pearce, 1998; Swinglehurst, 1998).

Aremaining issue pertaining to the present focussed interest is the construction and development of conceptual schemes to better understand and interpret the relationships described in this chapter. Such conceptual schemes will need to be sufficiently expansive and flexible to address the full range of relationship perspectives portrayed in Figure 6.3 and expanded on in the section on companionship tourism.

5.0   Summary

There would appear to be several viable candidates for the next phase of developing our understanding of tourist–tourist and tourist–local relationships. The potential candidates include conceptualizing tourist relationships as an extension of the in-group–out-group approach (Yagi and Pearce, 2002), the development of the concept of threshold and liminoid space for tourist settings (Selanniemi, 2003), innovative dramaturgical and performative accounts (Daniel, 1996; Donlon and Agrusa, 2003), and theories combining social exchange and social representation approaches (Pearce, Moscardo, and Ross, 1996). What is certain in this area of inquiry is that relationships are pivotal to tourism, and it can be a goal of both the analytical and the managerial dimensions of tourism to enhance these interpersonal encounters.

4.0   Tutor Marked Assignment

(i)   Can Tourists be targeted as unwelcome Strangers and victims in organized criminal attacks in Nigeria and perhaps elsewhere you know of to be assaulted or become worse crime victim by their host and or destination and what proactive measured is advisable ?

(ii)   How can relationship in some area of inquiry be made pivotal to tourism?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) Exploitation of visitors has been reported locally and internationally. Some inappropriate act of cheating and overcharging, misdirecting, and exchanging the products purchased with inferior substitutes have been reported in developing communities and identified in the unit read. Westerners in Indonesia for example, reported that small shopkeepers and street vendors who followed them, who touched them, and who pushed and shoved for attention were a major source of unpleasantness.

(ii) As with some of the other service and local encounters, it is perhaps overextending the ambit of the present to call these forms of interpersonal contact relationships. In some senses it is likely that tourists recall these multiple minor interactions as a stereotype of the intrusive harassing vendor—a generic relationship with the locals rather than an identified personal encounter.

UNIT 9 Alternative tourism: a comparative analysis of meaning and impact

CONTENT

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

   3.1 Alternative tourism: a comparative analysis of meaning and impact

       3.1.1   Guidelines to Six Different Fields of Alternative Tourism

     3.1.2   Tourism as agent of development and Change

     3.2. Island of Komodo, Indonesia and Ecotourism impact factors.

       3.2.1   Economic Influence of tourism

       3.2.2   *Socio-cultural Influence of English and Western Tourism*.

       3.2.3   Socio-cultural Influence

       3.2.4   Psychological Influence

       3.2.5   Intellectual Influence

       3.2.6   Environmental Influence

     3.3   Impact of Alternative Tourism

     4.0 Conclusion

     5.0 Summary

     6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

     7.0 References/Further Readings

UNIT 9 Alternative tourism: a comparative analysis of meaning and impact

CONTENT

1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

In this unit, we will study and explore more on these developments as well as important issue to be dealt with, not the least because of its relationship to basic problems that human society must confront: environmental destruction, wealth inequalities, and irresponsible development, among others. As a concept, 'alternative tourism' is surprisingly broad.

It is fundamentally problematic when subject to analysis and brings out many emotional responses, a common feature of tourism as a subject. There is not one single or absolute definition, although there are a number of very good attempts, and many writers give a list of criteria against which it should be assessed. The Meaning of Alternative Tourism.

2.0 **OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Define the meaning and concept of alternative tourism and its importance

Explain ecological impact of tourism to destinations and residents

Identify economic benefit of tourism to host nation and residents

Discuss threat to wildlife, extinction and hazard posed by tourists to destinations

Enumerate how Arts and Crafts can be rejuvenated in tourism

3.0   **MAIN CONTENT**

   3.1 Alternative tourism: a comparative analysis of meaning and impact

It is also growing in popularity as fashions change and tourists seek different experiences. Just as it has been promoted as a 'development tool' and a means of protecting nature, so it has also been seen as an attractive way to pass leisure time without causing ecological damage. This unit is a critical inquiry into the character of alternative tourism and its impact, and is composed of two major sections.

The first section deals with its *meaning* as can be ascertained from surveying and comparing the works of different scholars;

the second deals with its *impact*, in which the influences described by various scholars are compared, including detailed case studies.

Finally, the conclusion challenges the viability of the term 'alternative tourism' and proposes a new approach. It also attempts to revise our understanding of the impact of this type of tourism, critiquing earlier models and stressing the powerful influences that it has had on the environment and the host populations. Throughout this discussion problems are highlighted and suggestions are made for future research.In this unit, we shall look at the evolution of alternative tourism as a concept, Gonsalves (1987) charted its beginnings as a defined concept from the Manila International Workshop in 1980, although he noted that concern over tourism had become public at the World Council of Churches in 1969. In 1984 in Chiangmai, Thailand, the 44 participants of The Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism (ECTWT) agreed that it was seen as a process that promotes a just form of travel between members of different communities. It seeks to achieve mutual understanding, solidarity, and equality amongst participants. The ECTWT produced a resource book on alternative tourism and promoted models and programs. Such models included:

• Brief contacts with local people,

• Longer visits with host families and the community, and an insight into local life,

• Noncommercial learning options (study tours, work camps, exchange visits),

• Organizations or community groups in various countries concerned about third world tourism, and

• **Alternative tourist travel agents** in host and sending nations seeking to share rather than shield visitors from the destination's culture and problems. Gonsalves (1987) sees the ultimate test of these alternatives in their ability to influence mainstream tourism.

He cites an encouraging sign, that of the *adoption of the Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourism Code by the World Tourism Organization in 1985 in response to the Penang Code of Ethics.*

He concludes that, 'travel, throughout history, has been a means of education, cross-cultural communication and the development of meaningful relationships. Alternative tourism considers these objectives still valid and works towards these ends.' He ended on an optimistic note, and was positive about the course and intentions of alternative tourism, a position that has more recently been subject to sceptical criticism by other writers.

For Cohen (1987), alternative tourism is not even a single general concept, but composed of two principal conceptions.

First, it is seen as a reaction to modern consumerism, a counter-cultural response to mass tourism composed of such characters as the adventurer, drifter, traveler, or those looking for spontaneity or romantically searching for a lost paradise. He suggests that these types occasionally create their own cultural enclaves involving drugs and sex, treating local people

as oddities, and initiating a diminution of the culture of hospitality amongst the host community.

There is also the incipient creation of an alternative tourism 'establishment,' which leads to a further reduction in difference between alternative and mass tourism.

 Second, it is conceived as 'concerned alternative tourism,' which is in essence a reaction to the exploitation of the third world in which the notion of a 'just' tourism arises, furthering mutual understanding and preventing environmental or cultural degradation and exploitation. In this type of tourism small groups interact with local people, and small scale projects involving local consultation and participation are the principal means of promotion. Cohen sees the principal quandary as being the fact that mass tourism cannot be transformed, whereas alternative tourism is too small scale to offer a realistic general option.

This leads to the realization that tourism is extremely varied and multifaceted and that criticism of mass tourism is too radical, whereas the goals of alternative tourism are set too high and are therefore unrealistic.

Cohen is ultimately pragmatic, highlighting the need to reform the worst prevailing situation in mass tourism. In short, he has powerfully criticized the supposition that alternative tourism can ultimately lead to a transformation of tourism and is suspicious of the benefits that it brings.

3.1.1 Guidelines to Six Different Fields of Alternative Tourism

He offered a good working definition, drawing attention to two central aspects, and has added a healthy air of critical judgement. Cazes (1989) was well aware of the ambiguity of the concept 'alternative tourism' and he likened it to the notion 'integrated,' which has been described as a 'miracle-word, a panacea concept and a mythical term.' However, he eventually provided guidelines that may be applied to six different sectorial fields:

(i) *The tourist as an individual:* motivated through original aspiration, which may include active tourism (rambling, trekking), exploring, encounter travel, committed tourism (voluntary service overseas, archaeological digs), and other self-sacrificing work.

(ii) *The Practitioners:* they do not want to be regarded as clients or consumers, and include backpackers, drifters, long-distance travellers; overall a varied group.

(iii) *The journey's destination:* this may be an unexplored 'virgin' location and often rests on an idealized vision of peasant societies that represent 'authentic' cultures.

(iv) *The type of accommodation:* 'supplementary' including camping, small local family hotels, holiday centres, village inns, private rented homes, paying guests; the dominant theme is micro-facilities as opposed to massive hotels.

(v)*Travel organizers and partners:* especially the nonlucrative organizations (nongovernmental organisations, mutual benefit societies), individual travel organisations; marginal or underground. 6. *The mode of insertion in the host community:* this involves a concerted effort to develop the reception of tourists wherein discourse centres on integration (economic, social, spatial, ecological, urban), local control, and auto development. A crucial

factor is the prominence of the local system in overseeing the tourism. Having critically analysed the sectorial fields, Cazes went on to deconstruct the concept of mass tourism, seeing it as a myth that represents the
'other' or 'anti-other,' a seat of harmful potentialities. Thus, alternative tourism is in actuality a discourse on difference and is fundamentally elitist. In fact, it becomes a total subversion of the dominant models on three levels:

(a) Values: the conditions of aspiration and motivations for the journey.

(b) **Process:** the quality of collaboration and partnership, cooperation and synergy between external operation and local system at different stages of the phenomenon.

© **Forms**: social, spatial, ecological, and architectural forms are all faithful to the guiding principles of integration based on local traditional patterns and workforce.

According to Cazes, there is no perfect example that epitomizes alternative tourism as described above, although the development of Lower Casamance in Senegal comes close. Further, he admits that there are dangers in idealising the concept and points to the risks of 'ghettoizing' areas and the 'museumification' of sites of interest based on an elitist interpretation. A more straightforward definition is offered by Hitchcock, King, and Parnwell (1993) in the introduction to their edited collection, which suggests that in its purest form alternative tourism is underpinned by a number of principles:

• It should be built on dialogue with local people who ought to be aware
of its effects and have political weight concerning the matter.

• It should be established on sound environmental principles, sensitive
to local culture and religious tradition.

• It should be a means of giving the poor a reasonable and more equal
share in the gains.

• The scale of tourism should be tailored to match the capacity of the local area to cope, measured in aesthetic and ecological terms. The writers also noted that alternative tourism may be used to strengthen linkages between the tourism industry and other forms of local economic activity. They recognized that its promotion has led to the questioning of how tourism affects destinations and the fact that the market niche is being exploited, warning about the possibility of a **green consumerism developing.** However, they remained essentially optimistic, citing the case of ecotourism that can support the protection of vulnerable areas of natural beauty and scientific interest as well as to stimulate environmental awareness amongst the local population.

Continuing the theme of environmental and social sensitivity, in an article on tourism and sustainable development, Murphy (1994), using the definition offered by Krippendorf (1987) who sees *<u>alternative tourists</u> as 'those who try to establish more contact with the local population, try to do without the tourist infrastructure and use the same accommodation and transport facilities as the natives'.*

He then went on to *define ecotourism (a subset of alternative tourism) as occurring where the visitor contributes to the development and well being of the host ecology. Such tourists are regarded as the champions of the environment and sustainable development*.

Costa Rica is cited as a country where ecotourism principles support the philosophy of sustainable development.

As is clear from the above definitions and illustrations of *alternative tourism, this concept is not easily contained within neat parameters, and moreover it may be regarded as too broad to be accurately used.* Further, in the opinion of Cazes, its antithesis, mass tourism, is not sufficiently well understood for an alternative to be really valid. Nevertheless, it is possible to retrieve the central aspects of the concept from the various writers, and these include contact and communication between the tourists and the indigenous population, and a desire for equality, individuality, environmental awareness, and concern. However, there are also cautionary undertones, with some writers feeling that there is an element of elitism within this type of tourism, whereas others see it as being exploited as a consumer item.

One must bear in mind the need to be cautious and sceptical in imagining its impact. In addition, as tourism grows and the need for environmental responsibility increases, so the necessity for an objective and detailed understanding of the phenomenon and its influence becomes more imperative.

3.1.2   Tourism as agent of development and Change

In his critique of alternative tourism, Butler (1990) plays devil's advocate, warning of the risks of passively accepting the hype surrounding it, and he compares it with the notion of 'sustainable development' in that, 'It can mean almost anything to anyone.' He emphasized the need to focus on the implication for destination areas, and in his attack he goes so far as to ask the question: why would anyone want to promote it? The answer, he suggests, is found in the desire of promoters and host communities for fewer negative effects on destinations and populations.

This is the heart of the problem, and Butler pointed to the difficulties inherent in tourism overall, and the need to recognize it both as an industry and an agent of development and change. There is, because of tourism's fragmented and competitive nature, a need to be wary and consider the worst possible outcomes. He suggested that even the concept of 'green tourism' (ecotourism) should be treated with caution. Butler saw an element of elitism in alternative tourism, and wondered for whom it may be most 'appropriate.'

He noted the correlation between the attributes of academics and the alternative tourists, and drew attention to the potential neocolonialism and ethnocentric application of their values on others. Regarding the impact of alternative tourism, Butler draws attention to the fact that it will follow a different course than mass tourism and certain factors will assume greater significance, such as contact (visitor–host interaction), which could be of longer duration per occasion and in a more sensitive location, possibly penetrating the personal space of residents.

It may also involve local people to a greater degree, use fragile resources, engender a proportionately greater leakage of expenditure, and cause political change in relation to

control and development. The emphasis on contact as a precursor to change is something with which this writer is in strong agreement, as this chapter will eventually disclose, and Butler (1989) reiterates this fact by using a passage from his earlier work:

Ultimately he suggests that the crucial question is whether alternative tourism is an appropriate form of development in its own right, and he asserts that there needs to be selective and deliberate planning and control over such development.

Butler sees it as fulfilling a number of rules:
• Complementing mass tourism by increasing attractions and authenticity,
• Serving the needs of specific groups,
• Supplementing the incomes of rural dwellers on the periphery, and
• Allowing some tourism development in areas of limited capacity. Whereas Butler writes in a generalising manner, urging caution and drawing up lists of problems and comparisons of 'hard' and 'soft' tourism, Van den Burghe (1994) writes as a social anthropologist who has lived in a community and known it intimately over a long period of time. In his assessment of ethnic tourism in the small Mexican town of San Cristobel, he concludes that Butler and others have promoted the fact that ethnic tourism is fragile and intrinsically self-destroying unless it is carefully controlled, and needs a sensitive type of development strategy, about which he makes a number of points:
• Tourism traffic should be limited, for example not exceeding 1 percent of local population.
• The development of tourist facilities should be as invisible as possible.
• Museumization should be avoided. Such planning should be made on a small scale by people knowledgeable about the local area. He cites the following reasons for the success of San Cristobel:
• There is paved road access but no jet airport nearby';
• The place is relatively isolated, necessitating overnight stays';
• The town is attractive, possessing 'Indianness,' a colonial ambiance, a
temperate climate, and mountain scenery;
• The tourists visiting the area are nonpolluting; and
• Tourism and development are under local political control (i.e., small scale with private investment). Van den Burghe points out that with small-scale investment there are fewer problems because with labour intensiveness there is more employment, businesses tend to be family based, and they are more flexible and more 'recession-proof' than large-scale developments where catastrophes are bigger and are often irreversible.

Ethnic tourists are attracted by a lack of luxury development or access by air. They avoid consumer society and seek to get closer to local people, resisting the typical 'Club-Med' style attractions. They also tend to stay longer on less money and their spending is more likely to trickle down to the local population.

Van den Burghe (1994) suggests that, 'In sheer economic cost-benefit terms, ethnic tourism is really much more profitable and beneficial to a greater number of people than it seems at first blush, it also produces less environmental and cultural pollution.'

3.2 Island of Komodo, Indonesia and Ecotourism Impact Factors

Ecotourism is another subset of alternative tourism and was examined by Parnwell (1993) in tourism in Southeast Asia. He generally supports the view that ecotourism can be environmentally beneficial.

He believed that the growth of special interest tourism such as ecotourism (which includes safaris, bird-watching, wildlife photography, landscape painting, and even organized hunting trips) has 'in many instances helped to generate a greater awareness of the aesthetic value of natural ecosystems amongst both the promoters and consumers of tourism resources.'

However, in contrast to Parnwell's benign view of ecotourism, the book includes Hitchcock's (1993) rather pessimistic examination of 'dragon tourism' (involving looking at the giant lizards) on the island of Komodo, Indonesia. He revealed that despite the National Park being a success, the indigenous island population has been overlooked by the authorities and is therefore unable to participate in the new developments because of a lack of education and skills. This has occurred even though overall communications have improved, as has the macro-economy. Hitchcock points out that there can also be problems with this type of tourism when people visit a place to observe rare creatures.

Curiously, one of the major sources of income remains the sale of goats for use as bait, though this is one of the practices that the planners had hoped to discourage. This is cause for concern because it remains unknown what effects the use of bait is having on the behaviour of the giant lizards in their natural habitat.

Research into the ecological impact of ecotourism is in its early stages, although it has been **recognized that there are many problems when tourists became intimately involved with watching and pursuing wildlife, upsetting their activity patterns, intimidating animals** (albeit innocently), destroying living organisms (e.g., vegetation and coral), and disturbing patterns of behaviour of both animal prey and victim (see Fennell, 1999).

Returning to the general theme of alternative tourism and its impact, the groundbreaking collection on tourism *Hosts and Guests:* **The Anthropology of Tourism** (Smith, 1989a) provides **a brief summary of the impacts of tourism overall, while detailing economic changes as well. These changes include influences on labour, development, cash flow, foreign exchange, price inflation (especially land), and the multiplier effect**. *The imperialistic nature of such developments was also noted. Other impacts referred to included the rejuvenation of arts and crafts, as has happened in Bali,* which were regarded as 'cultural involution' by some scholars.

Smith (1989b) considers certain cultural changes to have developed because of modernization including the transformation of traditional values and mores, the introduction of mass media, and cross-cultural understanding. She regards the modernization of cultures through trade and globalization as preceding or simply submerging the impact of tourism, and predicts that a worldwide cultural homogenization is underway thereby diminishing the difference between hosts and guests.

Yet she referred to the fact that tourism can accentuate negative aspects of society, such as moral decay, but at the same time also act as a bridge to an appreciation of cultural relativity and international understanding. The phrase 'alternative tourism' is mentioned briefly, and was seen as a format developed by operators featuring one-to-one interaction between hosts and guests.

It was pointed out that **ethnic and cultural tourism allow visitors to witness indigenous culture,** which can lead to stress amongst local people if their privacy was felt to be invaded.

Smith has constructed a model of 'tourist impact upon a culture,' whereby she suggests that: Stressful contacts between hosts and guests were seen as proportionate to increasing numbers, and on a sliding scale according to the volume of visitors.

According to the model, those making the most impact were the *charter tourists*, whereas those making the least impact were *the 'explorers*.' The weakness of this model lies in its lack of clarification of the term 'culture' and its omission of 'contact' and 'communication' as major factors in socio-cultural change. In fact, ironically, the quotation above draws attention to the interaction between offbeat or unusual tourists and the host community, a feature that is prominent in alternative tourism, and a reason for its more far-reaching potential for influencing the host community.

In the same collection of essays, Graburn (1989) also perceived mass tourists as having a greater impact on the culture of the host peoples than the youthful alternative travelers. He describes mass tourism as 'tourism of the timid (often parents of the youthful travelers) who have money and don't mind spending it, as long as they can carry the home-grown "bubble" of their life-style around with them.' Graburn explained the impact of such 'timid' tourists as:

'These tourists are likely to have the greatest impact on the culture and environment of the host peoples both by virtue of their greater numbers and by their demands for extensions of their home environments for which they are willing to pay handsomely.'

Butler strongly disagrees with these assessments of the relative impact of alternative tourism and provides reasons for this later, together with examples from published ethnographic work. In work that examined the influence of alternative tourism on a Canary Island, Macleod (1997) highlighted and pointed out the problems regarding the notion of the 'alternative tourist,' and focused on the individuals and their sense of identity as well as studying their influence on the indigenous local population.

Essentially, the alternative tourists who visited La Gomera in the Canary Islands form a broad category, but they have been described as backpackers, aged between 20 and 45 years, highly educated students, or people working within liberal professions, concerned about the environment, interested in meeting the local people, and possessing a strong desire for perso nal freedom.

Macleod was well aware of the pitfalls of creating an identifiable group and his work addressed the process of constructing identity, acknowledging the subjectivity involved, and pointing out that many tourists actually described themselves as 'alternative tourists' as well as the fact that other observers have defined them as such.

Attention is drawn to the breadth and depth of influence that this form of tourism can have on the local community in many areas of life, including the economic, socio-cultural, psychological, intellectual, and environmental influences. These areas of influence are briefly summarized in detail later, using examples from research in the Canary Islands.

3.2.1 Economic Influence of tourism

The money earned by local people allows them to increase their spending power, creating a 'multiplier effect.' When they spend some of their earnings on purchasing other local goods

or services, other merchants profit from this additional exchange of money. New business ideas introduced by tourists who have decided to settle for long periods also influence the local population. These might include T-shirt shops, craft and jewellery stores, and dolphin-watching excursion trips, all of which give local people examples of entrepreneurial ventures that they might emulate.

3.2.2 *Socio-cultural Influence of English and Western Tourism*

Alternative tourists mix with the local population because of their proximity in accommodation, through using local services and by communicating with landlords and their families. This often leads to friendships and in some cases, serious relationships that result in marriage. In 1991 for example, there were more than 10 such marriages in a village of 350 residents. Thus the pattern of kinship can be influenced directly, and the new members of families bring with them their own cultural behavior in respect to parenthood and human interaction.

Tourists also offer a wider possibility of sexual partners for the younger generation, especially local men, and many relationships have begun because of the propensity of local men to pursue foreign women.
 The community becomes more international in its composition because of the influx of foreigners who have formed relationships with locals, as well as those who choose to live and work in the area, setting up small businesses.

New work opportunities for women, through letting out rooms or working in shops and service outlets, gives them their own income and consequently, more potential for independence. In some households women have become the major earners, and the overall situation has occasionally transformed traditional gender roles within the home, as well as offering women the freedom to work and live by themselves.

3.2.3 Psychological Influence

Local people enter into emotional relationships with foreigners who may have different approaches to partnership and sexual behaviour. This often leads them to question their own attitudes and lifestyle as individuals. Locals become more aware of their own identity as a distinct group through continued interaction and contrast with foreign visitors, although through deeper relationships with each other, they become aware of their mutual similarities.

In one rare instance a local girl began a serious relationship with a German boy. Her parents refused to accept this situation and she left her home bound for Germany. However, after some time they both returned and her parents accepted him into the family, no longer treating him as an outsider. They began to lose their deep distrust of foreigners.

Foreigners who have different ideas about how either sex can behave may challenge traditional gender roles. In turn, this may influence local people to attempt to emulate the visitors (the demonstration effect) and challenge stereotyped roles, thereby for example leading to more self-confidence and independence amongst women. This influence may be compounded by the new potential for economic freedom that women may experience through the demand for their labour in tourism-related work.

3. 2. 4 Intellectual Influence

The local population is introduced to new languages (e.g., English and German) and many have made efforts to learn them informally through contact with the tourists in shops, bars, apartments, and through friends. There is also an exchange of ideas, in which new fashions in clothing, music, and food are involved, as well as thoughts on all manner of other things.

There have been a number of incidences where local people have visited a tourist's country of origin, including Germany, Austria, and Holland, through their friendships with a tourist. In some instances they have found work and stayed for a long period of time. This not only allows them an insight into what another country is like, but it also gives them a new perspective on their own country and lifestyle.

One young man visited Holland with a Dutch girlfriend and lived there with her for two years while working as a builder. He recounted how it had broadened his mind and made him more understanding of foreigners. It also gave him a greater appreciation of the friendliness of his own village.

3.2.5 Environmental Influence

In general, German tourists on La Gomera have an interest in ecological matters. They enjoy walking around the verdant peaks of the island and travelling around the shoreline by boat.

Recently, a number of dolphin safari tours have began operating on the island and some private businesses take tourists on mountain bike rides into the hills. These activities may eventually have long-term detrimental effects on the environment, but initially, they cater to the tourist's desire to enjoy the natural environment without apparently harming anything.

The appreciation the tourists have for the beauty of the island and its magnificent coastline has certainly promoted a stronger awareness among the local population of their heritage. One example of this was the nomination and acceptance of the temperate rainforest (which covers 10 percent of the island) as a World Heritage Site recognized by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

At one time a petition appeared in a local restaurant protesting against the construction of both roads and large apartments in the area. The petition had been signed and supported by many tourists. The whole environmental conservation concern was encapsulated in a protest by the indigenous population against the local government proposal for the 'development' of the coastline into a resort style promenade and beach. This led to a huge media discussion of tourism, development, and the character and identity of the Canary Islands, together with the importance of the natural habitat.

It also became the raw material for political battles during the election campaign, and ultimately the project was abandoned. One of the principal points to come out of this rejected proposal related to the impacts of alternative tourism.

 It was recognized that where tourism is already taking place, a thorough ethnographic study of a site is absolutely necessary in order to fully appreciate the influence of further

development. It also emphasized the point that it is important to understand the local people and their way of life in order to realize how influential such a phenomenon can be.

3.3 Impact of Alternative Tourism

With regards to impact of Alternative Tourism , there is a significant need to clearly define the subsets, tailoring them to changing times and conditions. *Impact:* The impact of alternative tourism in its various guises has been largely underestimated by scholars such as Smith and Graburn whose models are inadequate for understanding the broader repercussions of tourism on indigenous populations. This is due to their concentration on economic impact and volume of visitors alone. The studies examined in this unit particularly those involving ethnographic work, demonstrate that alternative tourists have a strong influence across a broad spectrum of socio-cultural and economic phenomena. This is largely due to the fact that they communicate with the indigenous population to a greater degree than do the mass or charter tourists.

Alternative tourists mix with local people, occasionally forming deep personal relationships with them and exchange more than simply market goods. Even the economic impact is potentially more profound on an individual basis due to their propensity to live within the host community in private family accommodation as well as spending money on local services.

New impact models need to be developed that are based on a broader range of criteria through which influence is assessed, with an emphasis on the socio-cultural aspects. The examination of impact has also highlighted the potential negative influences of tourism development.

Vulnerable natural environments and human communities are at risk of being spoiled by ecotourism and ethnic tourism. These dangers are being increased by the new green consumerism; the cynical marketing of so-called alternative tours, irresponsible adventure travel, cross-cultural ignorance, and the popular belief that only mass tourism is potentially destructive.

Macleod's study has indicated the numerous areas of human culture that are affected by tourism, and contrasts with both Smith and Graburn's concentration on economic impact and the importance of volumes of tourism traffic.

These approaches reflect a general weakness in impact models because of their focus solely on economic factors in 'development' analysis. In short, a holistic analysis of potential impacts provides a more rounded and more accurate picture of how tourism can affect a community, and places greater importance on individuals, their culture, and their community. Crick (1994), who also undertook an ethnographic study, examined international tourism in Sri Lanka. In his broad-ranging and historical examination he drew attention to the many paradoxes occurring with tourism and development, one example being the public vilification of 'hippies' and their harassment.

They were used as scapegoats, were blamed for many of tourism's unsavoury qualities, and were accused of introducing bad habits such as idleness, drug taking, and nudism. He pointed out the unfairness of this campaign and the hypocrisy surrounding much of the attacks on

tourism and its alleged corrupting influence, focusing only on both hippies and budget tourists.

In actuality, many within the local population considered the authorities to be corrupt, and wealthy tourists linked to illegal activities. In terms of economic benefits, Crick wished to redress some general misunderstandings by pointing out that the foreign exchange from budget tourists stayed in the local economy, providing funding for private homeowners, arts and crafts workers, and owners of small cafes and shops. This contrasts with the higher spenders, whether on package tours or not, who spent most of their money on accommodation or meals before setting foot in Sri Lanka, or in establishments where there is maximum leakage of foreign exchange via profits to overseas owners or investors.

Furthermore, Crick indicated other important differences between alternative and charter tourists: <u>Crick also speaks of the term,</u> **'cultural pollution' attributed to tourism, a common topic of discussion** <u>in the early 1980s.</u> He deconstructs this notion, while demonstrating the multiplicity of interpretations and attitudes towards tourism within the local community, placing the criticism of tourism into *a historical context as a continuation of the slandering of Western ways.* His in-depth analysis of the 'informal' economy, in particular the informal boarding houses and 'touts,' draws attention to the number and diversity of people involved in the 'black' economy.

Crick estimates that there were more than 100 such touts in the town of Kandy (Sri Lanka), mostly men in their early twenties, and notes their importance in the accommodation and shopping sectors as middlemen and guides. Through detailed accounts from individuals, one gains an insight into the culture and activity of these touts, and learns how occasionally they establish intimate relationships with tourists as well as making money off of them as well as those engaged in the tourist business. Many locals regard 'doing the tourism' as an easy and lucrative option, although it was later revealed to be an urban myth, the reality being significantly harder.

There were numerous private unregistered guesthouses in Kandy, and their owners often produced an origins 'myth,' being rather embarrassed about their involvement in the tourism business. It was excused as 'a way of keeping up' or 'something for the wife to do.' However, many went to considerable pains to acquire facilities such as toilets and showers for the prospective tourists, some even sleeping in uncomfortable situations whilst renting out their own 'spare' rooms. By so doing, it could return good money to the householder, the equivalent of a month's salary for the rental of a room for a few days. In addition, it might also provide for their children the opportunity to learn English.

Those successful landlords were often subject to the envy and suspicion of their neighbours, whereas according to informants, the local people were not envious of the foreign visitors themselves. Persistent harassment of tourists by guides often left them irritated and was a problem that led to bad feelings between the two groups. This is but one of many examples of the interactions between the hosts and visitors that do not lead to 'peace and understanding,' as is indicated throughout this book.

Nevertheless, despite occasional difficulties, many local people felt that tourism was a good thing and many were able to improve their economic positions through working formally or informally with tourists. Crick was adamant in his intent to set the record straight about those

types of tourists responsible for many of the perceived problems of tourism, an industry that he saw as part of the global capitalistic pattern of development with poorer countries being dependent on the richer powers, for whom they become 'pleasure peripheries.'

He suggests that it is convenient to believe that the budget tourists staying in the cheapest accommodation are those mainly involved with drugs and prostitution, but in Kandy it was quite obviously the wealthier tourists in air-conditioned cars who were being whisked away by their drivers after their rapid tour of the Temple of the Tooth to liaisons with prostitutes in expensive accommodation in or just outside the city.

Self Assessment Questions
   (i) What are the impacts of alternative tourism trends and estimation?
   (ii) Are there any relationship effect or vulnerability to environment and or to human?

4.0 Conclusion

By concentrating on a relatively small sample, rather than providing a long list of definitions, this unit has portrayed the particularities in relative detail, which hopefully will enable the reader to recognize the similarities and overall shape of alternative tourism. In this exploration it should be apparent that alternative tourism is very much a contextual creation in terms of space and time. It is a reflection of contemporary attitudes and values within society. Hence, in a complex and changing world (ever more so with the intensity of globalization), meanings and manifestations become more diverse. This in turn should lead to a critique of alternative tourism as a valid concept, and the need to analyse and understand the reality of its impact. In terms of analyzing the impact, alternative tourism is again subject to the prevailing values of a society in that the predominant concern over tourism's impact and development has been with the economy. Therefore, in assessing impact many academics were prone to concentrate on financial data, employment, and industrial changes, while neglecting socio-cultural psychological, and environmental factors. An awareness of this weakness leads to a realization of the importance of a detailed analysis and comprehensive understanding of the host community in order to fully appreciate the breadth and depth of influences that tourism can have on the lives of local residents. This further supports the need for sound ethnographic research in the host community involving both local people and visiting tourists.

The conclusive findings of this study are set out next: *Meaning:* Despite agreement on the content of the term 'alternative tourism,' it is overstretched to the point of being inadequate, is hazy, and is subject to parody. It has more use as a general signifier than an analytical term.

One reason for this is that with changes in tourism, the boundaries between mass and alternative tourism have been disappearing. For example, group excursions to exotic locations and packaged ecotours now involve large numbers of shepherded visitors. Essentially the concept is becoming outmoded and is fragmenting into disparate subsets, the classifications of which are in serious need of revision. Instead of catch-all terms, which mean different things to different people, and eventually cease to be applicable over time, a more specific description needs to be used and rigorously defined.

Such terms include ecotourism, ethnic tourism, individualistic/backpacking tourism, and adventure tourism.

It is not the intention of this writer to establish a standard set of definitions, but the point should be abundantly clear that the meaning of alternative tourism has become vague and it is now an anachronism.

5.0 Summary
A better understanding of the influences of tourism at the grass-roots level, partly through an awareness of the crucial part that communication plays in change and impact, can lead to a heightened awareness of how this phenomenon is affecting the world, and can have consequences for policy makers as well. It is therefore necessary that multidisciplinary discussions continue and grow, as there are risks of over-specialization and the marginalization of ideas and research findings in an area that so clearly deserves a broad sweep of academic approaches. More detailed ethnographic research needs to be carried out on the impact of ecotourism and ethnic tourism in order to determine their long-term effects and their breadth of influence. This research will assist in comparative analysis and offers the promise of broader insight into change. Investigations and theoretical modeling needs to be more rigorous, holistic, culturally sensitive, and people ori- ented if one is to understand the processes involved and alleviate problems in the future.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) What are the psychological influence of people entering into emotional relationship with foreigners?

(ii) What is ecotourism? Illustrate your answer with some local examples?

(iii) Explain some of the economic impact and influence of tourism to host nations?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) With regards to impact of Alternative Tourism **,** there is a significant need to clearly define the subsets, tailoring them to changing times and conditions. ***Impact:*** The impact of alternative tourism in its various guises has been largely underestimated by scholars such as Smith and Graburn whose models are inadequate for understanding the broader repercussions of tourism on indigenous populations. This is due to their concentration on economic impact and volume of visitors alone. The studies examined in this unit particularly those involving ethnographic work, demonstrate that alternative tourists have a strong influence across a broad spectrum of socio-cultural and economic phenomena. This is largely due to the fact that they communicate with the indigenous population to a greater degree than do the mass or charter tourists.

(ii) Alternative tourists mix with local people, occasionally forming deep personal relationships with them and exchange more than simply market goods. Even the economic impact is potentially more profound on an individual basis due to their propensity to live within the host community in private family accommodation as well as spending money on local services. Vulnerable natural environments and human communities are at risk of being spoiled by ecotourism and ethnic tourism.

UNIT 10 Tourism a Potential indigenous Australia new Pastoral Industry

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UNIT 10 Tourism a Potential indigenous Australia new Pastoral Industry

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

More recently, tourism has been referred to optimistically as having the potential to be 'indigenous Australia's new pastoral industry' (Ward, 2002). Each of the phases, especially the most recent 'tourist' unit has seen the introduction of a rush of new ideas, gender relations, and commodities, as well as diseases and community divisions, into Yanyuwa and many similar communities across northern and central Australia.

In this unit we shall study the production and development of artifacts and crafts by southern hemisphere natives of Australian and New Zealand and its significant role in promotion of global tourism.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this course, you should be able to:

Explain the meaning of indigenous sculpture and quarantine paintings and artifacts and its role in tourism

Understand how to promote the marketing of cultural tours and values in tourism

Identify factors relevant in promoting tourism development and social justice

Discuss how activities of tourism create employment (direct and indirect),

Elaborate on benefits of tourism in promoting investment in infrastructure (e.g., roads),

Express how aboriginal works should be promoted in sale of arts and crafts in Australia

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Tourism a Potential indigenous Australia new Pastoral Industry

When the Yanyuwa people of the Northern Territory in Australia classify their past, they divide it into the following phases, or 'times.' Macassan (pre-European contact), wild (first contact with Europeans), police (1890s onwards), war (World War II), welfare (1950 onward), cattle (1950s and 1960s), Gough Whitlam1 (land rights), and this (tourist) time (Baker, 1999). The success of the cattle, or pastoral, period in particular, relied heavily on Aboriginal knowledge and labour and provided many employment opportunities. Thus, in addition to novel transport, telecommunications, and image technologies, less affluent peoples in regions favoured by tourists often come to experience new food and refrigeration, construction, transportation, and finance technologies, to mention but a few obvious influences. The various impacts, however, are never uniform; neither are they always

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unidirectional. Increasingly, too, they are often successfully resisted (de Burlo, 1996). It is not uncommon for 'imposed' tourism ventures to founder in spectacular fashion as a consequence of failed cultural understanding. In each case the responses are different so we must beware of simplistic generalizations. Pagdin (1995) emphasizes that 'locally-affected people are not shaped passively by outside forces but react as well, at times even changing the conditions of the larger system, and that the outcome of tourism development is a negotiated process.'

3.1.2 *Medium to Long-Term Strategy for Tourism in New Zealand*

Grounded in the growing body of literature on 'postmodern tourism' (Craik, 1994; Munt, 1994) and that which questions whether globalization really has fostered cultural dialogue (Epstein, 2003), the main aim of this unit is to illustrate some of this complexity through a discussion of the range of contemporary responses of Australia's indigenous Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population to the tourism phenomenon and the pressures for change.

It is timely to revisit this issue because, as the quotation at the start of this unit illustrates, through such media as Lonely Planet guides3 the Northern Territory government, and the Australian Tourist Commission, the 1990s in particular has seen a strong marketing campaign based around Aboriginality as a 'tourism commodity.'

As well, 2002 marked the thirtieth anniversary of the inauguration of the United Nations' (UN) 1972 Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage and was designated both the UN Year for Cultural Heritage and the International Year of Ecotourism. That year also saw 200 indigenous people from 19 countries participating in the International Forum on Indigenous Tourism in Oaxaca, Mexico, as well as the start of an intensive, 12-month consultation process across Australia to develop a 10-year, strategic plan for tourism.

At the time of writing that process has culminated in the production of an interim discussion document (Green Paper) entitled **A Medium to Long-Term Strategy for Tourism** (Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources, 2003a), a precursor to a final White Paper.

At the start of the twenty-first century, and in the face of enormous barriers, there are at least some indications that the descendants of Australia's original inhabitants are now successfully resisting their representation as 'exotic curios,' achieving far greater recognition of their cultural rights and insisting on meaningful consultation over the appropriation and 'marketing' of their heritage. Such issues are central to what the prominent Australian anthropologist, Debra Bird Rose (1996), and others (e.g., Capra, 2002; Plumwood, 2003) have characterized as the 'dramatic and injurious junction' humans have now reached as a species. Rose is referring to the widespread opposition that we now encounter between ecological and human rights—an opposition that ultimately could prove fatal both for the planet and for humanity. The blunt message of such writers is that we have no choice but to take heed of the 'wisdom of the elders' and listen carefully to indigenous peoples' understandings of ecosystem functioning and place (Suzuki and Knudston, 1992).

Theoretically, Australia could play a leading role in this process but only if—as in the United States, Canada, and New Zealand—the national and state governments are also prepared to

cede some of their power and grant a much greater degree of indigenous sovereignty within the existing nation state.

3.2 Australian production, promotion, and marketing of indigenous paintings and artifacts

At the present time, and notwithstanding the High Court's 1992 landmark decision in *Mabo*6 that native title could legitimately be claimed under certain, highly specific circumstances, Australia has a conservative ruling administration deeply suspicious of anything that departs from the desirable norm of a homogeneous, 'united' Australia, and there are few signs of optimism regarding significant legislative or constitutional reform under the present **Commonwealth government** (Hage, 1998; Neill, 2002). In this unit, I explore a number of themes concerning the often uneasy relationship between contemporary western tourism developments and the native Aboriginal population principally, though not exclusively, in sparsely populated outback, northern and central Australia and along the nonmetropolitan littoral. 'Tourism' will be interpreted broadly here to also include the **production, promotion, and marketing of indigenous paintings and artifacts** (Smith, 1996). One conservative estimate is that the indigenous arts and crafts' sector is worth at least AUS$200 million per year (Whitford, Bell, and Watkins, 2001). For many remote communities, the unprecedented international demand for high quality Aboriginal art in recent years has not only injected millions of dollars into often very poor settlements but has also created a new niche market for western, art-loving tourists wishing to meet the artists face to face. Not uncommonly, as at isolated Wingellina in the Northern Territory, the artistic boom was spectacular in terms of its dramatic growth and wealth creation but then effectively died just as quickly after a few short years (Rothwell, 2003).

3.2.1   Contemporary Tourism Development & Social Justice
A central focus of the discussion is the inseparability of questions surrounding tourism development and broader social justice issues concerning Aboriginal rights:
• Control over their traditional lands, practices, and cultural representations;
• Compensation for past injustices; and
• Total or partial sovereignty/self-governance (Behrendt, 2003). Even though our main interest in this chapter is on the indigenous people of Australia, what Young (1995) calls the 'Third World in the First,' many of the ideas are also of direct relevance to other places in Oceania and the Asia-Pacific region, like Papua New Guinea and the Pacific Islands, where tourism has recently brought together peoples from vastly different cultural and economic backgrounds (Scheyvens and Purdie, 1999). Given that Australia has nine separate jurisdictions,7 the discussion is of particular significance to other, federated states, such as Canada and the United States, where the goals and policy orientation of the national government occasionally may be in conflict with both minority native
peoples and one or more sub-national levels of government and where there is a strengthening indigenous rights' movement.

The central problem being addressed revolves around the question of whether contemporary tourism development in Australia beyond the major metropolitan centres can be said to be economically beneficial as well as socially and culturally 'appropriate' from the Aboriginal viewpoint. This is a relatively under-researched area by comparison with the comparatively large body of marketing research literature on the perceptions, attitudes, and motivations of western travellers seeking a so-called ethnic tourism experience (Ross, 1991; Hollinshead, 1996; Harrison, 2001).

3.2.2 *Indigenous Involvement and Interactions*

Indigenous involvement in the tourism sector takes many forms, ranging from casual employment in mainstream, non-Aboriginal enterprises to

Table 8.1 Community Arrangements at Australian Public and Private National and Tourist Parks

Consultation with local Aboriginal communities by the park authority

Aboriginal employment by the park authority

Park management committee with an Aboriginal minority

Park management committee with an Aboriginal majority

Park management committee with an Aboriginal power of veto

Aboriginal ownership of parks and a lease back agreement with park authority

Source: Australian Tourist Commission p.93, 20083and Larritt, 1993; Smyth, 2001

total ownership and control (Mapunda, 2001). Further, there is a gradation of 'host–guest' interactions that can be categorised in terms of whether they involve low, medium, or high levels of intimacy. At one end, low level intimacy is a characteristic of the act of purchasing Aboriginal art or craft in a capital city retail outlet.8 At the other, high level intimacy is experienced, for example, by tourists participating in small-group, extended interpretive tours on traditional lands led by indigenous tour guides (Parsons, 2002).

International visitors vary markedly in terms of their comprehension of, and sensitivity toward, Aboriginal culture. In particular, conflicts and misunderstandings can occur in relation to the hunting and killing of wildlife species such as kangaroos, emus, crocodiles, and turtles. Interestingly, research consistently has found German visitors to Australia to be by far the most knowledgeable, and that understanding frequently translates into a desire to not intrude (Australian Tourist Commission, 2003). Relatedly, at the outset it is important to grasp that there is a wide spectrum of responses on the part of the country's indigenous population ranging from complete opposition at one extreme through a variety of co-management agreements with white Australians to a commitment to indigenous-controlled and run tourism enterprises at the other (Table 8.1). That there is a wide diversity of reactions should come as no surprise, because there are considerable variations in visitor numbers and impacts between different regions and attractions, such as the highly personalized Manyallaluk Aboriginal Cultural Tours in the Northern Territory, which has only around 2000 visitors a year, whereas North Queensland's Tjapukai Dance Theatre attracts well over 100,000. The degree of historical exposure to tourism also varies markedly across this vast island continent.

Indeed, contact with Europeans has been only relatively recent in north and northwestern Australia by comparison with the longer colonial encounter in the southeast. The Yolngu people of Arnhem Land in the Northern Territory, for example, had little contact with Europeans until the 1930s and have been able to maintain much of their traditional culture and customs relatively intact. Paradoxically, in the 1990s this community became the fertile breeding ground for *Yothu Yindi*, one of the most commercially successful rock groups in mainstream Australian musical history (Hayward and Neuenfeldt, 1998).

3.2.3 *Indigenous People, 'Reconciliation' and Tourism*

One of the most widely *accepted definitions of the term 'indigenous' is that enunciated in 1986 by Jose Marinez Cobo,* Special Rapporteur for the UN Working Group on Indigenous Populations (Cunneen and Libesman, 1995). 'Indigenous communities', he argued,

Barsh (1999) has reminded us that **all of the world's estimated 6,000 to 10,000 original cultures were 'indigenous' and that although most of these have long since been absorbed into modern nation states, there still exist sizeable indigenous minorities in parts of northern Europe; North, Central, and South America; Africa, Asia, and Oceania.**

Depending on the precise definition used,10 Durning's (1993) estimate for the early 1990s was that there were anywhere between 190 million and 625 million indigenous people worldwide, ranging from high percentages of the national population in Papua New Guinea and Bolivia (77 percent and 70 percent, respectively) to low proportions in the United States (1 percent), Australia (2 percent), and Canada (4 percent). Almost without exception—and historically, invariably without prior consultation—promotional agencies in countries with indigenous populations use them as a marketing magnet for overseas tourists seeking an 'authentic' ethnic tourism experience.

Nowhere was this more apparent than in the opening and closing ceremonies of the 2002 Sydney Olympic Games where, in marked contrast to their marginalized position in Australian society, indigenous themes were prominent (Simpson, 2002). At the same time, it has to be recognized that in many countries around the world indigenous people increasingly have come to see tourism as offering considerable opportunities in terms of reconciling some of the historical injustices that continue to plague ongoing relations between indigenous and non-indigenous people. Nevertheless, an angry 'backlash' against any attempt to deliver what are often widely interpreted as 'special privileges' to Aboriginal people has long been a common feature of the Australian political scene.

In October 1985, the Commonwealth government finally recognised the legitimacy of indigenous ownership claims to that icon of Australian tourism—Uluru ('Ayers Rock')—in central Australia. Following the symbolic 'handing over' of the Rock, the government then immediately signed a 99-year leasing agreement with the local, 1400-strong Anangu community, which currently delivers approximately AUS$1000 per head, annually.11 In some conservative circles, including the Northern Territory government of the day, this important symbolic action provoked outrage—expressed in court action and a nationwide newspaper advertising campaign—that 'land rights was totally out of control.'12 In both Canada and Australia, in particular, in recent years the issue of 'reconciliation' has been prominent on the political agenda.

The Canadian government has now officially apologised for past injustices against its indigenous population and, through the legislated Council for Aboriginal Reconciliation (CAR), Australia went through an exhaustive, decade-long process of developing a framework for reconciliation between 1990 and 2000 (Johnson, 2002). In May, 2000, CAR presented its two final reports, to Parliament. The latter document placed considerable emphasis on the related issues of economic independence, disadvantage, rights' recognition, and sustaining the reconciliation process.

On the day following the release of the reports, and in stark contrast to the Commonwealth government's position, an estimated 250,000 Australians demonstrated their support for reconciliation in a march across Sydney Harbour Bridge.

3.2.4 Identification of Five Main Tourism-Related Empowerment culture in Australia

The emphasis on economic independence for indigenous Australians and the potential possibilities offered by the tourism industry was in line with several of the key 'empowerment' recommendations of the earlier 1991 *Royal Commission into Aboriginal*

Deaths in Custody. That Commission identified five, main tourism-related foci that appeared to offer benefits to Aboriginal communities. These were:

(i)-Employment (direct and indirect),

(ii)-Investment in infrastructure (e.g., roads),

(iii)-The production and sale of arts and crafts,

(iv)-Cultural tours, and

(v)-Joint ventures (Executive Summary, 1993).

The mid-1990s were a time when there was more formal recognition by indigenous people themselves of the potential of tourism to aid greater cultural understanding and assist the reconciliation process. In Australia, in direct response to the findings of the *Royal Commission*, 1997 saw the release of the landmark, National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Tourism Strategy. This strategy was produced after considerable indigenous input. It suggested 75 proposed actions based around three core objectives (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission [ATSIC], 1997):

3.2.5 Islander Tourism Action based three Core Objectives
(i) Remove obstacles to increased Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander participation in the tourism industry, as investors, joint venture partners, employers (including operators), and employees;

(ii)Assist Aboriginal people to present their cultures to tourists in a way that is acceptable to Aboriginal communities and which also provides a valuable tourism experience; and

(iii)Assist Aboriginal and Torres Strait islander people in choosing how they wish to participate in the tourism industry, and building their capacity to contribute to the industry. In both Canada and Australia, peak bodies run by Aboriginal people in the guise of Aboriginal

Tourism Team Canada and Aboriginal Tourism Australia were formed in 1997 to provide leadership and for the development of indigenous tourism. These can be seen as significant developments symbolizing the desire to take greater control of an industry that, in the past, had often openly exploited Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. and their traditional lands (Simondson, 1995).

3.3.6 Indigenous Tourism Integral Part of Mainstream Tourism in Australia

More recently in June 2000, the first ever National Indigenous Tourism Forum was held in Sydney, resulting in the formation of the 16-person, Indigenous Tourism Leadership Group. This high-level advisory group has made it clear that it now sees indigenous tourism as an integral part of the 'mainstream' tourism industry in Australia rather than a small, niche sector (Indigenous Tourism Leadership Group, 2002). On the face of it, the potential economic benefits for what are often marginalized communities appear clear, but arguably there are also considerable social and political advantages to be gained from introducing a wider cross-section of non-indigenous people to aspects of Aboriginal lifestyles, artistic and survival skills, and spirituality (Hinch and Butler, 1996). This is a theme that Durning (1993) has emphasized:

With an area of 7.7 million square kilometres the island continent of Australia is slightly smaller than the contiguous United States, yet still has a population of only some 20 million, concentrated mainly in large urban centres along the eastern and southern seaboard. One reputable estimate is that at the time of first European contact in 1788 there were probably approximately 400,000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders living in all parts of the continent, but that within a century—decimated by disease and massacres—that number had dropped to a mere 30,000 (Bereson and McDonald, 1997).

By the late 1800s it was widely believed that it was only a question of time before the indigenous population died out completely and so they were not involved in any of the discussions leading up to formulation of the country's written Constitution in 1901. When they are mentioned in that document the language is exclusionary, and even though Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders legally are Australian citizens in reality, many of them are profoundly marginalized, have a mortality rate that accords with the average in India or Bolivia and are, for the most part, 'citizens without rights' (Chesterman and Galligan, 1997; Mercer, 2003). Many Aboriginal communities, too, are plagued by substance abuse, domestic violence, disease, and welfare dependency—issues that are now being openly debated by indigenous leaders (Pearson, 2000; Davies, 2003). So bad are conditions in certain areas that there have been cases, such as at Garden Point in the Northern Territory, where indigenous communities have been embarrassed at the thought of tourists seeing their appalling housing conditions and so have opposed tourism developments (Altman, 1988). One consequence of the historical belief that indigenous Australians were destined for extinction was that in many areas they were effectively written out of the history books. Recently, Clark and Cahir (2001) have argued forcefully that the Aboriginal presence needs to be reinstated in tourism landscapes.

3.3.7 Marketing of Historic Goldfield Tourism in Western Victoria

Current marketing of the historic Goldfields Tourism Region in western Victoria, for example, is almost totally silent on the rich indigenous heritage and gives the impression that settlement started only with the nineteenth-century gold rush. As well, nonindigenous controlled wildlife tourism ventures often pay scant attention to the all-important Aboriginal

perspective (Muloin, Zeppel, and Higginbottom, 2001). Much contemporary advertising, too, stereotypes Aboriginal people and fails to convey the rich *diversity* of indigenous culture in Australia and the fact that, far from being ossified in the distant past, it is still highly relevant and evolving today (Ballantyne, 1995). At the time of first European settlement there were an estimated 700 separate dialects of around 250 different Aboriginal languages. Even today, more than 40 indigenous languages are still spoken in the Northern Territory alone.

Despite the shameful history since colonial settlement and current social problems, in recent years the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population has undergone a miraculous demographic transition and an explosive renaissance of sporting, cultural, and artistic creativity. Between the censuses of 1996 and 2001 the indigenous population, for example, increased by 16 percent, compared with the national average growth rate of only 6 percent and their numbers now approximate the estimated population at the time of first European settlement.16 They still make up only approximately 2 percent of the total Australian population, but if the current high growth rate continues potentially there could be as many as

1 million Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders living in Australia by 2010 (Johnson, 2001). There are significant regional variations in their current levels of concentration. In the Northern Territory, for example, they make up a quarter of the total population of approximately 200,000. In addition, it should be noted that the vast majority of indigenous Australians live in large urban centres. Only approximately 30 percent of the population live in rural or remote areas, and the level of 'urbanisation' is rising with each census (Memmott and Moran, 2001).

Given that non-indigenous marketing invariably has equated 'authentic' ethnic tourism with the 'wild,' distant Outback, Parsons (2002) has argued that this now leaves the vast majority of '. . . Indigenous peoples in more urbanised areas with the onus of proving their own authenticity, or being encouraged by the tourism market to emulate the accepted authenticity of "The Outback Aboriginal."' It is also clear that Aborigines have occupied Australia for approximately 50,000 years and that over that time they developed a range of highly sophisticated skills for living sustainably in one of the harshest environments on earth (Colley, 2002). In some well-watered coastal areas, too, the archaeological evidence is that they were not nomadic but lived in permanent or semipermanent settlements. At Lake Condah in Victoria— currently the focus of a preparatory proposal for World Heritage listing as a cultural site—the archaeological evidence now shows more or less continuous settlement for 13,000 years, possibly making this the oldest known permanent settlement in the world.

By contrast, the short period since European settlement has witnessed massive, and in many cases irreversible, degradation of the Australian environment (Flannery, 1994; National Land and Water Resources Audit, 2002). This observation alone should provide a salutary lesson that all is not well with recently introduced European land and water management practices and that maybe the time has come to listen attentively to what indigenous Australians have to teach about 'caring for country' (Howitt, 2001; Altman and Whitehead, 2003). The Gagadju people of the Northern Territory, for example, have been using 'firestick farming' as a management tool on their ancestral lands for thousands of years. After Kakadu National Park was first proclaimed in their country in 1979 they continued to burn the land in defiance of the European management regime that strongly favoured fire suppression.

More recently, there has been growing recognition and acceptance of the ecological rationale for this longstanding indigenous practice (Langton, 1998; Yibarbuk, et al., 2001). Over much

of Australia indigenous ownership of land is deemed to have been obliterated by European settlement. However, in recent years, through a combination of land grants and successful native title claims, the Aboriginal-owned land base has been progressively expanding. It now comprises approximately 18 percent of Australia and has a population of perhaps 110,000 people, of whom 90 percent are estimated to be indigenous (Altman, 2001).

It is likely that in the future, successful native title claims will be finalised for areas that have long been dedicated as national parks (Smyth, 2001). In passing, it is also interesting to note that, over the years, in some parts of Australia, there has been a gradual symbolic process of replacing European names of national parks with more appropriate indigenous names. Thus Ayers Rock-Mt. Olga has become Ulurua-Kata Tjuta, Jervis Bay has been renamed Booderee, and so on (Zeppel, 2001). In the Northern Territory the farsighted Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976, passed by a progressive Commonwealth government, granted freehold title to indigenous people over almost 50 percent of that enormous area.

Given that property rights are the fundamental basis of power and control, this means that, at least in the Northern Territory, indigenous people have the ultimate power of veto over inappropriate tourism developments on their freehold land (Venbrux, 1999). This level of control, in a region that attracts almost 2 million tourists a year, is not available over much of the rest of Australia, especially in the more populous States of Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland. However, the government of western Australia has recently signalled that it wishes to hand back to Aboriginal people the titles to 25 million hectares of national parks and state forests and then lease back the land.

 Already the government is negotiating such a deal with the traditional Martu people in the Pilbara region in the north of that state in relation to western Australia's largest national park, the 1.2 million hectare Rudall River National Park (Barrass, 2003). It is also worth emphasising that the relatively high concentrations of Aboriginal people living in the northern parts of Australia are closest to the potentially huge tourism markets of Asia. Darwin airport has direct international connections into Asia and already Cairns is Australia's fifth busiest airport in terms of international arrivals.

3.3.8 New York 9/11 and Bali (India)Terrorists attack & Negative impact on Global Tourism

Given that research in both Australia and New Zealand has found that overseas, rather than domestic, tourists constitute the main market segment interested in 'indigenous tourism' (Ryan, 2002; Ryan and Huyton, 2002; Australian Tourist Commission, 2003),17 it is important to highlight recent, inbound visitation trends to Australia. For the last 20 years tourism consistently has been Australia's most significant service sector export industry. It currently generates approximately 5 percent of gross domestic product and provides direct employment for more than 500,000 people. Even though annual expenditure by overseas visitors (currently around AUS$17.1 billion) is less than half that of overnight domestic tourists, it still eclipses export earnings from the key mineral and agricultural commodities.

In 2002 the Tourism Forecasting Council confidently predicted that by 2012 Australia could anticipate a doubling of tourists and a healthy visitation rate of approximately 10.4 million overseas visitors. But by May 2003 tourist arrivals had slumped to their lowest level for eight years and the Council had significantly downgraded its forecast to only 7.6 million by 2012.

In less than two years the Australian inbound tourism sector had been subjected to no less than five major 'shocks' that had a dramatic negative impact on visitor numbers and confidence within the tourism industry. These were the terrorist attacks in New York and Bali, the collapse of Ansett airlines, the invasion of Iraq, and the SARS virus (Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources, 2003b). The Australian Tourism Export Council estimated that the two, latter events cost Australia AUS$2 billion in lost tourism earnings (Vergnani, 2003).

Notwithstanding these shocks, there is growing confidence that tourist arrivals to Australia will gradually recover and that, as such, there will be significant opportunities, as well as dilemmas, for indigenous tourism in the future. Visitor arrivals for the month of July 2003, registered major reductions from China and Japan, together with a lesser reduction from the United States, but strong growth from Korea, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom (Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources, 2003c). The next section of this unit briefly chronicles one of the most bitterly contested disputes between the non-Aboriginal proponents of a major tourism development and indigenous interests ever seen in Australia. In contrast, this is followed by a critical appraisal of a multiaward winning Aboriginal 'cultural park' in North Queensland, the Tjapukai Aboriginal Cultural Park. This attraction was mentioned briefly earlier in the chapter, but it is worthy of further consideration. These two case studies have been chosen deliberately to highlight some of the complex issues involved in any discussion of indigenous people and tourism in Australia.

3.3.9 *Hindmarsh Island and the Ngarrindjeri People*

Hindmarsh Island, or Kumerangk, as it is known by the local Ngarrindjeri people, is a tiny island near the mouth of the River Murray in south Australia. In the 1980s a private company, Binalong Pty. Ltd., constructed a small marina there, but access was difficult and only available by ferry. Accordingly, in 1989 the company started negotiations with the enthusiastic south Australian government of the day to upgrade the marina and associated residential facilities and construct an AUS$6.4 million bridge across the Goolwa Channel connecting the island to the mainland. In 1991 the south Australian state government agreed to become a partner in the project, which was also backed by Westpac Bank. Once it became clear what was involved, strong opposition to the proposal grew from a coalition of Ngarrindjeri, environmental, and church groups, the Friends of Goolwa and Kumerangk, on the grounds that fragile wetlands would be destroyed and significant spiritual values would be seriously compromised. In particular, the Goolwa Channel acts to protect women's traditional ancestral spirits and a bridge, it was alleged by some Ngarrindjeri women, would violate the site (Bell, 1998).

In protest, in April 1994, the peak national Aboriginal organization, ATSIC, threatened to withdraw AUS$1 billion in investments from the bank. Also, in July 1994, the Federal Minister for Aboriginal Affairs invoked national heritage legislation, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Heritage Act 1984, and signed an order forbidding bridge construction, an edict that was subsequently overturned by the Federal Court on a point of law a few months later. Since that time there have been four additional state and federal government inquiries, including an AUS$1 million Royal Commission into the blocked project, as well as numerous conflicting anthropological studies and High Court appeals. One of the findings of the 1995 Stevens Royal Commission was that claims relating to 'secret women's business' had been fabricated and had no substance. Five years later the bridge was finally opened, but

at a huge cost to taxpayers, the developers, and the local Aboriginal community, deeply divided over the authenticity of the 'secret women's business' claims (Simons, 2003). Indeed, in 2001 a Federal Court Judge, Justice John von Doussa, challenged the findings of the earlier Royal Commission (Ogle, 2002). Stretching as it did over an agonising, 15 years, the Hindmarsh Island affair is a classic example of a clash of European developmentalist values, codified in the written 'logic' of Anglo-Saxon law, and indigenous values, grounded in a less precise oral tradition (Taubman, 2002). But it is by no means an isolated case. In recent years, for example, the steadily growing number of visitors to Uluru (Ayers Rock) has been fuelling mounting tensions between the Anangu people and western tourists, tourism operators, and promoters. At issue is the huge financial mismatch between what Anangu make out of tourism at Uluru by comparison with tourism operators and the lack of sensitivity shown by tourists and other nonindigenous people to sacred sites in and around Uluru Kata-Tjuta National Park. Anangu are not happy with tourists climbing the Rock and they strongly oppose the taking of photographs of certain parts of that monolith.[18]

In theory, sites are protected under the Northern Territory Aboriginal Sacred Sites Act 1989, but it is only in recent years that infringements have resulted in a string of successful prosecutions (Mulvaney and Jones, 2002). The northern side of Uluru, in particular, has important women's sacred places and since 2000 strict guidelines, backed by stiff penalties, have been in place to prevent these sites from being photographed. The problem of course is that countless millions of such photographs, taken before 2000, already exist around the world in many forms,[19] and there are claims that a ban on photography over effectively 40 percent of Uluru could seriously damage tourism in Central Australia (Stewart, 2003). The timing of the current 'representational crisis' at Uluru is not altogether surprising. It comes in the aftermath of years of cumulative tourism pressure and commercial exploitation, coinciding with indigenous insistence that cultural sensitivities be respected, and a related surge in litigation surrounding the protection of Aboriginal intellectual property rights (Simons, 2000). The 'Uluru model' is well known and widely praised as a classic comanagement agreement. In reality, it is deeply flawed and in need of fundamental reform (Power, 2002). Elsewhere in Australia—in the richly-endowed rock-art Grampians- Gariwerd National Park in Victoria—the traditional owners have come up with the management 'solution' that allows tourist visitation to 10 publicised and intensively managed rock shelters but disallows access to another 100 such sites (Clark, 2000; 2002).

3.4.1 *The Tjapukai Aboriginal Cultural Park*

In many ways the Tjapukai Aboriginal Cultural Park—situated on 25 acres of indigenous-owned land at Caravonica, just outside Cairns, in far north Queensland—is an outstanding success story in terms of linking tourism innovation, cross-cultural communication, cultural revival, and employment creation for Aboriginal people. The park had its origins in 1987 with the formation of the Tjapukai Dance Theatre, which was started by a small group of indigenous dancers at Kuranda to both keep their rainforest dance traditions alive and also to perform for western tourists. As this enterprise grew and became more successful one consequence was a marked revival of interest in the Tjapukai language, which, in the early 1980s, was threatened with extinction. The Cultural Park, located on its present site since 1996, subsequently expanded and now has seven separate attractions, including History, Creation and Dance Theatres, and a Camp Village. With a staff of 100, of whom 85 are indigenous, the AUS$9 million dollar enterprise lays claim to being Australia's largest single private employer of Aboriginal people.[20] Moscardo and Pearce (1999) describe it as 'a

leading player in the indigenous market place in the country' and comment that 'its dancers and staff have been central to the Australian Tourist Commission's promotion and trade show efforts.'

However, notwithstanding these positive achievements, the park project is not without its problems and contradictions for the local Djabugay people. Many of these stem from the fact that indigenous people in this area, as elsewhere in Australia, have a hybrid economy that does not always fit comfortably with the dictates of the contemporary market economy.21 Most significantly, and in contrast to Uluru, the com- munity is a minority shareholder in the company and there is no certainty that they will ever be granted majority equity. As such, the financial benefits for the local community are not as substantial as they could be, a finding that has been a recurring theme in other research projects on Australian indigenous tourism (Altman, 1989). Further, no Djabugay occupy management positions in the enterprise and there are ongoing disputes over the presentation and representation of traditional culture. Dyer, Aberdeen, and Schuler, (2003), for example, note that boomerang making and body painting often have to be carried out with undue haste in order to match tour schedules. As well, One example of the lack of authenticity is the regular use of didgeridoos in dance and musical performances, even though this instrument was never used by the Djabugay.

The fundamental dilemma is that if the park is to continue to do well financially, it must accommodate the needs and expectations of overseas visitors. As noted earlier, 'comanagement' is a fashionable descriptor of joint management regimes supposedly in place and 'balancing' indigenous and nonindigenous concerns at many iconic tourist sites across Australia, in addition to Tjapukai. But in many cases, upon closer scrutiny, there is a serious power imbalance in favour of nonindigenous people. Six possible relationships between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal interests, ranked according to a hierarchy of indigenous control, were listed in Table 8.1. Across Australia, models 1 through 3 are by far the most common. But as we have seen in the case of Uluru earlier, even in the case of category 6 relationships, it does not follow that indigenous interests are always as well served as they might be.

Self Assessment Questions

(i)From your study of this unit, are there conflicts and confrontation with international visitors with host environment in Australia?

(ii)What reactions were anticipated if any by the residents of destination?

4.0   Conclusion

Writing in 2001 Whitford, Bell, and Watkins argued forcefully that there is a need to separate the rhetoric from the reality when discussing indigenous tourism in Australia. Three years later there is no disputing that the views held by many Aboriginal people in relation to the positive aspects of tourism development are deeply ambivalent. At one extreme there have been undoubted financial gains for some individuals and communities, especially from the sale of high quality indigenous art. But by and large the evidence from the research to date is

that tourism has not delivered the economic bonanza to indigenous people that was widely predicted 20 years earlier. There are also clear signs of growing frustration at the way in which Aboriginal people are often effectively disempowered in many 'comanagement' situations and also encouraged to play the role of the 'exotic other' according to the perceived dictates of 'the market.' In many instances Aboriginal people are now deciding that tourism is not something they wish to engage with, though that could change in the future if there came about a genuine commitment on the part of governments and private enterprise to demonstrate understanding of indigenous spiritual values and to involve Aboriginal people in a spirit of genuine partnership.

5.0 Summary

One cautious sign of optimism in the growing movement on the part of government to gazette large tracts of land as Indigenous Protected Areas within which indigenous people can carry out their traditional land management practices and deliver ecotourism services on their own terms (Smyth, 2001). The largest such area in the country, 98,000 square kilometres in the Gibson Desert/Great Sandy Desert region, has recently been declared in western Australia. Reconciliation between black and white Australia is one of the greatest challenges facing the country at the present time. Potentially, tourism has an important role to play in that process but only if it is planned in a context of genuine cooperation and respect. In this sense, arguably the most successful tourism ventures in Australia at the present time are not the high-profile, award-winning attractions such as Uluru and Tjapukai but the myriad small-scale, highly localized, indigenous-controlled enterprises where small groups of western tourists spend time in the bush being instructed by knowledgeable Aboriginal tour guides about 'caring for country,' deeply held spiritual beliefs, and the realities of contact history.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Discuss the significance of indigenous involvement and interaction with tourists and its impact in global tourism?

(ii) Identify and Explain five salient accomplishments of tourism in Australia or New Zealand?

7.0 References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) International visitors vary markedly in terms of their comprehension of, and sensitivity toward, Aboriginal culture. In particular, conflicts and misunderstandings can occur in relation to the hunting and killing of wildlife species such as kangaroos, emus, crocodiles, and turtles.

(ii) Relatedly, at the outset it is important to grasp that there is a wide spectrum of responses on the part of the country's indigenous population ranging from complete opposition at one extreme through a variety of co-management agreements with white Australians to a commitment to indigenous-controlled and run tourism enterprises.

UNIT 11   Tourism and sustainable development

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UNIT 11 Tourism and sustainable development
CONTENTS
1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

The world is changing and experiencing shifts in social values that affect the way we act as individuals, businesses, and governments.

In this unit, unlike in the foregoing units, we shall study wholly and some in part of the changes that are increasingly recognized in part that past growth and development have led to some serious negative impacts on the environment and tourism destinations and host nations.

Some have been highly visible, such as shrinking water supplies or homeless garbage barges, but others have crept up on us insidiously and still remain something of a mystery, like global warming, the depletion of the ozone layer, and the loss of biodiversity.

Such economic and environmental forces led many nations, companies, and individuals to the June 1992 United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development (UNCED Earth Summit) in Rio de Janeiro. There they attempted to address a controversial agenda designed to protect the Earth's environment and to foster less destructive industrialization and development that affect and influence tourism.

2.0 **OBJECTIVE**
At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
Understand the meaning of sustainable development in tourism
Explain why academic and government circle are major champions of sustainable tourism development
Define various tourism markets and factors responsible for its growth
Discuss the need for a renewed relationship with the environment and stakeholders
Understand that sustainable tourism development will involve a holistic management approach that requires integrated ecological, economic, and institutional research.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Tourism and sustainable development

3.1.1 Growth and Definition of Sustainable Development

The need for a renewed relationship with the environment and interest in sustainable development has been building over the past 30 years. In 1972 Danella and Dennis Meadows shook the world's complacency with their book *Limits to Growth* (1972). They argued the Earth's resources and ability to absorb pollution are finite.

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Using computer simulations, they predicted the Earth's population and development progress would experience physical constraints within a century. After this first warning came more research and deliberation into the long-term consequences of continued industry and population expansion. This led to the publication of the World Conservation Strategy by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 1980), which was one of the first reports to introduce the concept of sustainable development.

This was followed by the ***World Commission on Environment and Develop***ment (Brundtland Commission) Report in 1987, entitled ***Our Common Future*** *(WCED, 1987), which placed the concept of sustainable development at centre stage and promoted it as a vehicle for deliverance. The sustainable development concept is not new, but increasing pressures on the world's finite resources and environmental capacity have led to a more deliberate restatement of the philosophy, along with evolving guidelines to put it into practice.*

Our Common Future described <u>sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (WCED, 1987).</u> This is not very different from the view that we do not inherit the earth from our forefathers but borrow it from our children, and the old philosophy that something should be left for future generations. *<u>As such, sustainable development builds on the old principles of conservation and stewardship, but it offers a more proactive stance that incorporates continued economic growth in a more ecological and equitable manner</u>*. In this regard the opening definition above is supplemented with more specific implications and guidelines throughout the WCED report.

As was noted at the World Summit on Sustainable Development held in Johannesburg in 2002 (2002 Johannesburg Summit), 'progress in implementing sustainable development has been extremely disappointing since the 1992 Earth Summit, with poverty deepening and environmental degradation worsening' (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2002).

This lack of progress demonstrates that changing fundamental societal beliefs and expectations are not easy and that there are no magic steps to sustainable development.

However, conferences such as those held in Rio de Janeiro and in Johannesburg are valuable contributors to an ongoing process of reassessment and one in which tourism has become involved.

In particular, the 2002 Johannesburg Summit departed significantly from previous United Nations (UN) conferences in that although 'negotiations still received the lion's share of attention, the Summit also resulted in the launch of more than 300 voluntary partnerships, each of which will bring additional resources to support efforts to implement sustainable development.' (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2002).

Tourism's interest in sustainable development is logical given that it is one industry that sells the environment, both physical and human, as its product.

The integrity and continuity of these products have become a major concern of the industry as can be seen, for example, in The World Tourism Organization's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism and in Ecotourism Australia's Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program.

But more articulation of the issues and options needs to be undertaken before the concept of sustainable development can move further toward physical and economic reality. Over a decade there has been considerable academic and government interest in the concept of sustainable tourism development, but industry and consumers seem to have received less attention and to have been less vocal.

Most of the reports and discussion on sustainability and tourism have come from organizations and governments, anxious to preserve resources while developing their economies (see, for example, Environment Canada's Sustainable Development Strategy 2001–2003) and from academic research and writing as in the case of articles in the Much of this work has been concerned with policy issues, procedures, and implications with relatively little reference to the direct involvement and needs of the tourism industry and its principal clients, the tourists.

Where studies of the industry have taken place they have generally referred to successful case practices (Hawkes and Williams, 1993) or have been condensed into generic management guides (Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995). Apart from a growing number of convenience-based samples of ecotourists and a few consulting company omnibus surveys, we do not have a clear picture of the tourists' knowledge of, or commitment to, sustainable tourism development.

What is needed now in this area of tourism research and policy is a greater effort to link the academic and government interests in pursuing more sustainable tourism development with those of front-line practitioners (the industry) and the all-important client (the tourist).

If these groups could be encouraged to modify their perspectives and operate as an epistemic community—a community in which members 'share inter-subjective understandings; have shared patterns of reasoning; have a policy project drawing on shared causal beliefs and the use of shared discursive practices and have a shared commitment to the application and production of knowledge' (Cinquegrani, 2002), then we could anticipate more tangible progress regarding tourism and sustainable development.

Accordingly, after reviewing the growth and measurement of sustainable development to tourism this chapter will explore possible links and synergies between the works of academia and government on the one hand and the needs of industry and tourists on the other.

1	Establishing ecological limits and more equitable standards	Requires the promotion of values that encourage consumption standards that are within the bounds of the ecological possible and to which all can reasonably aspire.
2	Redistribution of economic activity and reallocation of resources	Meeting essential needs depends in part on achieving full growth potential and sustainable development clearly requires economic growth in places where such needs are not being met.'
3	Population control	Though the issue is not merely one of population size but of the distribution of resources, sustainable development can only be pursued if demographic developments are in harmony with the changing productive potential of the ecosystem.'
4	Conservation of basic resources	'Sustainable development must not endanger the natural systems that support life on Earth; the

9	Minimize adverse Impacts	'Sustainable development requires that the adverse impacts on the quality of air, water, and other natural elements are minimised so as to sustain the ecosystem's overall integrity.'
10	Community control	'Community control over development decisions affecting local ecosystems.'
11	Broad national/ international policy framework	The biosphere is the common home of all humankind kind and joint management of the biosphere is prerequisite for global political security.'
12	Economic viability	Corporate environmental policy is an extension of total quality management.'
13	Environmental Quality	Corporate environmental policy is an extension of total quality management.'
14	Environmental Audit	'An effective environmental audit system is at the heart of good environmental management.'
15	Triple bottom line	Economic prosperity, environmental quality and social justice.'

Figure 9.1. Source: Canadian tourism Board manual sec .023, 2006 p. 79

Various government levels and within business. The first nine components were extracted from the WCED report and formed the basis of Canada's early attempts to integrate this type of philosophy into its national policy (Canadian Environment Advisory Council, 1987).

Following the WCED report other writers and agencies have added to the list of components shown in **Figure 9.1. Source: Canadian tourism Board manual sec .023, 2006 p. 79**

This list is not designed to be exhaustive *but to illustrate the ongoing refinement of the concept of sustainable development and the increasing emphasis on its application.* It has been noted, for example, that the priority on maintaining ecological diversity and distributing more productivity to developing regions implies increased community control (Component l0), which in turn fosters increased regional self-reliance (Rees and Roseland, 1988).

Likewise, these two authors and Stanley (1992) maintain there is a need for more international agreements and business–government partnerships (Component 11) to direct national and individual actions. To the ecological limitations and social equity of the sustainable development philosophy must be added the concept of economic viability (Component 12) according to the British Columbia Round Table on the Environment and the Economy (1991).

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The business community and literature have been responding to the environmental–economic opportunities that exist within the 'greening' process over the past ten years or so. A minority of corporations are still in the early phase of responding to environmental problems as they arise. The majority of corporations has established systems and programmes to comply with the new regulations, but a further minority has moved 'beyond compliance' into a proactive mode of management. This evolutionary process is slowly leading to the complete integration of the environmental dimension into corporate strategic planning (Component 13).

To bring environmental considerations and sustainable development into the mainstream of corporate planning requires increased accountability and the environmental audit has been gaining credibility in this area. Hunt and Auster (1990) contend a 'strong auditing programme' is essential to successful proactive environmental management (Component 14). Elkington (1999) has bundled several of the earlier dimensions into his concept of triple bottom line accounting by adding environmental and social considerations to the more regular financial accounting concerns of modern business.

He notes the need to measure environmental impacts in terms of new metrics such as the life cycle impacts of products and potentially polluting emissions. Furthermore he recognises that 'if we fail to address wider political, social and ethical issues, the backlash will inevitably undermine progress in the environmental area' (Elkington, 1999). As noted above, from a temporal perspective, sustainable development should have both vertical and horizontal components.

The broadening of the definition to include consideration of the needs of future generations and of current social equity has produced a continuum of sustainability positions, a summary of which is shown in Figure 9.2.

The growing interest and support for sustainable development is not without its critics and skeptics. Some maintain that it is such a fuzzy concept that it may prove to be of little practical use in tackling the environmental issues that are emerging.

However, as Figure 9.1 illustrates, the short definition of sustainable development should be viewed only as a summary goal, and that from this has evolved a series of more specific objectives and methodologies.

Others consider that it is a passing fad, akin to the energy crises of the past. But this perception fails to acknowledge that evidence of environmental stress started more than 30 years ago, and instead of disappearing it has gradually increased to the point where admitted non-environmentalists are beginning to take notice.

One author who has addressed such skepticism and doubts is George Winter (1988) who developed a listing of pros and cons for 40 issues regarding the introduction of an integrated system of environmental business management.

Some authors have criticized the fundamentals of the concept of sustainable development itself, discussing the oxymoronic nature of the term (see, for example, Huckle, 1996) and claiming that 'sustainable' (with its steady-state implications) and 'development' (with its growth implications) are mutually exclusive (Page and Dowling, 2002).

According to Barkin (1996), the concept of sustainable development has created seemingly impossible goals for policy makers and development practitioners '. . . [since] present levels of per capita resource consumption in the richer countries cannot possibly be maintained much less generalized to people living in the rest of the world.' This theme has permeated much of the recent debate on sustainable development and has contributed to the advent of terms such as 'sustainability' and 'sustainable future,' possibly in attempts to avoid emphasizing the oxymoronic nature of the terms 'sustainable' and 'development.'

3.2.1 Relevance to Tourism

Tourism is reputed to be the world's largest industry with estimated revenues of *US$3.5 trillion and hiring one worker in nine worldwide in 1995 (World Travel and Tourism* Council, 1996) and with 663 million people spending at least one night in a foreign country in 1998 and with expectations that this figure will reach 1.6 billion by 2020 (World Tourism Organization, 1999). It is one industry that should be involved in sustainable development, because it 'is a resource industry, one which is dependent on nature's endowment and society's heritage' (Murphy, 1985).

Sustainability Position	Defining Characteristics
Very weak	Anthropocentric and utilitarian; growth orientated and resource exploitative; natural resources utilized at economically optimal rates through unfettered free markets operating to satisfy individual consumer choice; infinite substitution possible between natural and human-made capital; continued well-being assured through economic growth and technical innovation.
Weak	Anthropocentric and utilitarian; resource conservationist; growth is managed and modified; concern for distribution of development costs and benefits through intra- and intergenerational equity; rejection of infinite substitution between natural and human-made capital with recognition of some aspects of natural world as critical capital (e.g., ozone layer, some natural ecosystems); humanmade plus natural capital constant or rising through time; decoupling of negative environmental impacts from economic growth.
Strong	(Eco)systems perspective; resource preservationist; recognizes primary value of maintaining the functional integrity of ecosystems over and above secondary value through resource utilization; interests of the collective given more weight than those of the individual consumer; adherence to intra- and intergenerational equity; decoupling important but alongside a belief in a steady state economy as a consequence of following the constant natural assets rule; zero economic and human population growth.

Very strong	Bioethical and eco-centric; resource preservationist to the point where utilization of natural resources is minimized; nature's rights or intrinsic value in nature encompassing non-human living organisms and even abiotic elements under a literal interpretation of Gaianism; anti-economic growth and for reduced human population.

Fig. 9.4 Source: International Tourism Board, Ottawa 2007 p.56 Interpretation of Gaianism; anti-economic growth and for reduced human population.

Although the tourism industry is regarded as being kinder to the environment in general than most other industries, its very size and widespread presence has created negative environmental impacts, both of a physical and social nature, in certain locations that have led to demands for a more sustainable approach to tourism. An examination of this approach is appropriate.

3.3   Sustainable Tourism Development

Sustainable Tourism Development

Over the past 20 years or so tourism has become a major part of the discourse of sustainable development, which is not surprising given the magnitude and rate of expansion of the industry; the ecological, economic, social, and cultural impacts of tourism; and, as identified by the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, the potential for tourism to help the transition to sustainable development. It can be argued that the concept of sustainable tourism emerged from the recognition of the negative impacts of mass tourism and the sdsubsequent birth of 'green tourism' (Swarbrooke, 1999).

 According to Wight (1997), Tourism integration is illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 9.3, where Wight's three goals are seen to start to coalesce around community-based economics, conservation with equity, and integration of the environment with the economy. These, in turn, come together in the central goal of sustainable tourism. Within any discussion of sustainable tourism development, consideration should be given to the beneficiaries of sustainable development because of the diversity of interests involved (Cater, 1994). Platteau and Gaspart (2003) continued this theme, asserting that 'communities need to evolve and be institutionally strengthened if they are to achieve the objectives of the participatory approach [to sustainable development]: economic growth, democratic governance, sustainability, equity and protection of the poor. [A]s long as the grassroots are not sufficiently empowered through suitable training programs and processes aimed at making them aware of their rights and confident enough to assert them, benefits are likely to be largely preempted by local elites.' Identification of the various perspectives of sustainable development also needs to be included in the discourse of sustainable tourism development.

As was asserted by Cater (1994) 'what may appear to be sustainable from one point of view is unlikely to be so from another.' She further expressed the opinion that ecotourism and

sustainable development 'tend to be overworked terms, neatly co-opted by political and business interests to confer an aura of respectability to [sic] their activities,' agreeing with Rees (1990) that both might be 'a laboured excuse for not departing from continued economic growth.' Sisman (1994) also expressed a similar view, justifiably stating that 'it is surprising, post-Brundtland and post-Rio, just how many organizations have suddenly "discovered" that their policies can be made to "fit" the concept of sustainability simply by deciding their own benchmark.'

He advocated 'a working partnership that blends good environmental practice and profitable business for mutual long-term advantages' in the movement toward sustainability. Faulkner (2001) succinctly synthesised the various components of sustainable tourism, indicating that sustainable tourism development is a form of tourism that:

Currently global sustainable development and its sustainable tourism subset remain telic concepts, although effective sustainable practices might exist at a local level. Genuine sustainable development will not be reached with current global resource allocation and use. This assertion should not be seen as a refutation of the desirability of sustainable development, but rather that current practices such as the use of fossil fuels for transportation cannot be seen as sustainable. The mismatch between the theory and practice of sustainable development has produced a continuum of variants of sustainability and has elicited debate within the tourism industry and within academe on the extent to which the components of sustainable development should be applied to tourism.

Figure 9.4, illustrates the resultant continuum of views from light green variants to dark green variants.

Hunter (2002) demonstrates the range of sustainable tourism options that can and have been used, thus exposing the variety of interpretations used with this concept. Although there has been considerable debate on the concept of sustainable development, and on sustainable tourism as a consequence, relatively little attention appears to have been given to assessing sustainable practices. This is understandable given the difficulty of finding precise definitions of each, but the degree of successful implementation of principles needs to be ascertained if sound policy analysis is to occur. According to Pigram (1990),

If positive movement along the sustainable tourism continuum is to be achieved there is a need for an interdisciplinary focus, a 'consilience' of 'facts, and fact-based theory across disciplines to create a common groundwork for explanation' (Wilson, 1997). The need for a comprehensive approach also was recognised by Moldan and Billharz (1997) when they sought a common framework for comparative assessment of both problem recognition and progress made toward sustainable development. By the use of indicators they developed a comprehensive model, incorporating conflicting values, interests, and spatial and time horizons in relation to sustainable development assessment. Faulkner (2001) extended this notion to sustainable tourism development, asserting that investigation of sustainable tourism development 'requires an interdisciplinary approach, involving a balanced approach to the examination and evaluation of the social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism.' Tisdell and Wen (1997) argued that caution should be applied to the use of indicators in the assessment of progress toward sustainability. Although recognising that the attainment of sustainable tourism is a worthy goal, they asserted that: the concepts involved are often quite complex and are interpreted in a variety of ways. For this reason alone, one needs to be cautious when employing these concepts. . . . They must, at least, be supplemented by

deeper analysis to decide whether a tourist development is going to showlong-term sustainability.

3.4   Dimensions of Sustainable Tourism Development

Dimensions of Sustainable Tourism Development
It is apparent from the previous discussion that sustainable development is a complex and multidimensional concept and that tourism, as a component of the process, will reflect this diversity.

Seven major dimensions that reflect the general multidimensionality and interdisciplinary concerns can be discerned within the various considerations of sustainable tourism development.

(i) The first dimension noted is the need for ***resource management,*** for in this crowded world with diminishing resources little can be left to chance.

(ii) Second, such management needs to reaffirm that tourism is an ***economic*** **activity**, which must be capable of making a profit in order to survive and benefit the community. This is the point Porter (1991) and others have made when they say environmental legislation must leave room for individual employment and economic well being to operate within the ecological parameters.

(iii)The third dimension points out the need to fulfill social obligations. This means more than intergenerational equity; it means respect for other livelihoods and customs. Such variety and heritage is a major resource for tourism in a world that is fast becoming homogenised into a global economy.

(iv)A major component of environment and culture is their ***aesthetic*** **appeal.** Although the focus has often been on international markers such as world-renowned heritage sites, the aesthetic qualities of regular townscapes and general landscapes should not be overlooked.

(v) All the earlier mentioned needs should be addressed within ***ecological parameters*** to sustain both the physical and human environment. Conservation of cultural legacies should not be ignored. The ecological process needs to be understood so that tourism intrusions will have the minimal impact, especially in sensitive areas like shorelines, mountains, and wetlands.

(vi)The concern over maintaining our ***biological diversity*** is particularly germane to tourism which thrives on the appeal of different flora and fauna along with a distinctive sense of place.

(vii)   Finally, the need to sustain **our basic life support systems** is paramount. If these basic needs are not met, then our higher level and discretionary needs like travel will fail to materialize.

3.5   **Holistic Approach to Tourism**
As in the real world, all of the previously mentioned dimensions are interrelated. This means any sustainable tourism development will involve a holistic management approach that requires integrated ecological, economic, and institutional research. Because this is a major research undertaking, some thought has been given already to categorizing the scope of the problem and prioritizing the research questions. In 1985 Murphy proposed an ecological model for tourism research and development. This model demonstrated the need to consider tourism as an ecological function that involved different community scales of emphasis and a

balance between resident (individuals and business) and visitor (tourist and tourist industry) needs. Taylor and Stanley (1992) recommended a matrix of research priorities based on scale and time considerations (Figure 9.5). All scales are relevant and interrelated in an ecological sense, but the pressures and issues will vary at each level. Some research questions are considered to be more pressing and have been placed under the 'now' category whereas others are either less urgent or are logical secondary steps. As Taylor and Stanley (1992) observed, all research should have a monitoring function to observe changes over time and be able to identify adjustment strategies where needed.

3.6   Measurement Issues

Measurement Issues

Although it is relatively easy to conceptualize and to proselytize about the needs for sustainable tourism development, it is far more challenging to develop an effective, yet practical, measurement process. An important issue in the Taylor–Stanley matrix is establishing the carrying capacity levels, 'the ability of a given environment to accommodate particular activities without suffering significant and irreversible damage' (Owens and Cowell, 1996) for tourism in a variety of locales and circumstances.

Initially the notion of an objective, scientific determination of an area's carrying capacity was appealing to tourism managers. However, the recognition that carrying capacity is a social construct involving a complex interplay of economic, environmental, political, and social forces means that the concept has been used little in practice (Wearing and Neil, 1999).

Further, the point of view that consideration of environmental disturbance 'must be augmented by consideration of human values' (Wagar, 1964) has expanded in recent times. For example, Middleton and Hawkins (1998) asserted that carrying capacity must take into account 'factors such as tourists' behavioural patterns, facility design and management, the dynamic character of the environment and the changing attitudes of the host community.' The literature on this subject shows carrying capacity techniques have been applied in a variety of circumstances, often clarifying and confirming levels of suspected environmental or social stress, but they leave open to discussion what it all signifies and what policy should be undertaken.

A major difficulty is that carrying capacity implies the existence of fixed and determinable limits to development and that if one stays below those threshold levels no changes or deterioration will occur. We now appreciate that all changes and modifications to the environment have an incremental effect, so some degree of change must be acknowledged and accounted for at all developmental stages.

As a consequence of this recognition, several alternative approaches to the original carrying capacity concept have emerged in recent years, notably the limits of acceptable change (LAC) (Stankey, et al., 1995), (Wearing and Neil, 1999), ecological footprint analysis (EFA), and (Gössling, et al., 2002). According to Sun and Walsh (1998), 'the LAC approach is based on decisions regarding how much change is acceptable to users and managers.

The VIM system highlights the importance of judgmental consideration in identifying management actions.' This LAC approach, according to Wearing and Neil (1999), involves both resource managers and stakeholders in:

• Identifying acceptable and achievable social and resource standards,

• Documenting gaps between desirable and existing circumstances,

• Identifying management actions to close these gaps, and

• Monitoring and evaluating management effectiveness. **VIM principles, according to Wearing and Neil (1999) are:**

• Identifying unacceptable changes occurring as a result of visitor use and developing management strategies to keep visitor impacts within acceptable levels;

• Integrating visitor impact management into existing agency planning,
design, and management processes; • Basing visitor impact management on the best scientific understanding
and situational information available;

• Determining management objectives that identify the resource condition to be achieved and the type of recreation experience to be provided;

• Identifying visitor impact problems by comparing standards for acceptable conditions with key indicators of impact at designated times and locations;

• Basing management decisions, to reduce impacts or maintain acceptable conditions, on knowledge of the probable sources of, and interrelationships between, unacceptable impacts;

• Addressing visitor impacts using a wide range of alternative management techniques; and

• **Formulating visitor management objectives**, which incorporate a range of acceptable impact levels, to accommodate the diversity of environments and experience opportunities present within any natural setting. Although LAC and VIM principles might be applied relatively effectively at the local level, they have limited applicability on a global scale. Gössling and colleagues (2002) argued that LAC and VIM focus on changes occurring in the local environment, largely ignoring the global consequences of travel. . . . 'Existing concepts are thus insufficient to make clear statements about the sustainability of particular forms of travel or the sustainability of certain destinations.' Gössling and associates (2002) have made a contribution to the evaluation of the environmental impacts of tourism through their EFA, a concept that uses space equivalents to calculate the appropriation of biologically productive area by individuals or nations. As has been claimed, '[t]he idea of the concept is to compare the area required to support a certain lifestyle with the area available, thus offering an instrument to assess if consumption is ecologically sustainable' (Gössling, et al., 2002). However, despite the value of this contribution to the quest for global sustainability, there are problems with the operationalization of the EFA concept. For example, although the environmental impact of air travel has been widely recognized (Wackernagel and Rees, 1996), the conclusion of Gössling and colleagues (2002) that 'air travel should . . . be actively discouraged' is unlikely to be implemented and, therefore, is unlikely to have any significant impact on atmospheric pollution levels.

Carrying capacity, LAC, VIM, and EFA processes examine the sustainable tourism issue from the supply side of the tourism experience, but if tourism is to be a sustainable economic proposition it cannot ignore its customers. Hence, more thought is now being applied to the demand implications of sustainable tourism development, specifically the benefits visitors are seeking and the marketing strategies that can be applied to service both the customer and the host, part of which is tourist and resident education to increase carrying capacity (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000). This contention is in accord with that of McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie (1995) who asserted that '[t]ourists have responsibilities and must be educated as to their obligations and responsibilities to contribute to socially and environmentally responsible tourism.' Murphy and Pritchard (1997) examined a model of consumers' perceived value and applied it to a tourist destination. They found that tourists had concerns about quality and price common to all consumers, but their value perceptions also varied by origin (comparison base) and season of visit (different site conditions).

Hence, one can see the tourist demand for sustainable tourism development is likely to be multidimensional and culturally conditioned. The modern interpretation of marketing has moved beyond simply promoting and selling to take into account the long-term management goals of companies and organizations. In some cases this now includes marketing to reduce consumption, as with utility companies, or to recycle, as with beverage companies.

In a tourism context we see more evidence of attractions explaining to customers why certain areas are temporarily closed or out of bounds. The broader view is provided by Mill and Morrison (1985) who noted that tourism marketing is 'a management philosophy, which in light of tourist demand, makes it possible through research, forecasting and selection to place tourism products on the market most in line with an organization's purpose for the greatest benefit.' Such a definition has particular relevance to a sustainable development strategy.

It makes marketing part of a more general management strategy and it supports the notion that marketing should balance the tourists' needs with those of the host organization. Market research will help to identify which tourism niche is most appropriate from a business and environmental viewpoint. It can indicate a destination or business' position in the product life cycle, which could guide future marketing and development strategies. An essential element in market research designed to assist in sustainable development initiatives is the need to monitor visitor patterns and satisfaction. Monitors are needed on an annual and seasonal basis, because the volume and type of visitor activity can vary significantly over these periods. A demonstration project on Vancouver Island, British Columbia, revealed that a basic monitoring of visitors could be achieved efficiently and at low cost through industry–destination partnerships (Murphy, 1992).

3.7   Various Tourism Markets

Various Tourism Markets
There is a wide variety of tourist types within the tourism market today, so much so that the term 'average tourist' has become irrelevant (Murphy, 1985). One type of tourist that has generated a lot of interest among those supporting sustainable development is the 'alternative tourist,' described by Krippendorf (1987) as those who 'try to establish more contact with the local population, try to do without the tourist infrastructure and use the same accommodation and transport facilities as the natives.' Such travellers are considered desirable market niches for those communities that are unable or unwilling to accommodate mass tourism, and they are perceived as being worthy targets because they are small in number yet often well

educated and wealthy. This would appear to be a perfect match for those areas where carrying capacity could become an issue and where the host community wished to control the size of the industry. However, alternative tourism has been criticised as being elitist and spreading tourism to areas that are not yet spoiled by tourism. One who has issued such a warning is Butler (1990). He noted that in a free society and in a highly fragmented industry it is difficult to control the numbers and types of tourist admitted to an area. Butler suggested that:

Butler illustrates this by noting the intimate contact described by Krippendorf can become a social burden over time, as privacy is lost and there is nowhere to retreat from the tourist gaze. Similarly the 'backwoods' penetration by such visitors can do more environmental harm over time to these areas than the controlled mass tourism, which permits distant viewing only.

What host communities need to focus on is the type or types of tourism they wish to attract and can accommodate over the long term. As Jones (1992) observed, 'some of the clues and solutions from alternative tourism can be used to inform and advise policy and practice in the development and management of mass tourism.' Many of the observations relating to alternative tourism apply to one subset that appears particularly germane to the sustainable development movement—ecotourism.

Ecotourism is based on the principles of being nature based, contributing to the quest for sustainability, being environmentally educative, and bringing local benefits (Price and Murphy, 2000).

As such, ecotourists are champions of the environment and sustainable development. In Australia a joint initiative of Ecotourism Australia and the Australian Tourism Operators Network has resulted in the Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP) which is designed to provide a range of benefits for nature tourism operators, ecotourism operators, consumers, protected area managers, and local communities, as shown in Figure 9.6. Such schemes are relatively easy to initiate when parties have the same goals and the numbers involved are small, but they also provide hope and direction to the application of similar strategies to a broader cross-section of the tourism industry. In the final analysis, however, 'the most crucial contribution that applied research can make toward sustainable tourism is to show rather than say what this involves' (Sadler, 1992). As we have seen there are a growing number of advocates, sufficient paradigms, and some basic measurement techniques that should now be put into practice in order to demonstrate the feasibility of all this rhetoric. This too will be a slow process given the variety and complexity of the topic.

Tourism must acknowledge also that it is not the only industry with a resource claim. In most communities there will be competition and conflict over the resources tourism desires. 'For tourism to survive sustainability, it must take a proactive leadership role in addressing the difficult challenges of integrating the needs of all user groups' (McKercher, 1993).

Tourism should be ideally suited for a leadership role in sustainable development given its multidimensional nature and private–public sector duality. Initiation of this role should be the next logical step in the evolution of sustainable tourism development, but to do so the various tourism stakeholders must pull together as an epistemic community.

3.8 Integration of Sustainable Development Principle

Academic and government circles have been the major champions of sustainable tourism development, but if they are to be more proactive in their leadership they need to spread the word to a larger audience. Many feel the case has been made for the integration of sustainable development principles into future tourism management as illustrated by a recent article in (Manning and Dougherty, 1995).

But the concept's complexity and its diverse operational requirements can be overwhelming to nons-pecialists. Recognition of this fact has led the World Tourism Organization (WTO) to develop simplified guides for practitioners (Consulting and Audit Canada, 1995) and basic planning steps (Inskeep and Kallenberger, 1992). Various government and private sector agencies and academics have developed general codes of conduct to guide businesses toward more sustainable practices
such as the previously discussed NEAP in Australia. Furthermore, the development of government–industry cooperation is on the rise, as demonstrated by the focus of the Australian state Victoria's Strategic Tourism Plan 2002–2006, which has a clearly expressed emphasis on government– industry initiation and implementation of sustainable tourism development. These advances are evidence that government and academics are striving to broaden and simplify the sustainable tourism message and to offer some practical suggestions. However, it must be a message that diverse groups and interests are willing to heed. Individual tourism businesses, like any other business, are often skeptical about government and academic messages that may reduce their economic viability.

However, the industry leaders do recognise that long-term economic viability is intimately tied to a healthy physical and social environment. Evidence of this form of thinking can be seen in Swinth and Raymond's (1995) examination of the sports fishing industry on Yellowstone Lake. They found the development of an ecosystems management approach involving all principal stakeholders, along with an ongoing monitoring process, had saved this sports fishing attraction from the potential oblivion of the old free market economic system. More owners and managers now appreciate the dictum that every tourist business 'needs to sell the destination first and its business second' if it is to survive and prosper. This results in a more proactive interest in the physical and social well being of all destination types. Kavallinis and Pizam (1994) found that tourism entrepreneurs on the Greek island of Mykonos were aware of the negative environmental impacts tourism was creating and were prepared to accept their share of the responsibility. But it was also difficult to separate out the industry's individual responsibility from that of the local residents and actual tourists. So once again it would require intergroup acknowledgement and consensus to initiate a sustainable development approach. In terms of sustainable tourism development, the consumer is often equated with ecotourists and the natural environment.

This is an extremely narrow view of the potential tourist interest in sustainable tourism, because it has elitist overtones and will restrict support to a relatively small, albeit growing, market segment. It ignores the fact that exploration of ecosystems involves human habitats as well as natural ones (Murphy, 1985), and as Hall (1994) has pointed out, many of the so-called natural landscapes can seldom be separated from the cultural and economic forces that formed them.

For sustainable tourism to have the level of support it needs from the consumer, its appeal and relevance must be expanded beyond the ecotourist. There is growing evidence that the often-belittled mass tourist is showing increased interest in the local environment and social/cultural customs of their destinations. Hanauma Bay, a popular marine park just

outside of Waikiki, has been overwhelmed by tourists, yet these same mass tourists have indicated their willingness to pay fees and accept limits on numbers in order to reduce the crowding and preserve the attraction of this site (Mak and Moncur, 1995).

Most resorts now include the opportunity to see local culture and history in their offerings, and as the market continues to mature there will be a greater need to supplement beach and nightclub activities with more outdoor recreation and educational trips into the local area.

3.9   Bringing Stakeholders Together

Bringing Stakeholders Together
If sustainable tourism development is to move from the pages of academic papers and government reports into the marketplace, it will be necessary to bring the industry and tourist stakeholders more extensively into the discussion and operationalization of this concept. To bring about such a unity of purpose and action, sustainable tourism needs to market the concept more effectively and develop a 'more appropriate matching of markets with products' (Wight, 1993).

Evidence of this can be seen in Ballantine and Eagles' (1994) examination of safari ecotourists in Africa. 'The only dissatisfaction this group found with their trip is a need for more information on conservation issues. This suggests a weakness in the interpretation programmes . . . [and] a strong interest and dedication to education about conservation issues by the tourists.' In Australia, recognition of the need to improve interpretation programmes has led to EcoGuide Certification, an industry-driven program designed to provide a number of benefits including (Ecotourism Australia, 2003):

• Certified guides who gain the advantage of an industry credential and a pathway to nationally recognized formal qualifications that will provide a defined competitive edge;

• Operators who gain a simple method of recognising quality guides, a benchmark to use for training purposes and greater product appeal through employing and promoting the use of bona fide nature and ecotour guides;

• Both guides and operators who gain an opportunity to promote guiding services as genuine nature tourism or ecotourism, providing a competitive edge for these niche markets;

• Visitors who gain a guarantee of guides who are committed to providing quality nature tourism and ecotourism experiences in a safe, culturally sensitive, and environmentally sustainable manner;

• Environmental benefits that flow from improved guiding practices that lead to fewer negative environmental and cultural impacts; • Training providers who gain a benchmark of best practice nature and ecotour guiding; and

• A potential advantage for protected area managers, which is the ability to identify operators who employ staff with appropriate training and qualifications when reviewing permit applications in sensitive areas. The type of marketing needed is one that emphasizes education and communication along with the sales dimension. Wight (1994) correctly calls for 'the environmentally responsible marketing of tourism' and wants it to go beyond the green labelling of ecotourism to incorporate ethics and codes of practice. To go beyond the

selling focus of green labeling involves marketing that stresses the synergistic qualities between a tourist's interest and visit with the product's survival and enhancement.

Kotler (1988) has been one of those market researchers who has demonstrated that marketing is about more than selling. It is in fact a communications tool as expressed through its public relations function. It is now recognized as an important business component for the nonprofit sector as well, assisting in its survival and development strategies (Kotler and Andreasen, 1991).

Self Assessment Questions

(i) Should tourist demand for sustainable tourism development be viewed as towards multi-dimensional and or culturally conditioned, Discuss ?
(ii) Could there be any relevant details in marketing impact of its development strategy?

4.0 Summary

Linking the various stakeholder groups together via marketing communications can help to sell the concept of sustainable tourism and its individual products through the element of education. Just as Disney and its numerous imitators have packaged entertainment and education, so sustainable tourism should strive to combine quality experiences with education.
For some tourists, such as eco-tourists, it will mean detailed explanation and exposure to the site or activity. But these would be relatively few in number compared with those tourists who would be satisfied with a simple explanation and a 'staged' representation of the cultural or natural phenomenon. In either case the industry and governments now have a responsibility to inform tourists about their destinations and an opportunity to enhance tourists' 'sense of place' through quality interpretation and carefully designed tours and facilities. For the past three decades, it appears , the need for considering sustainable tourism management has increased.

5.0 Conclusion
The tourism industry has increased in size, while the world's resource base has remained static or declined and there has been growing competition for those resources. However, the message about sustainable tourism seems to remain largely trapped in an academic–government loop, although some industry–client initiatives are evident. This is caused in part by the relatively complex and comprehensive nature of the concept, which needs to be broken down into more manageable components and scales if it is to be adopted and appreciated on a broader scale. This process is underway already, as indicated by the efforts of the WTO.
Some individuals and organizations are beginning to spread the message that sustainable tourism involves a combination of experience, entertainment, and education. Such a change of emphasis will require more effective marketing, a marketing focus that communicates and educates to bring the major stakeholders together in a practical forum of sustainable tourism development.

It is to be hoped that via such strategies the message of sustainable tourism development will reach the front lines, where it needs to be implemented. Large-scale tourism is a fact of life

and the problems caused by, and associated with, tourism need to be ameliorated as quickly as possible. Although sustainable tourism development on a global scale remains a telic concept, the journey toward the goal of sustainability is vital for current and future economic, ecological, and socio-cultural well being.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Explain what you understand by global dimensional tourism development?

(ii) What resource management is involved and utilized?

(iii) Identify and discuss contemporary measurement inherent issues involved in tourism and how they can be resolved?

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Answer to self Assessment Questions

(i) Tourist demand for sustainable tourism development is likely to be multidimensional and culturally conditioned. The modern interpretation of marketing has moved beyond simply promoting and selling to take into account the long-term management goals of companies and organizations. In some cases this now includes marketing to reduce consumption, as with utility companies, or to recycle, as with beverage companies. In a tourism the broader view is provided by tourism marketing as management philosophy, which in light of tourist demand, makes it possible through research, forecasting and selection to place tourism products on the market most in line with an organization's purpose for the greatest benefit.' Such a definition has particular relevance to a sustainable development strategy.

(ii) It makes marketing part of a more general management strategy and it supports the notion that marketing should balance the tourists' needs with those of the host organization. Market research will help to identify which tourism niche is most appropriate from a business and environmental viewpoint. It can indicate a destination or business' position in the product life cycle, which could guide future marketing and development strategies. An essential element in market research designed to assist in sustainable development initiatives is the need to monitor visitor patterns and satisfaction.

UNIT 12 Addressing carrying capacity issues in tourism destinations through growth management

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UNIT 12   Addressing carrying capacity issues in tourism destinations through growth management

CONTENT

1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

There is widespread acknowledgment of the potentially damaging relationship between increasing numbers of tourists and the escalated degradation of many tourism destinations (Hunter and Green, 1995). Embodied in this relationship is the concept of carrying capacity, which suggests an approach to management that permits growth within acceptable limits (Johnson and Thomas, 1996).

In this unit, we shall closely study the tourism carrying capacity management and foundation on tourist and recreational activities.

Consequently it is not surprising that it has been intuitively supported by land-use planners and resource managers in many tourism regions. Despite its seemingly clear and rational intent, the actual implementation of carrying capacity management strategies has met with ongoing controversy and frustration.

On the one hand, the concept of carrying capacity appeals to a recognised need to limit and control those dimensions of tourism development that may threaten the sustained use of limited resources. Simultaneously, it runs at odds with other desires for maximising opportunities for growth and realising the potential benefits associated with increased visitor use. As a more practical and viable alternative to the concept of carrying capacity management, this unit recommends the application of growth management planning approaches for addressing development issues in tourism destinations.

2.0 **OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Know what tourism carrying capacity management & developing guiding vision meant

Understand the use of new management direction in tourism development

Identify the underlying key objectives of growth management system in tourism

Discuss growth management plan strategy in sustainable tourism

Explain the important tools for monitoring and evaluation concept in tourism

3.0 **MAIN CONTENT**

3.1 Tourism Carrying Capacity Management

Tourism Carrying Capacity Management

Varying perspectives on carrying capacity as a tourism management tool exist. In its most traditional sense, the concept refers to the maximum number of tourists or tourist use that can be accommodated within a specified geographic destination (O'Reilly, 1986). As such, it conjures up images of a specified 'limit,' 'ceiling,' or 'threshold' that tourism development should not exceed.

In a North American context, most strategies to manage tourism growth have been in controlled recreation settings such as parks and river corridors (Eagles and McCool, 2002). Some European efforts have focussed on the control of tourism expansion especially in the Alps (Godde, Price, and Zimmerman, 2000), while the management of such growth has been attempted along stretches of the Mediterranean shoreline and nearby islands (Inskeep and Kallenberger, 1992) and to a lesser extent in some Caribbean destinations (McElroy and de Albuquerque, 1996). These studies and others propose a wide variety of carrying capacity 'ceilings' that describe optimum or benchmark thresholds for tourism development in volume, density, or market-mix terms (Inskeep, 1997). Difficulties with these numerical carrying capacity limits arise when efforts are made to link them directly to the management of specific tourism impacts. Little evidence exists to suggest that by simply changing a specified carrying capacity limit, predictable changes in tourist impact will happen. Instead, the key appears to lie in how tourism use and its associated changes are managed. From an environmental perspective carrying capacity management involves maintaining a balance between physical/ecological and visitor requirements associated with a destination area.

In this context it refers to 'the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by visitors' (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). This implies some prior designation of preferred or desired conditions on which levels of acceptable tourism impact can be judged. For others, tourism carrying capacity is market driven (Plog, 1991).

Critical carrying capacity thresholds occur when tourist numbers approach levels that strain the capability of the destination to provide quality tourist experiences. Key indicators of encroachment on such capacity ceilings have traditionally been related to identifiable changes in market demand. Any number of physical, economic, social, environmental, psychological, or political reasons can trigger tourist apathy toward a destination. However, it is frequently assumed that when visitor perceptions of desired on-site conditions are not met, declines in tourist demand occur.

Depending on the preferred conditions established by destination decision makers, actions may be taken to expand the ability of a destination to absorb tourism and rejuvenate visitor interest in the destination, or conversely constrain further development activities. From a social perspective, carrying capacity refers to a destination's ability to absorb tourism without unacceptable negative effects being felt by local residents (Ap and Crompton, 1998; Anderdeck and Vogt, 2000).

Levels at which inappropriate impacts occur are dependent on values determined by the community as opposed to the visitor. Identifying these values in a tourism destination

requires considerable consensus building amongst community stakeholders (e.g., residents, developers, operators, governments).

From a carrying capacity management perspective it involves identifying the desired conditions for a destination area, and deciding how to effectively manage tourism toward those ends. It is also important to recognise that community perspectives on desired conditions may change over time and in response to different planning and management approaches (Martin and Uysal, 1990; Butler, 1997). Consequently, a regular review of what is considered to be desirable and acceptable is a critical part of managing tourism from a community perspective.

3.1.1 New Management Directions

Carrying capacity management's traditional focus on attempting to determine explicit use limits has made it a particularly difficult tool to use in a tourism management context. There appear to be too many limiting factors that hamper its use. In particular, the concept has not been fully operationalised because of:

• Unrealistic expectations (i.e., a technique exists that can provide a magic number that identifies 'how much is too much'),

• Untenable assumptions (i.e., a direct relationship between tourism use and impact exists),

• Inappropriate value judgments (i.e., conflicts between the views of 'experts' as opposed to destination stakeholders concerning what conditions are appropriate for an area), and

 • Insufficient legal support (i.e., the lack of a formally recognised institutional process to ensure management strategies are implemented and enforced) (Gill and Williams, 1994). However, those aspects of the concept that focus on establishing desired conditions or outcomes appear to have practical value for the management of tourism destinations. This is particularly the case if they can be incorporated into broader planning processes associated with sustainable development and growth management.

 When applied within planning systems that focus on managing growth for desirable and acceptable change, some components of the carrying capacity management concept offer potential. Knowledge of the consequences of exceeding desired impacts can be used to direct management policies and practices in keeping with a more sustainable tourism (Manidis Roberts Consultants, 1997). This implies the development of management guidelines that support forms of tourism that emphasise:

• Architectural character and style sensitive to an area's heritage and environment (Dorward, 1990);

• Preservation, protection, and enhancement of heritage and environmental resource quality (Bosselman, Peterson, and McCarthy, 1999); and

• Improvement to the quality of local populations' lives (Lama, 2000).

3.1.2 Growth Management Systems

The challenges of managing growth are especially apparent in tourism destinations. Here there are frequently several groups often with divergent views concerning growth options. They include tourists, developers, local residents, existing and proposed business operators, and the public agencies responsible for managing the environment within which all groups must operate.

Depending on the specific circumstances of a community (e.g., stage of tourism development, community economic conditions, or past tourist–resident encounters), the needs of one group may take precedent over those of the others in growth management decisions (Price, Moss, and Williams, 1997).

It is not uncommon, for example, to see the needs of the tourist and developer take priority over the requirements of community residents during early stages of development. Although in the short term this helps stimulate growth, long-term sustainability of the tourism industry may suffer if the quality of life of residents who require affordable housing, schools, and community facilities is not adequately addressed.

However, once most of the tourism infrastructure is in place, the role of the developer may diminish and the needs of local residents and visitors may take precedence. The real possibility of such changes in priorities is what makes the establishment of fixed long-term capacity limits a particularly challenging task, and creates the need for a more flexible, systems-based approach to managing tourism growth. In a growth management systems context, notions of carrying capacity are linked to the 'desired conditions' that best meet the goals of the area being managed.

Although sensitively managing an area's unique natural and cultural resources is often central to a destination's competitive advantage in the tourism marketplace, the resource base does not determine carrying capacity. Rather it is a function of the management goals and objectives established by the community's stakeholders. If their main objective is to stabilise population growth patterns in the community, tourism's capability to contribute to that objective becomes the key growth management concern. Indicators of population stabilisation might include changes in emigration and migration levels, age, and gender structure.

If job creation is identified as the community's priority objective, then indicators of the types of employment to be generated (e.g., seasonal, year round, front line, supervisory, management) by tourism development become the growth management focus. The establishment of goals and objectives determines which indicators of change become the focus of growth management and monitoring.

General goals give broad direction to the planning and management of the mountain conditions desired. Objectives offer more precise statements of the mechanisms by which the desired conditions are achieved. A general goal might be to manage the rate and quality of mountain development in order to achieve and maintain a diversified community economy.

Objectives associated with this might include monitoring agricultural and tourism development to determine whether an appropriate balance between these two land uses is

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being maintained, or managing residential reserve areas in an attempt to ensure that employee housing supply keeps pace with this demand.

A suggested systems approach to incorporating desired destination community conditions into practical growth management practices involves:

• Developing tourism goals and objectives that mesh with the broader comprehensive plan for the destination,

• Establishing a set of performance indicators reflecting the expected objectives of tourism development,

• Implementing management strategies that direct tourism toward the achievement of the stated goals and objectives,

• Monitoring the performance of tourism development with respect to these indicators, • Evaluating the effectiveness of the management strategies in influencing the performance of tourism with respect to these indicators, and

• Developing refined and/or new tactics for managing tourism based on the effectiveness of these techniques (Getz, 1982). The growth management systems approach offers a distinct perspective in that it:

• Involves no identification of an ultimate limit to the number of visitors,

• Relates tourism growth and development to its effect on destination goals and objectives,

• Employs indicators of desired conditions to trigger either the implementation or adjustment to growth management strategies, and

• Reviews and modifies goal and objective priorities as destination circumstances change.

3.1.3   Growth Management Planning

In a North American context, carrying capacity concerns can be incorporated into the comprehensive planning agendas of most tourism destinations. A key to the success of such initiatives are growth management plans. Based on a destination's ability to articulate a vision of what community conditions and expansion rates it would like to encourage, growth management plans offer a potentially useful 'guidance system' for implementing that vision. These plans typically include policy statements, capital budgets, and specific improvement programmes that guide decision making concerning tourism expansion.

Practical instruments to support identified programmes encompass public investment strategies, land-use regulations, and fiscal incentives or disincentives (Schiffman, 1989). They go beyond strictly land-use planning by incorporating control mechanisms influencing tourism and other activities within the destination. Many tourism-dependent communities (e.g., Aspen/Pitkin County, Colorado; Jackson Hole, Wyoming; Park City, Utah; Sanibel Island, Florida; Languedoc-Rousillon, France; S'Agaro, Spain; Niagara-on-the- Lake, Ontario; and Bermuda) exhibit varying aspects of comprehensive growth management plans

(Bosselman, Peterson, and McCarthy, 1999). However, there appear to be few comprehensive applications of these approaches.

Whistler, British Columbia, exhibits many of what may be considered 'state of the art' growth management planning practices within its destination planning programmes. Because of its incorporation of many of the best practices occurring in other tourism destination jurisdictions, and its ongoing experimentation with such strategies, its approach to growth management is discussed here.

3.1.4 *Growth Management Context*

Whistler is located 120 kilometres from Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. Nestled in the Pacific Range of the Coast Mountains, the municipality encompasses an area of 12,630 hectares. Within its boundaries are found six high quality lakes, several environmentally sensitive natural areas, a variety of parks and recreation sites, an architecturally-themed and visitor-focussed commercial village, surrounding clusters of residential accommodation, as well as some limited industrial lands.

Dominating the skyline of this fully incorporated resort municipality are two of North America's most highly rated and largest ski mountains, Blackcomb (2284 metres) and Whistler (2182 metres). In 2001–2002, the full time population of Whistler was approximately 9700 residents. In that same year about 14,200 employees were needed to provide services to residents and the destination's annual inflow of 2 million tourists. The vast majority of these tourists were housed in Whistler's substantial stock of commercial hotel, condominium, bed and breakfast, and campground accommodations (13,770 bed units).

In addition, these visitors were able to access the area's wide array of retail outlets, food/restaurant establishments, and bars (120,000 square metres) located primarily in the Whistler's village core (Resort Municipality of Whistler, 2003). Whistler has evolved from a small, water-focused summer recreation area in the 1960s, to a dynamic four-season mountain tourism destination in 2003. Its evolution to this state has been marked by several critical planning events.

A special act of government incorporated the nascent destination as the Resort Municipality of Whistler (RMOW) in 1975. At that time the first Official Community Plan was established. The Whistler Village Land Company (WVLC), a wholly owned subsidiary of the RMOW, was established in 1978 to guide the development of a new village core. This placed control over the rate and direction of growth largely in the hands of the RMOW's elected Council. The Council's philosophy and intent with respect to growth was clear: to achieve the goal of creating a mountain destination of international calibre.

Significant facility and amenity expansion designed to meet the demands of tourists was encouraged and approved. However, the RMOW's plans and activities were derailed in the early 1980s, when a severe recession led to the bankruptcy and eventual restructuring of the destination's governance. As part of this restructuring process, the British Columbia government took back development control of all provincially owned lands and facilities in Whistler's village core. This served to reduce the level of community input into Whistler's development, and led to an unprecedented level of tourism facility expansion.

To reach the critical mass needed to have an impact in the marketplace, minimize taxation effects, support wide range of resort amenities, and recover the large public investments in

infrastructure incurred prior to and during the recession period, rapid growth in Whistler was stimulated by the provincial government.

As a result of these activities, by the mid 1980s, Whistler was firmly established as a major ski destination in North America. However, there was a growing recognition that this expansion was beginning to occur at a cost to other values in the destination. Concerns over an uncertain vision of the eventual size of the resort, the protection of the quality of the environment, and the overall ability of the destination's infrastructure to handle the ever-growing levels of tourism traffic led to the development of the RMOW's first Comprehensive Development Plan (CDP) in 1988. The plan became the RMOW's policy statement and strategic guide for future development of the destination. As such, it subsequently influenced the direction and content of the RMOW's development regulations as expressed in the Official Community Plan and related by-laws.

In the process of creating the CDP, the resolution of other issues emerged as being critical to Whistler's long-term success. These concerns evolved around determining the best approaches for developing the facilities and services that would permit Whistler to achieve its all-season tourism destination status, as well as how the destination would go about providing housing and community-oriented services for a growing permanent and seasonal labour force vital to the resort's operation.

Recognizing the need for Whistler to have the additional summer facilities and services necessary for a truly competitive all-season resort destination, the CDP encouraged additional accommodation and related commercial development in Whistler. These expansions effectively boosted Whistler's overall accommodation ceiling to 52,600 bed units.

However, the most challenging issue not directly addressed in the CDP from a growth management perspective was determining how Whistler would manage existing and future commitments to expansion without a clear appreciation of the effects of this development growth on the environment, community, and the overall quality of the resort. By 1992, Whistler's economic circumstances had improved and the destination was firmly on its way to becoming a comprehensive year-round mountain tourism destination.

As a result, the British Columbia government returned full responsibility for the allocation, development, and management of Whistler to the RMOW in that year. This event led to a more locally based and issue-specific approach to growth management, which was eventually articulated in the RMOW's revised CDP.

The CDP's policies and goals reflected a fundamental shift from primarily focusing on tourism development to one that centred on the critical need to maintain and enhance the quality of the resort and the community.

3.1.5 Changing Goals for Growth

Initially, the primary goal guiding development in Whistler had been to achieve a level of development that would ensure a viable position in the international resort destination marketplace. Priority was placed on attracting investment to develop infrastructure and facilities serving tourists' needs. The community's approach to managing growth and development was a reflection of the unique characteristics of the area in 1988. During the 1990s, Whistler evolved from that stage and the challenge moved from developing primarily

tourist amenities to a more holistic set of goals related to providing community services for residents, protecting the environment, and maintaining the quality of the overall experience for visitors (Gill, 2000).

In **2003, the development of new and internationally competitive tourist facilities is still necessary and the RMOW has embraced this challenge.** However, it is now oriented toward forms of development that are aligned with a community-driven vision (RMOW, 2002).

Its management focus is now firmly placed on priorities related to maintaining environmental quality, protecting the viability of the resort economy, and securing community services as opposed to more grand commitments to resort amenities and development.

The general goals specified in the RMOW's most recent CDP are to:

• Balance the environmental, economic, and social needs of the community and resort;

• Maintain the high quality of the natural and built environment;

• Encourage kinds of economic activity compatible with the resort; and

• Guide the RMOW's activities to manage growth in the resort and broader region.

3.1.6   Developing a Guiding Vision

The resort community's long-range view of growth management is its comprehensive resort community vision (RMOW, 2002). This community-based vision not only identifies what the priority goals for future management should be in Whistler, but it also articulates how the RMOW intends to achieve these goals.

These goals are accompanied with a set of financial and business plans to ensure that the vision becomes a reality. Community support is particularly high with respect to four priorities:

-Moving toward environmental sustainability,
-Building a stronger resort community,
-Enhancing the Whistler experience, and
-Achieving financial sustainability (Waldron, Godfrey, and Williams, 1999).

Each priority is supported by a number of policy directions and tasks. For each of these priorities, the business plan articulates specific programmes of action. The following examples illustrate how growth management philosophies have been incorporated into RMOW's current and proposed actions.

3.1.7   Growth Management Policy

The cornerstone indicator of Whistler's progress toward managing growth has historically been the community's ability to encourage appropriate forms of development that did not surpass a prescribed bed-unit ceiling. An upper limit of 52,600 bed units was established in

the early 1990s as Whistler's build-out limit. It was initially established based on the capacity of the RMOW's municipal water and sewage systems to safely handle such a level of accommodation development and use.

Despite its ongoing presence in Whistler's planning policies, it was not intended to be an absolute capacity limit. For instance, it was recognized that greater capital expenditures on technical support systems could expand the ability of Whistler to technically manage greater levels of development. Indeed because the establishment of the bed-unit ceiling several years ago, many enhancements to the technical capacity of Whistler's water and sewer systems have occurred.

These and other improvements in destination infrastructure capacity, as well as greater awareness of the multifaceted impacts of resort community development, have stimulated an increasingly heated political and technical debate concerning the appropriateness of this bed-unit ceiling. Growing concern is being raised by local politicians, bureaucrats, businesses, and residents about what the implications of the bed-unit ceiling will be once Whistler reaches its bed-unit capacity limit. This debate is fuelled by a growing recognition that the current ceiling will be reached in the near future. In 2002, Whistler had already reached about 88 percent of its bed-unit 'build-out' capacity (RMOW, 2003).

From a growth management philosophy perspective, 'build out' is largely a question of what the RMOW deems to be desirable, given the community's vision, goals, and capabilities to manage growth's impacts. In keeping with this viewpoint, Whistler's political and administrative leaders have cautiously adopted this growth management philosophy and are inching their way into new bed-unit ceiling territory. As of 2002, the bed-unit ceiling was increased from the once unmovable 52,600 bedunit ceiling to a new standard of 55,159 units (RMOW, 2003). For the most part, increments to the bed-unit ceiling standard have been guided by efforts to meet community-based priorities expressed in Whistler's vision documents.

Typically they have involved 'trade offs' with real estate developers. For instance, one high profile trade off involved reallocating the number and variety of specific bed-unit types to a real estate development group in exchange for that developer providing the RMOW with a significant tract of highly valued forest lands deemed important to the community's overall environmental strategy. This trade off also included the developer providing increased school facilities deemed critical to the area's local residents and the community's vision (Gill and Williams, 2003).

Increments to Whistler's bed-unit ceiling have also been permitted in order to address the community's ongoing and escalating affordable housing challenge. In 2002, approximately 75 percent of Whistler's 14,200 employees resided in the community. However, the remaining 3500 employees had to travel to the resort community for their jobs. This commuting trend has been escalating in recent years. For both local and commuting employees, access to and the availability of accommodation units is challenging at best. As a consequence, the bed-unit ceiling is being expanded to allow a greater variety and number of bed units to be made available (RMOW, 2003). Although the decisions were controversial at the time they were made, they were guided by overriding goals expressed in the community's vision. As such, the emphasis with respect to growth has shifted from managing numbers to addressing a broader set of impacts. Driven by the community vision statement, the RMOW's

CDP outlines a wide variety of programmes designed to manage future growth toward community goals. Some of these are outlined in the following paragraphs.

3.2   *Environmental Quality*

Increasingly, tourists are expecting resort destinations to be set in natural environments with superior air, water, scenery, flora, and fauna attributes (Design Workshop, et al., 2002). Permanent residents are drawn to such locations for similar reasons. The RMOW has developed and is implementing policy directives that recognise that Whistler's mountain environment places unique limitations on development.

The RMOW's policies with respect to land use, transportation, servicing, and other aspects of community development are consistent with the goal of protecting environmental quality. Examples of the types of growth management instruments being implemented to address environmental issues include the adoption of the Whistler Environmental Strategy and The Natural Step management system to achieve its environmental priorities. The RMOW's policies are designed to encourage environmental programmes that focus on:

• An ecosystem-based approach toward land use, including a protected area network, recreational 'greenways.' and compact, efficient urban design; • Environmentally sustainable transportation, including a comprehensive strategy to encourage nonuse of automobiles;
• Eco-efficient water supply and waste water management programmes;
• Solid waste reduction and reuse initiatives; and
• Energy conservation practices (Waldron, Godfrey, and Williams, 1999).

3.2.1   *Community Facilities*

Development approval policies implemented in 1990s helped to ensure that Whistler had a wide array of recreational amenities. These developerfunded facilities were primarily established to meet the summer recreational needs of tourists but also served to enhance the quality of life for Whistler's permanent and seasonal residents. However, because the priority was placed on visitor-oriented amenities as opposed to more community- focussed facilities, Whistler still lacks some of the facilities that are necessary for a complete and stable community. Addressing these gaps has been incorporated into the RMOW's current policy directives with respect to future growth. Some of the approaches that are in place or being considered to address these issues include:

Affordable housing: The RMOW established a programme to ensure that a full range of housing types and prices are available throughout the Whistler municipality. An employee service charge by-law was developed to provide an ongoing fund for subsidising seasonal housing development, providing publicly owned lands at below market value for affordable housing development, and encouraging employers to develop employee accommodation. To coordinate the effective use of these funds, the RMOW established a Whistler Housing Authority (WHA).

Approximately 4300 of the 17,000 employees projected to makeup Whistler's workforce at 'build out' in 2005 are expected to be housed with the assistance of the WHA. The accommodation expected to be available for these employees is intended to range from dormitory- style short-term rental units to single family homes in subdivisions. The WHA is working toward an equal split between rental and ownership tenure in these housing units (WHA, 2002). Since its inception in 1977, the WHA and its partners have succeeded in more

than doubling the number of employee beds. However, it is now faced with the need for additional seasonal rental beds to supplement the existing inventory, primarily due to the projected growth in housing demand linked to the forthcoming Winter Olympic Games that will be hosted in Whistler in 2010. It is expected that the current bed-unit ceiling currently in place for Whistler will once again be escalated to accommodate this expected demand for employee bed units. *Local transportation infrastructure:* The RMOW has created a programme to ensure that Whistler has a local transportation system that places an emphasis on nonauto-based modes of transportation.

It intends to achieve this goal by installing bike routes and lanes as well as pedestrian routes and walking trails, consolidating air transportation service nodes at accessible community locations, and improving existing public transit services at times and locations suited to the needs of local residents.

To date, Whistler's commitment to improving public transit has been especially impressive. In 2002 the local public transit system, the Whistler And Valley Transit Express System, had the highest ridership of the all British Columbia municipal programmes, carrying more passengers in each hour of service than any other bus system in the province (RMOW, 2003). *Community facilities:* The RMOW community facility policies address the need for improving Whistler's cultural, educational, public safety, health and social services, and administrative capacities.

It is now in the process of establishing, and in some cases implementing, specific development projects that reflect the long-term needs of the community and resort. These include the creation of an additional community recreation centre, enhanced library facilities, and an Aboriginal cultural centre.

3.8.4   Monitoring and Evaluation

3.2.2 *Monitoring and Evaluation*

As opportunities for further expansion and the potential cumulative effects of development increase in Whistler, the need for effective monitoring systems that gauge the effects of such development escalate. As part of the RMOW's CDP and Official Community Plan, a community and resort monitoring system has been established. This annual monitoring programme provides quantitative feedback to elected community decision makers and stakeholders on what critical changes have occurred in Whistler as a result of growth. Using information collected from a wide variety of community stakeholders and government agencies, the monitoring report:

• Collects information concerning not only changes to the natural environment, but also the 'built,' social and economic environments of Whistler;

• Communicates findings emanating from the monitoring process in an annual public report, as well as at a yearly town meeting in order to ensure the widest possible understanding of the changes happening in Whistler; and

• Is used to help solicit community feedback concerning the effectiveness of the RMOW's growth management policies. As the sophistication of the monitoring system has increased, so has the quality of the information presented in the reports. In 2003, the monitoring reports highlighted a large range of performance measures, including: • Salient social characteristics of the community (e.g., employment and income, school and day care enrollment, housing);

• Critical economic patterns (e.g., development permits, skier volumes, hotel and conference usage, visitor satisfaction levels, and real estate values); and

• Environmental performance activities related to maintaining protected areas, demonstrating land-use stewardship activities, building a more environmentally sustainable transportation network, water supply, and wastewater management, and material and solid waste management (RMOW, 2003).

Each year the indicators presented come closer to addressing the pressure, state, and response measures needed to more accurately judge the impact of Whistler's growth management strategies (Waldron and Williams, 2002). For instance, significant additions to the range of indicators describing the environmental component of the monitoring report were incorporated in 2002.

These new indicators helped to more fully describe the community's progress in implementing land use, infrastructure, and capacity building programmes that supported Whistler's vision with respect to environmental sustainability. Specific indicators associated with ecosystem management; protected areas network development, recreation greenway, and other forms of land-use stewardship; transportation network development; water and wastewater management; materials and solid waste management; and community energy efficiency and air quality improvement were provided. Where feasible, comparison benchmarks were made with other resort communities of similar size in North America in order to provide a context for assessing Whistler's performance (RMOW, 2003).

3.2.4 Tourism Growth Management
The growth management concerns addressed in the preceding discussion relate to issues of growth and development found in many North American communities. The need to balance the needs of the community and visitors in tourism communities is what makes growth management particularly challenging in destinations such as Whistler.

In this regard, certain distinctive features stand out as being particularly critical to the successful implementation of growth management programs. These include the diversity and ever-changing priorities of stakeholders, the evolutionary stage of the tourist community, and the importance of maintaining a high quality resource base.

What strategies are implemented typically represents the meshing of economic, social, and environmental requirements with technical, administrative, and political realities.

3.2.5 *Stakeholder Diversity*

Community involvement in establishing desirable conditions is perhaps the single most important element of growth management. Developing appropriate mechanisms to incorporate divergent views is critical for successfully establishing appropriate resident–visitor relationships (Cleveland and Hansen, 1994).

A basic distinction can be made between residents and visitors, but in reality there are much finer distinctions with respect to attitudinal differences toward development (Lawrence, et al., 1993). In many tourist towns, there is a significant second-home resident population as well as seasonal employees. Each of these resident groups has very different needs in terms of

housing and service amenities. Although input into the planning process from permanent residents can be accomplished through traditional means such as public meetings, incorporating the viewpoints of these other community groups is more problematic.

Alternative mechanisms, such as more informal small group meetings, have been used in some instances. In conjunction with these processes, active community information and publicity programmes (e.g., via radio talk shows, newsletters, etc.) are often necessary to ensure that the perspectives of more transient and/or recent residents of the community can be incorporated into the growth management process (Gill, 1992). In addition to residents' attitudes, it is also important to interview visitors in order to understand why they have decided to visit the destination, how well their expectations are being met and what can be done to make their stays more enjoyable.

Maintaining a balance between the needs of tourists and those of all residents is critical. As many residents of tourist towns choose to live there because of perceived lifestyle and amenity factors, programmes designed to facilitate local use of touristfocussed attractions, facilities, and services can be employed to reduce friction between residents and visitors.

3.2.6 Development Stage

Resort communities are extremely dynamic in character. In the early phases of development, a high investment in tourist facilities and infrastructure is necessary to reach a 'critical mass' of attractions, services, facilities, and visitors so that the destination can sustain a tourism economy.

Unfortunately tourism demand is often unpredictable and subject to such problems as seasonality and aggressive competition. Development activities often entail considerable investment risk. Consequently, encouraging investment is often the primary objective in the early stages of development and destinations have often compromised the needs of the resident community to achieve this.

Although in the short term this seems an appropriate course of action, there may be negative repercussions at a later date. Examples of this can be found in most tourism towns that have evolved without an employee housing policy. Although the cost of providing employee housing acts as a disincentive to early investors, failure to do so has created serious problems in many communities once land values have increased.

3.2.7 Environmental Quality

Many tourism regions are resource dependent. Maintaining the quality of their resources (natural and cultural) is critical to the continued success of their tourism industry. As a consequence, resource management standards and guidelines are often higher than those necessary in other settings. For instance, the capability of the sewage and water systems must be able to meet the peak loadings that characterise service use in many tourist communities.

Similarly building and landscape design guidelines often reflect more stringent aesthetic goals. Identification of the desired conditions to be associated with an area's critical tourism resources is also important in establishing priorities in the event of conflicting goals.

For example, in the Lake Tahoe region of California and Nevada, highest priority is given to the lake water clarity and quality, because it is the resort's most essential tourist resource. Establishing desired conditions for the resource base is an essential step in growth management.

This includes consideration of natural, cultural, and scenic resources in surrounding areas that may not necessarily lie within a municipality's borders but still affect the overall quality of the area. It is important to decide how residents and visitors feel about the desired quality of such resources prior to determining what kind of management will be necessary.

Self Assessment Questions
    (i) Outline and explain the goals that are accompanied with a set of financial and business plans to ensure that the tourism community vision becomes a reality?

4.0 Conclusions

Research suggests that traditional approaches to carrying capacity management have met with limited success in application. This situation exists primarily because of unrealistic expectations, untenable assumptions, inappropriate value judgments, and insufficient legal support systems. As a result the concept is discussed considerably but used infrequently in tourism management contexts. Given the inability of traditional carrying capacity management concepts and techniques to be operationalised, an alternative approach is suggested. Its focus shifts from past concerns over establishing use limits, to issues of identifying environmental, social, and economic conditions desired by a community, and the creation of growth management strategies for managing tourism growth toward those ends. In the case of Whistler, the past focus on managing for an established bed-unit capacity ceiling for growth is gradually being replaced with an approach that emphasises managing for the existing and potential effects of growth.

5.0 Summary

Many of Whistler's growth management strategies are still in the early stages of development and/or implementation. Only time and monitoring will attest to their utility. However, Whistler has chosen this approach as a more workable and realistic alternative to the use of traditional carrying capacity strategies. It is designed to direct growth toward goals and conditions important to those who must live with the lasting consequences of their decisions.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

    (i) What are the growth management planning objective of tourism development?

    (ii) Analyze the monitoring and evaluation of developmental tourism issues and its critical economic relevance?

7.0 References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) These goals are accompanied with a set of financial and business plans to ensure that the vision becomes a reality. Community support is particularly high with respect to four priorities:

-Moving toward environmental sustainability,
-Building a stronger resort community,
-Enhancing the Whistler experience, and
-Achieving financial sustainability.

UNIT 15 Sustainable tourism standards in the global economy

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0   Main Content

UNIT 13   Sustainable tourism standards in the global economy
CONTENTS

1.0   **INTRODUCTION**

In this unit, we will discuss the development of sustainability standards from local efforts to make business improvements to becoming part of the suite of governance and regulatory tools of the global tourism industry. The key propositions of this discussion are that standard setting and certification are valuable tools to bring stakeholders together in their sustainability efforts, and they can be part of a suite of tools to encourage improvement.

At the same time it is necessary to proceed with caution and not take certification as the answer to greening the industry. This chapter outlines current developments in the sector to create a basis to critically understand and analyze key issues in the application of sustainability standards.

This leads to the communication efforts to globalize standards, and the challenges encountered. Finally the chapter considers the range of stakeholders that can have an impact on developing standards, and hypothesizes how the tourism industry could change through sustainability standard enforcement, considering both its feasibility and desirability.

2.0   **OBJECTIVE**

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Discuss key standard of sustainable development efforts in tourism

Identify implementable standard in meeting set conformity and assessment in tourism

Understand that efficiency is a measure of how well an instrument uses the resources available.

Explain the meaning of equity and fairness in global tourism sustainability

Know key drivers responsible for improving globalization efforts in tourism

3.0 **MAIN CONTENT**

3.1   Sustainable tourism standards in the global economy

Standards are documents that establish a basis, example, or principle for firms to conform to, linked to uniform units of measurement. Compulsory standards are enforced through national legislation and industry membership requirements and tend to cover health and safety, competence standards, occupational safety, land-use planning, licensing of businesses, and consumer protection.

Voluntary standards go beyond these to suggest best practice and are usually coupled with training manuals for companies to make the necessary improvements to meet the requirements. Although certification of quality in hotels has a long tradition, it has focused on environmental concerns only fairly recently, and is now starting to consider socio-cultural issues. Most programs have developed as bottom-up initiatives with little knowledge of each other and generally operate as specific responses to manage the key negative impacts or challenges of a particular subsector in a particular location. In the last 10 years, they have moved on dramatically to become one of the buzzwords of sustainable tourism and ecotourism, considered as a potential mechanism to combat green-washing but not without a fair share of skeptics (Morris, 1997).

3.1.1 Implementing Sustainability Standards

The process of setting standards and ensuring these are met is known as *conformity assessment,* and provides the context to outline the development and use of sustainable tourism standards (Font, 2002; Toth, 2002).

First the certification body sets standards that are *industry relevant* and achievable by a proportion of the sector. Part of the process includes setting indicators that can *credibly* and *effectively* measure the standards across the range of applicants they are intended for.

These indicators are then assessed by an assessor who has been deemed as competent for the task, such as someone with the necessary skills and no conflict of interest, amongst others. If the assessment is successful, the applicant is certified as meeting the standards. The certification body could be subject to a procedure of accreditation, guaranteeing that the certification body has undertaken its tasks correctly.

The overall aim is that the label of this certification programs will be recognized by consumers or distribution channels, and considered as added value that leads to its acceptance in the marketplace, to support the marketing of companies that meet standards. Reading the latest survey of 59 sustainable tourism and ecotourism certification programs shows the patchy development that has taken place (World Tourism Organization, 2002).

There are 7000 tourism products certified worldwide, and *6000 of them are in Europe*. **Two-thirds of the programs are led by tourism industry associations** and national government organizations (NGOs), and less often private ventures and consultancies. Governmental organizations lead **approximately 20 programs**, and provide technical and marketing support to **approximately 30 more**. The investment for the development of eco-labels is equally spread between private, public, and private–public partnerships.

Approximately **40 programs take a multi-stakeholder collaborative approach to decision** making and advisory roles. **Nearly one-half started before 1996 and another one-half between 1996 and 2000,** whereas the number of program having started development since 2001 runs to double figures.

There are further differences across these programs in the nature of the companies they try to certify. To the danger of oversimplifying, European programs focus on environmental issues in accommodation regardless of firm size, whereas developing countries focus on a broader

range of sustainability and ecotourism issues, targeting specifically small firms regardless of subsector.

What is most striking is that most standards are set for hotels (68 percent), and very few for tour operators (7 percent, in fact only four programs), and the latter are mainly for ecotourism ground operators, not the outbound operators in tourism-generating countries, with access to the market. This is probably accounted for by the fact that the impacts of hotels are generally considered to be easier to identify, more consistent across providers, and the management unit is identifiable.

Hospitality has developed advanced tools to benchmark environmental impacts (see, for example, International Hotels Environment Initiative, 2001) that could not be conceivable in other sectors, although *Green Globe 21 (GG21)* is making progress in this respect (Green Globe, 2002).

At the other end of the spectrum, ***tour operators have not been the targets of certification because they rely on suppliers to ensure the sustainability of their products; they have long claimed they have no control over their suppliers.*** *The indicators used to measure standards also vary not only in contents but also in what is measured. The most popular distinction is between* **process and performance indicators** *(Synergy, 2000; Honey and Stewart, 2002).* Process**-based standards mean the company makes a commitment to improvement** by putting in place management systems to ensure year-on- year progress. Progress-based standards mean different companies could perform differently and still have the same certificate, hence they are not a guarantee of sustainability.

The advantage is that the system is self-updating, the standards are generic, and therefore transferable. At the other end of the spectrum, performance standards mean that the applicant has met a threshold level, which is generally defined through sector-specific benchmarks (to different degrees of sophistication).
The key advantage is that they are a guarantee of basic standards.

The challenges are that because industry performance changes, standards need external updating, and because the standards are context specific, they are not easily transferable across destinations.
Breadth (over depth) of standards has been used first to criticize program only covering environmental issues and not other sustainability areas, and mainly criticizing GG21 (Synergy, 2000), and interestingly then to suggest the preference of GG21 as industry-specific standards over generic ones such as ISO 14001 (Rodgers, undated).
In reality the differences are fewer than first thought, and certification programmes tend to combine a number of performance criteria to ensure minimum requirements are met, with a number of process criteria to ensure the company is proactive toward making further improvements (World Tourism Organization, 2002).

Just over 40 percent of the criteria in standards relate to management issues (i.e., whether the applicant has systems in place to make improvements on a number of sustainability matters), and the characteristics of the firm to be accepted as an applicant [5 percent]). The remaining 55 percent of criteria relate to specific actions or benchmarks for environmental (34 percent), economic (8 percent), and socio-cultural (12 percent) criteria.

3.1.2 Certification as an Instrument for Sustainability

Certification as a process to raise industry standards has *its advocates and critics.* This section reviews the feasibility of certification as a policy tool to make voluntary improvements, under five aspects: equity, effectiveness, efficiency, credibility, and integration.

 Equity refers to the fairness of an instrument, which here is considered as the ability of tourism firms to access certification. Every action, such as certification, that attempts to make an inherently inequitable market economy more transparent is likely to be tainted by that inequity. This stands out as conflictive when the main emphasis of most sustainable tourism policies is in fact to encourage a more equitable distribution of the benefits of tourism. This has sparked heated debates such as those hosted in the planeta.com e-conference on ecotourism certification.

Three potential areas of inequity are considered, the cost of:

(i) the application,
(ii) implementation by tourism firms, and
(iii) operation of a programs.

The relative perceived high cost of certifying to a standard can be inequitable, because not all firms will have the same potential to access to being certified. Most programmes have addressed this somehow by having scaled fees, linked to turnover or size.

In Costa Rica, the government has successfully subsidized first-time applications to the Certificate for Sustainable Tourism.

In Australia, the Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program relied on paper audits to cut costs down until it revised its protocol in 2001. Although some certification programmes can provide sufficient benefits to repay the fees, and some suggest that the premise that cost is a barrier is only a myth (Toth, 2002), there are countries where the cost is prohibitive, particularly in countries without a national certification programme that have to bring in international verifiers.

Yet once companies have applied the first time, they are likely to find that meeting some of the criteria make them more eco-efficient and therefore can justify further certification costs based on the savings made. There are examples of medium sized hotels that have made savings of US$40,000 per year in energy, water, and waste, which have been used to subsidize a position of environmental manager. For smaller companies, certification programs might need to consider encouraging applications as cooperatives of small firms or as destinations.

The idea here is to have a joint sustainability initiative that raises performance of the whole group, but the certification program assesses only a percentage of the firms every year, to cut down on costs. This concept has been considered by GG21 in the certification of Hilton as a chain, and can be translated to small industry associations as well.

There are also costs from operating more sustainably and from implementing the standard (Toth, 2002). Some of these can be recouped, such as upgrading the equipment and

facilities to meet the standards by, for example, buying a combined heating and power unit, or systems for wastewater reuse.

Although in most locations these will be repaid in around five years through eco-savings, they require up-front capital and therefore access to credit. Then there are costs that cannot be recovered, such as stakeholder consultation, writing policies, contribution to local development, and the maintenance of environmental management systems and paper trails to mention some. For any of the mentioned to take place, the firm needs to commit staff time, and only financially sound firms will be able to do so.

Finally there are other costs that currently the applicant does not pay for and are generally subsidized by governments, donors, and NGOs, and it is expected that will continue that way (World Tourism Organization, 2003). Examples are standard setting, consultation and maintenance, verifier training, marketing, administrative costs, and quality assurance of the certification program. These costs make certification not equitable for those governments that do not have the funds to set up their own national certification program or to operate low-interest loans for efficiency improvements.
A number of national tourist boards have an interest in running certification program but this is not their priority (Maccarrone-Eaglen and Font, 2002), whereas, in other countries, circumstances do not allow such programmes (see, for example, Bricker, 2002 on Fiji; Koch, Massyn, and Spenceley, 2002 on Kenya and South Africa, as well as the unreported failed Kiskeya Alternativa in the Dominican Republic). In the medium term their industry can become less competitive because it does not learn how to manage more sustainably, and more efficiently, although this can also take place through other policy instruments.

NGOs cannot afford the start up of national program and instead tend to focus on particular areas of biodiversity (e.g., Smart Voyager in the Galapagos and PAN Parks in Eastern and Northern Europe's parks) or socioeconomic need (Fair Trade Tourism in South Africa). *Effectiveness* is a measure of how well an instrument achieves its objectives. Ecolabels are first attracting applications from companies that already meet the standards, and only if the core group of these companies is large enough, they have the power to change behavior in other companies.

3.2 Global Governance Perspectives

From a global governance point of view, the fact that at present tourism certification is resource based and incentive led, and not market led, means that it has had little impact. The confused message given to tourists (are we promoting an unspoiled destination or a sustainable business, and is there a difference?) has limited its power. There are no means to control green and quasi-green claims, and customers have limited information to discriminate between green-washing and sound products. Effectiveness can also be measured here against different objectives, that is, not only the number and type of firms certified, but against the objective of advancement of the sustainability agenda. It is argued here that in the short term the process of empowering local groups to agree on practical methods to make local firms more sustainable is already an achievement. However, the emphasis of certification in other sectors, such as forestry, has focussed on closing the gap between 'very best' and 'good' practice, whereas poor forest management is little affected (Bass, Font, and Danielson, 2001).

Efficiency is a measure of how well an instrument uses the resources available. At present there is limited evidence of the value for money of standard certification as a policy instrument (Rivera, 2002) because costs are not clear and effectiveness cannot be measured. The low take-up and high start-up costs from governments and NGOs could indicate they are not an efficient use of resources.

Most certification systems currently rely on external funding, and would not survive without it. Blue Flag has relied on European funds for nearly 15 years, struggling to survive when these finished. The International Network on Fair Trade in Tourism folded as soon as the donor grant ran out.

The 'Certificate of Sustainable Tourism' (CST) has made an impact in Costa Rica because of the government's financial commitment to subsidize fees and provide technical know-how. Voluntarily changing industry behaviour is a complex and long-term process (Dewhurst and Thomas, 2003) even when most program advertise the eco-savings of up to 30 percent in operational costs that can be made from implementing the standards proposed.

Credibility and legitimacy refer to the extent to which an instrument is accepted as valid by its target audience. If this is understood as market share, then certification is not credible and legitimate, except in cases such as the Blue Flag. If we take it as consumer demand, then the answer is also negative, because tourists are not demanding certification. Exceptions are the cases of Blue Flag, linked to health considerations in bathing water more than sustainability concerns, and the Nature's Best, because of the high profile it has received in the Swedish press from the King of Sweden giving the first certificates and being featured in television holiday program If this is understood as the quality of each certification program and therefore value of each label, then we do not have the evidence of which are good and which are not, although this is starting to change as these are benchmarked against developing guidelines, and eventually through accreditation.

The fifth aspect of analysis of certification is its current *integration* with other instruments for sustainability. Its origin stems from the formalization of industry awards and showcasing best practice (Synergy, 2000) and in this sense is more representative of industry practice than externally set agendas.

Yet, generally, certification is integrated only with other instruments for sustainability only in as far as they are generally linked to voluntary initiatives and incentives to encourage more sustainable approaches to management. Certification does not provide a mechanism to operationalise international treaties and agreements. The fact that onehalf of the ecolabels receive government support suggests it is feasible to further integrate them with government sustainability targets and for them to be used as methods to implement international agreements, as recommended by the World Tourism Organization (2003). There are limited data available on the link between national sustainable tourism policies and certification programs to comment on the progress on this matter. Progress on integrating certification with global agendas is further developed in the next section.

3.2.1   Global Standards for a Global Economy

Although most certification programmes are not growing in number of applicants (only 20 percent of the medium-aged ecolabels are growing annually, according to the WTO [2002]), those that are, are doing so by becoming more global, rather than from market penetration at a national level.

Global standards make sense in the marketplace. Transnational corporations can benefit from certification (Conroy, 2002), but they want to work to one standard that makes sense at corporate level regardless of operational location (Kahlenborn and Dominé, 2001).

Markets want to be communicated one single meaningful message, and the current players are fighting for a voice with their small budgets (Consultancy and Research for Environmental Management, 2000).

International trade rules favour international standards because these are believed to create an equal playing field that benefits competition (Bendell and Font, 2004). If certification as a process is going to make a difference in trade, it needs to come of age.

This section reviews three aspects of globalization efforts :

First, it outlines the potential for certification to become a tool to implement global agreements and guidelines on sustainable tourism.

Second, it reviews the growth of the current certification programs to become regional players.

Third, it presents the work of programs aiming to have a global coverage from the outset.

There is a real challenge in agreeing on definitions of *sustainable tourism and ecotourism*, let alone operationalizing those definitions. This is probably part of the reason why certification programmes are not used at present as tools to implement the many political statements developed in the last three decades in sustainable tourism.

Ideally, a certification programme would take up the generic political agreements and make them relevant to the business unit level, considering how each business needs to operate to be within the parameters given.

In 1999 the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development made a number of recommendations with regards to seeking methods to implement amongst others Local Agenda 21, WTO's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, and United Nations Environment *Programme's Principles for Implementation of Sustainable Tourism*. These are too generic to be implemented by business units, but they could be cascaded down through more detailed standards and manuals (Font and Bendell, 2002).

Two examples are the development of the Blue Flag for beaches as a tool to enforce *European Bathing Water Directive* (Font and Mihalic, 2002) and *the relaunch of the GG21 standard after the United Nations meeting* (Koeman, et al., 2002). *There is room to make further links; social standards in tourism do not reinforce International Labor Organization standards* (Font and Harris, undated) unlike in other sectors (Andreas, Muller, Panapanaan, 2000).

The technical elements of linking these general agreements to certifiable standards could be bridged; *the more challenging issue would be who would have the mandate of running such programmes and where the funds would come from.*

The second aspect to consider is how the current certification standards are developing to become more global, or at least regional, programmes.

The model for certification in Latin America is the Costa Rican CST.
Most countries in the region have signed agreements to implement national programs to make tourism companies accountable for sustainability issues with the CST program as a model, although the costs of starting and operating a certification program have meant there has been little progress. *CST also hoped that the WTO would offer its full support to Costa Rica* in their becoming a global certification program (Toth, 2000). However, the proposal was not accepted by The Member States of the corresponding WTO Technical Committee; instead, the Committee requested the WTO Secretariat to provide them with recommendations and guidelines on how to establish such certification systems.

In Europe, the Voluntary Initiatives for Sustainable Tourism (VISIT) program has created a federal system to raise standards amongst the current program, marketing more than 1000 certified accommodations to consumers in ethical trade fairs and to tour operators to include in their packages (VISIT, 2003). Blue Flag has extended outside Europe to the Caribbean and South Africa (Font and Mihalic, 2002) to become the single most popular certification programme, albeit only for beaches. All these programs have had to reconsider the applicability of their standards, in the case of Blue Flag to other geographical conditions, in the case of VISIT to compare the work of its members in search for commonalities and best practice.

The third aspect is to consider the success of programs that have aimed from the outset to be global, or regional. GG21 already positioned itself as a global program from its start in 1994, and despite being one of the longest standing programs it has achieved little market penetration worldwide, with the greatest hopes for take up being in the Asia- Pacific region, since opening offices in Australia (Griffin and De Lacy, 2002; Koeman et al., 2002). The European Union Ecolabel Award Scheme has developed environmental standards for tourism accommodation, after three feasibility studies and years of discussion, and unlikely to get high numbers of applicants because of its complex standard. Ford Foundation has supported the feasibility study and first phase of implementation of a Sustainable Tourism Stewardship Council, aiming to set an accreditation system to ensure global standards, requiring a subsidy of almost US$1 million per year once fully operational (Rainforest Alliance, 2003), not unlike accreditation in other industries. The most recent entry is the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), currently studying the desirability and feasibility of standards and other deliverables, such as guidelines, for tourism services. At the time of writing this chapter, the ISO was considering a guide outlining basic consumer requirements for tourism services, whereas the need for an ISO standard on aspects like ecotourism had received mixed responses (ISO, 2003).

Lessons learned from these players are that large governance structures are costly, these programs do not necessarily communicate to the potential applicants, and they require a further layer of organizations to help industry implement the standards. Arguably, standards ought to be locally relevant and locally developed, to the risk of reinventing the wheel in some instances, but to the benefit of ownership and practicality (Farnworth, 2003).

The main challenge is to then transform these valid exercises of local governance into tools that are meaningful beyond the resource-based approach to sustainability improvement, through a process of 'globalization from below' (Font and Sallows, 2002).

There are at least two reasons for an <u>international umbrella to support local programs</u>.

First, the fact that applicants to programs tend to believe that there are marketing advantages to having sustainability credentials, but small local programs are not in a position to deliver market-led competitive advantage.

Second, as more programs are developed, and comparisons between them are made, there is a trend to consider economies of scale in some shared concerns.

After a period of building trust and sharing tasks, programs can move from a federal alliance to a position where the joint brand is likely to be more meaningful to the international markets, whereas each programs brand is more important to the applicants. Such an umbrella structure can take the role of bridging between international agreements and local certification program, accrediting the processes by which each certification program translates them to a standard that is appropriate to their location and applicants. But for all this to take place, some stakeholders need to take the initiative, and despite a range of advocates and stakeholders in standard development and certification, there are few levers for change.

3.2.2 *Levers for Change*

This section reviews some key players in the tourism industry that can accelerate or reshape the development of tourism certification, which for convenience have been divided into supply and demand. Strategic alternatives for certification programmes are linked to market penetration, market development, product development, or diversification (Font, 2001). Having developed their governance structures, most programmes have planned to focus on marketing more than product development in the next few years (WTO, 2002).

 The key activities of growth from certification programmes were outlined in the previous section, and these actions are complemented by other stakeholders on the supply side groups that can incentive the up take of certification, such as governments, NGOs, and financial institutions. Governments have been involved mainly through providing an enabling framework through ensuring a supportive environment, highlighting best practice, standard setting, institutional building blocks, providing grants or loans, and leading by example. It is expected that governments will have a more active role, as suggested in guidelines from the WTO calling for further government intervention, although these relate to governance and standard setting, and not support measures to encourage up take (World Tourism Organization, 2003).

 They could potentially raise their involvement by providing 'incentives' through, for example, mandatory reporting, using as evidence of statutory obligations compliance, threatening alternative measures, or financial incentives. They could also go further by making standards mandatory to gain licenses and permits or through regulation (Font and Bendell, 2002).

Regulation is an aspect of particular relevance here, because of precedents set in Europe by the Package Travel, Package Holidays, and Package Tours Regulations 1992. European tour operators have been sued not only for health and safety reasons, but also for poor quality and even for 'lack of enjoyment' caused by the poor quality of tourism products (Grant and Mason, 2003). There is room for arguing that it is only a question of time until a major tour operator is sued for poor sustainability or for misrepresenting the holiday on their brochure on sustainability grounds.

This could trigger a succession of events that could change the sector. Non-government organizations have put pressure on distribution channels to prove the sustainability of their products, particularly to do it yourself (DIY) store giants to source all their timber from sustainable sources within a period that encouraged suppliers to change methods of production and become certified (Murphy and Bendell, 1997). NGOs have also engaged with industry to develop accreditation, such as the Marine Stewardship Council, which is now receiving preferential treatment in a number of supermarkets as part of their corporate social responsibility policies.

3.2.3 NGOs, Multinational Hotels and Tour Operators Initiatives for Sustainable Development

In tourism, NGOs are active in running some certification programmes, albeit the high costs beg the question of the long-term ability to do so, and as members of the advisory boards of other programmes. Financial institutions have taken an increasing interest in sustainability operationalised through socially responsible investments, a label to represent ethical and environmental investment criteria by banks, pension funds, and other investment organisations (Jayne and Skerratt, 2003). Good benchmark and tradable indices require companies to write policies, specific management actions, and/or reporting according to their perceived level of impact with air transport classed as high and hotel development as medium.

Other similar sustainability indices managed by financial and investment groups exist. Such companies listed in those can apply for reduced rate loans from development banks and get preferential treatment in the investment portfolio of pension funds. Although in the past ethical investment screening has been undertaken internally (Jayne and Skerratt, 2003), there are attempts of linking global reporting initiative sustainability reporting to the social screening of investments (Willis, 2003), which is the overall framework for the reporting of the Tour Operators Initiative for Sustainable Development.

The supply side can provide levers for change, but for the changes to be meaningful they have to impact on the demand to ensure demand driven, self-supporting, and financially stable certification (Toth, 2002). The demand side is broader than first could be thought, and it arguably includes not only the tourism industry as possible applicants, but also tourists and distribution channels. Raising awareness of the tourism industry alone will not be sufficient enough incentive to increase applications. Large firms do not want to be certified as a method to attract business, but to protect their brand for public relations reasons against possible negative publicity (Conroy, 2002; see also Honey and Stewart, 2002).

Multinational hotels might not perceive the need for eco-labels at present, and a Costa Rican study found that when they applied for the CST, they scored low (Rivera, 2002). If eco-labels

are sold as a method to generate eco-savings, the large firms will want this to be integrated with broader management functions, such as accountancy, management systems, health and safety, and quality, not as a standalone product.

The main challenge is for small firms. *The inequities of certification arguments against rolling sustainability standards in the global tourism industry can have detrimental effects for firms that cannot access certification.*

There are precedents that supplier requirement of health, safety, and quality certification has gone against small companies who cannot meet the requirements (Curtin and Busby, 1999), which needs to be further explored in the context of sustainability certification.

The current demand from tourists is almost nonexistent, and surveys of latent demand have varying results, although most claim that tourists give high preference to sustainability in their purchasing and that they are willing to pay extra for sustainable holidays despite the perception that certification means higher prices (Miller, 2003; Rainforest Alliance, 2003). However there are clear differences between consumer environmental purchasing claims and actual purchasing behaviour.

Few programmes can claim that their applicants increase business because of being certified (the Australian Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Programme does; see Chester and Crabtree, 2002).

The Green Tourism Business Scheme applicants have higher occupancy rates than average for Scotland but the programme is careful to note this is probably because applicants are companies that are already managing their businesses well, not because of being certified (Font and Buckley, 2001).

However there are companies stating that they are more likely to have repeated visitors, or more satisfied visitors, thanks to the improvements made to be certified, but not necessarily because of being certified. For example the Green Globe 21 certification of Coconut Beach Hotel in Barbados is encouraging endangered turtles nesting, which has meant changing lighting and continuously working on customer education, but to the benefit of having a unique selling proposition that brings clients back.

Although tour operators generally consider that change will be led by consumer demand (Miller, 2001) there are pockets of activity that suggest increased corporate responsibility, in part through sustainable supply chain management (Tapper, 2001). Basically, for tour operators to claim they are sustainable, they need to know their suppliers are sustainable in the first place. Some tour operators are using environmental audits of the hotels they use, although an alternative is for tour operators to encourage hotels toward certification to cut down on the tour operator's burden of auditing. In the United Kingdom, the Travel Foundation is bringing together tour operators and other stakeholders to make outbound tourism more sustainable, and supply chain management has been listed as top priority. Elsewhere, the development of sustainability reporting indicators by the Tour Operators Initiative already considers certification of suppliers as an indicator of tour operator sustainability (Tour Operators Initiative, 2002), and a major part of the developmental work of this initiative relates to improving the sustainability of suppliers (Tour Operators Initiative, 2003) as part of a process that leads to verification (Tapper, 2003).

The Visit alliance of 10 ecolabels in Europe has demonstrated that with 1000 accommodation providers they have the beginning of a structure that
allows them to target both consumers and distribution channels, and this is probably the best test of the marketplace for other regions to learn from.

4.0 Conclusions

For the last two decades, certification has been a voluntary mechanism to show high standards of performance beyond legislation. It has been thought to be a source of competitive advantage that allows a small number of firms to stand out from the average. Certification is a valid instrument to gather local stakeholders around the common purpose of defining standards to make local tourism sustainable.

It is also valid to develop structures to encourage and support improvement of business units, working to a standard that will give them peer recognition, staff morale, ecosavings, and peace of mind from beyond legislation compliance, all of which make firms more competitive in the medium term. Certification in the majority of cases does not do much for increased trade; if this is to change, it needs larger economies of scale that can allow for tangible market-led benefits, such as marketing and acting as distribution channel. These economies of scale will come from a combination of addressing the international sustainability agendas, market penetration and new market development, partnerships between the current programmes, and the creation of global structures.

Self Assessment Questions
   (i) What does Equity refers and considers in tourism firms to access certification?
   (ii) Explain some potential areas of inequity in tourism program?

5.0 Summary

Certification is most suited to those countries with well-established infrastructures and the finances to support industry to reduce its impacts. It is also a tool for financially sound firms that have their basic needs covered and feel the need or desire to be more sustainable, and get recognition for it. It is not the best tool for livelihood-based economies or sectors, be it tourism, forestry, agriculture, or any other at the center of attention of certification today. Increasing the number of companies that meet these standards allows in the medium term to reach the economies of scale to produce better training for applicants, and marketing of their products. The key challenge is the potential impact this can have on those firms that are not suited to it, if it becomes a powerful tool for increased trade, or if governments and industry associations aim to enforce compulsory standards. This is a long way away, although globalizing standards and the combined pressure from a number of stakeholders are heading in that direction. This has to be an enabling, carefully managed process that takes into account the moral challenges of equity.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

   (i) What do you understand by change layer player in tourism industry ?
   (ii) Explain the concept of credibility and legitimacy as value target audience in tourism?

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Answers to Self Assessment Questions

(i) Equity refers to the fairness of an instrument, which here is considered as the ability of tourism firms to access certification. Every action, such as certification, that attempts to make an inherently inequitable market economy more transparent is likely to be tainted by that inequity. This stands out as conflictive when the main emphasis of most sustainable tourism policies is in fact to encourage a more equitable distribution of the benefits of tourism. This has sparked heated debates such as those hosted in the planeta.com e-conference on ecotourism certification.

(ii) Three potential areas of inequity are considered, the cost of:

(i) the application,
(ii) implementation by tourism firms, and
(iii) operation of a programs.

UNIT 14   The Development of Tourism Strategies and Policies,

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UNIT 14 **The** *Development of Tourism Strategies and Policies,*

CONTENT

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the foregoing unit we studied sustainable development in tourism. Unlike in this unit, we shall be discussing strategic tourism development, policies and decision. In the development of tourism strategies and policies, it is clear that the responsible authorities or **destination marketing organizations (DMOs)** must take into account the views of numerous stakeholders including industry, residents, special-interest groups representing the environment and community, and even the tourists. Each stakeholder group has a different set of needs and expectations relating to a destination's performance and its sustainability goals. In this unit we shall study these different expectations that may cause conflicts to arise among stakeholders, and conflicts can be extremely detrimental to the destination's competitiveness.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Define stakeholder theory for developing sustainable tourism(STD)

Explain the descriptive, instrumental, and normative stakeholder theories in tourism

Identify the importance of freeman four-step stakeholder management Process in tourism

Discuss stakeholder identification model and the three dimensions of stakeholder salience

Understand usefulness of stakeholder theory for developing sustainable tourism strategies and policies

Know the major partners for Sustainable Development in Tourism (STD)

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The *development of tourism strategies and policies*,

A process of stakeholder management is therefore needed to reduce or solve conflicts, and invariably the issue of achieving a balanced perspective among stakeholder voices will have to be faced.

In this unit *the applicability and usefulness of stakeholder theory for developing sustainable tourism strategies and policies is examined.* Particular attention is given to the need for achieving balanced input among the diverse stakeholder groups, including the pertinent issues of stakeholder identification, legitimization, involvement, and conflict resolution.

Insights from three cities are presented, namely Calgary and Victoria, Canada, and San Francisco, California. Stakeholder theory has not been used to a great extent in the tourism planning, policy, and <u>strategy literature. However, it could be argued that to some extent</u>

stakeholder theory has implicitly been a core component in development of the sustainable tourism philosophy.

Sustainable tourism aims to '*minimize environmental and cultural damage, optimize visitor satisfaction, and maximize long-term economic growth for the region'* (Lane, 1994).

When a destination adapts a sustainable tourism philosophy aimed to 'conserve and preserve natural and built resource base; respect and protect local culture; optimize visitor satisfaction; satisfy demands of industry, provide improved living standards and quality of life for residents' (Lane, 1994) by definition is using a stakeholder approach and 'all of the groups' that can affect or are affected by tourism development are concerned. By adopting the sustainable tourism philosophy destinations attempt to design one development strategy that achieves the objectives of various stakeholders.

The results of managing stakeholders to realize sustainable tourism development (STD) should be the establishment of destination objectives that are more balanced and long term; integrated environmental, social, cultural, and economic strategies; and effectiveness in achieving goals. In order to achieve these results, all stakeholders' interests and objectives regarding tourism development must be incorporated into the process.

3.1.1   Dimensions of Sustainable Tourism Development

STD, as defined by the World Tourism Organization (1998) is development that STD implies the need to secure the sustainability of tourism's primary resources at the destination level, and is a way of obtaining a balance between the growth potential of tourism and the conservation needs of the resource base (Lane, 1994).

Sustainable tourism strategies have several general aims (Green and Hunter, 1992; Hunter, 1995):

• To meet the needs and wants of the local host community in terms of improved living standards and quality of life;

• To satisfy the demands of tourists and the tourism industry; and

• To safeguard the environmental resource base for tourism, encompassing natural, built, and cultural components.

Because STD addresses different issues and interests, and seeks balanced tourism development where no one actor (industry, hosts, or guests) predominates, the planning, development and practice of STD requires involvement of these interested parties. Stakeholder theory has the potential to provide a framework within which STD can be delivered (McKercher, 1993; Robson and Robson, 1996).

3.1.2   Stakeholder Theory

The 'stakeholder' concept was introduced to strategic management by Freeman (1984) who defined it in a management and organizational context to include any individual or group who can affect the firm's performance or who is affected by the achievement of the **organisation's objectives.** Stakeholder theory tries to answer three general questions (Frooman, 1999):

1. Who (or what) are stakeholders of the firm?

2. What do they want?

3. How are they going to get there?

In other words, stakeholders' attributes, interests, and influence are looked at respectively. Stakeholder theory asserts that the business needs to consider the interests of groups affected by the firm.

Wood and Jones (1995) argue that stakeholder theory holds the key to understanding the structures and dimensions of business and society relationships. Much of the literature using stakeholder theory suggests that it allows the organisation to consider a wider range of influencers when developing strategy, and that earlier theories of the firm do not consider all of the 'groups' that influence organisational activities (Polonsky, 1995). Stakeholder theory also differentiates between 'strategic' and 'moral' stakeholders (Goodpastor, 1991; Frooman, 1999). The strategic stakeholder literature emphasizes management of stakeholders so the firm achieves its interests (e.g., Freeman, 1984; Clarkson, 1995; Rowley, 1997 cited in Frooman, 1999). The moral stakeholder literature focusses on the balancing of stakeholder interests (e.g., Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Wicks, Gilbert, & Freeman, 1994 cited in Frooman, 1999).

3.1.3 Normative, Instrumental, and Descriptive Stakeholder Theories

Donaldson and Preston (1995) proposed a taxonomy of stakeholder theory types, called normative, instrumental, and descriptive. **Stake- holder theory is normative when it accepts that 'stakeholders are persons and/or groups with legitimate interests in a corporation' and that 'the interests of stakeholders are of intrinsic value'** *(Donaldson and Preston, 1995). This means that each stakeholder merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to further the interests of some other groups, such as the shareowners. Normative stakeholder theorists argue that all stakeholders should be treated with proper respect and consideration for their own sakes (Jawahar and McLaughlin, 2001). Stakeholder theory can also be instrumental.*

'**It establishes a framework for examining the connections, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals' (Donaldson and Preston 1995).** That is, other things being equal, corporations practicing stakeholder management will be relatively more successful. According to Jones (1995), instrumental theory establishes connections between certain practices and certain end states.

In other words, if you want certain results such as sustained profit, long-term growth, and so on, then carry out certain practices, such as stakeholder management process. *As Berman and colleagues (1999) express it, instrumental stakeholder theory is related to what*

happens if managers treat stakeholders in a certain manner. Stakeholder theory is descriptive because it presents a model to describe what the corporation is, or how organizations interact with stakeholders.

'It describes the corporation as a constellation of a cooperative and competitive interests possessing intrinsic value.

It explains past, present and future states of corporations and their stakeholders' (***Donaldson and Preston, 1995***). *In the descriptive realm, stakeholder theory is concerned about how managers actually deal with stakeholders (Berman, et al., 1999). Finally, stakeholder theory is managerial. It does not simply describe existing situations or predict cause-and-effect relationships, it also recommends attitudes, structures, and practices that taken together constitute stakeholder management.*

Stakeholder management requires simultaneous attention to the legitimate interests of all appropriate stakeholders, both in the establishment of organizational structures and general policies, and in case-by-case decision making (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). Jones (1995) stated that **descriptive, instrumental, and normative stakeholder theories** *address 'what happens,' 'what happens if,' and 'what should happen,' respectively. Descriptive stakeholder theory is intended to describe or explain how firms or their managers actually behave; instrumental theory purports to describe what will happen if managers or firms behave in certain ways;* **normative theory is concerned with the moral propriety of the behavior of firms and/or their managers.**

3.1.4 Stakeholder Management

Stakeholder management is a way of organizing the firm so that it can be responsive to the concerns of its stakeholders because those stakeholders can affect the plans and activities of the firm (Husted, 1998). Freeman (1984) links stakeholder management to the stakeholders' ability to raise their voices with respect to organizational activities, and advocates that stakeholder considerations be incorporated into strategic planning approaches. Freeman proposes a four-step stakeholder management process.

- The first step is concerned with the identification of all relevant stakeholder groups in relation to the issue being addressed.
- Next, for each stakeholder group it must be determined what is their stake and how important they are.
- The third step is about determining how effectively the needs or expectations of each group are currently being met by the company.
- This is followed by the final step, which is modification of corporate policies and priorities to take into consideration stakeholder interests that are not currently met.

From this perspective, corporate success depends on a stakeholder management process in which the interests and demands of stakeholders are identified and dealt with appropriately (Nasi, et al., 1997). The aim of stakeholder management practices could be firm-centered or system-centered goals (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997). Both require broad knowledge of stakeholders. For firm-centered goals, such as survival, economic well being, taking advantage of opportunities, influencing public policy, coalition building, and so forth, managers want to know about all of their

stakeholders. By contrast, for system-centered purposes, managers want an exhaustive list of all stakeholders in order to participate in a fair balancing of various claims and interests within the firm's social system.

3.1.5 *Stakeholder Definition*

Many definitions exist in strategic literature. Freeman's classic definition, quoted earlier, is considered to be one of the broadest *(Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997)*. **In contrast, a narrower definition by Clarkson (1995) states that stakeholders are voluntary or involuntary risk bearers.**

Carroll (1993) said that stakeholders are 'those groups or individuals with whom the organization interacts or has interdependencies' and 'any individual or group who can affect or is affected by the actions, decisions, policies, practices or goals of the organization.

' Starik (1995) suggested that the stakeholder concept be expanded to include any naturally occurring entity that affects or is affected by organizational performance.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) say stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity.

Others defined stakeholders as groups or individuals who 'have an interest in the actions of an organization and . . . the ability to influence it' (Savage, et al., 1991). They stated that stakeholders can express interest and influence the practices of an organization. Thus, a stakeholder qualifies if it has either power to affect the firm or a stake in the firm's performance. By these analyses, stakeholders have the potential to help or harm the company.

Clarkson (1995) **suggests another definition, stakeholders are 'persons or groups that have, or claim, ownership, rights, or interests in a corporation and its activities, past, present**, **or future.**' He classified stakeholders as primary and secondary stakeholders.

A primary stakeholder group is one without whose continuing participation the corporation cannot survive; there is a high level of interdependence between the corporation and its primary stakeholders.

 Clarkson defines secondary stakeholder groups as 'those who influence or affect, or are influenced and affected by, the corporation, but they are not engaged in transactions with the corporation and are not essential for its survival.'

Secondary stakeholders are diverse and include those who are not directly engaged in the organisation's economic activities but are able to exert influence or are affected by the organisation. Mitchell, Agle, and Wood (1997) emphasised the need to have 'broad knowledge of actual and potential actors and claimants in the firm's environment.'

In an effort to analyse how scholars working with stakeholder theory have narrowed the widely cited definition of Freeman (1984), they reviewed stakeholder concepts. **They argued that narrowing the meaning of 'stakeholder' requires applying sorting criteria. Their review found that power and legitimacy are the core attributes of a stakeholder**

identification typology and added another attribute— urgency—to their stakeholder identification model. Thus, they identified
three dimensions of stakeholder salience:

(1) the power that a particular stakeholder group is perceived to hold,

(2) the legitimacy that the stakeholder group is considered to have, and

(3) the perceived urgency of the stakeholder group's demands.

3.2 *Stakeholder Theory Applied to Tourism Destinations*

Stakeholder theory has been applied as a planning and management tool by Sautter and Leisen (1999); Yuksel, Bramwell, and Yuksel, (1999); and Getz and Jamal (1994).

Robson and Robson (1996) have applied the theory as an ethical business management tool where they argued that stakeholders should take part in decision making and stakeholder concerns, goals, and values should be included in the strategic framework of tourism businesses.
Stakeholder identification and involvement has been recognised as a key step toward achieving partnerships and collaboration within tourism in the studies of both Jamal and Getz (2000) and Medeiros de Araujo and Bramwell (1999).

 Ioannides (2001) applied a stakeholder framework in conjunction with the destination life cycle concept to analyse varying stakeholder attitudes toward tourism and sustainable development at different stages of destination development. Stakeholder theory has also been used as an ethical tool in sustainable tourism marketing by Walsh, Jamrozy, and Burr, (2001).

The application of stakeholder theory to tourism so far has been mostly superficial, with the exception of Hardy and Beeton (2001) who applied stakeholder theory both to identify stakeholder groups and understand their perceptions of sustainable tourism.

The stakeholder concept has largely been defined in a management and organizational context, but the organizational setting of a firm and the concept of a 'destination' that is managed are somewhat similar. In this context, Ryan (2002) argued that 'destinations are also bundles of resources, like companies.'

He also stated that at the strategic level 'destinations seek to configure their product, and to sustain it through adopting a mix of environmentally friendly and economically viable policies.' However, the structure of a destination could be considered even more complex than that of an organisation, as a destination is made up of fragmented suppliers with different types of competing and complementary organisations, multiple sectors, and multiple actors (Pavlovich, 2003).

One way to achieve this multisector, multiactor objective is by responding to the concerns of different stakeholders. Applying stakeholder theory to a destination context requires incorporating stakeholder considerations into the destination's strategic tourism planning.

Based on the seminal work of Freeman (1984), his four steps of stakeholder management process can be applied to tourism destinations within a sustainable tourism perspective, as follows:

(i)Identify all relevant stakeholder groups in relation to STD. Persons, groups, neighborhoods, organisations, institutions, societies, and the natural environment are entities that are generally thought to qualify as actual or potential stakeholders (Starik, 1995; Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997). The tourism literature has listed many different stakeholder groups (Sautter and Leisen, 1999; Ryan, 2002; Timur and Getz, 2002).

The World Tourism Organization (1993) defines major partners for STD as:
- the industry,
- environment supporters, and
- the community or local authority.
- The tourism industry creates *business opportunities, jobs, income, and foreign exchange by providing*
- *an array of tourism services. These services include transportation, accommodation, food and drinks, and travel.*
- *The second partner, environment, is the basis for natural, cultural, and built (man-made) resources that the industry depends on to attract tourists. These stakeholders focus their efforts on balancing the type and extent of tourism activity against the capacity of the resources available.*
- *Finally, the host community is another participant for sustainable tourism decision making. The community is composed of residents, local government, local business organizations, and other local institutions and associations (World Tourism Organization, 1993).*
- *Swarbrooke (1999) defines the host community as all those people who live within the tourist destination. That includes those who own local tourism businesses and their association, who are employed in the tourism industry, and whose life is adversely affected by tourism in terms of air, water, and noise pollution.*

(ii)Determine the stake (potential interest) and importance of each stakeholder group. The importance of each stakeholder will not be determined by their possession of critical resources, such as money, information, personnel, and so on, but in terms of their roles and contributions to STD at the destination level.

The industry wants long-term growth, profitability, and new business opportunities. The importance of this group is related to a destination's level of dependency on the 'products' and services that the industry supplies.
 Government is concerned with the optimum use of the resources where jobs are created and resources are protected.

Because the public sector has economic, social, and ecological responsibilities in developing tourism at all levels, they have important roles (Pearce, 1981; Pearce 1989; Page, 1995).

The economic reasons for developing tourism are to generate *new employment, diversify the economy, increase income levels, and increase revenue from taxes*

(Pearce, 1989; Holden, 2000). Protecting the well being of individuals and promoting cultural awareness of the destination are among the socio-cultural factors that induce the public sector to foster tourism development. The government also undertakes stewardship of the environment and tourism resources so that the agents of development do not destroy the future basis for tourism development.

The community will include both people who benefit from and pay costs associated with tourism development. Their concerns will focus highly on quality of life. Moisey and McCool (2001) stated that local residents and the tourism industry share the common goal of economic and socio-cultural sustainability, whereas the economic and resource sustainability goal is shared between the tourism industry and government bodies. The goal shared between local residents and government bodies is defined as sustainable resource use and protection.

(iii)Determine how effectively the needs or expectations of each group are currently being met by the destination. Numerous destination organisations exist for marketing purposes only, giving rise to what Getz, Anderson, and Sheehan (1998) called a 'policy gap.' Where industry is the dominant voice in these marketing organisations, it has to be asked who speaks for other interest groups or how other policy issues such as the environment and cultural impacts get a voice.

(iv)Modify the destination's tourism development policies and priorities to take into consideration stakeholder interests that are not currently met. This implies both the ability and willingness of destination organisations to act on diverse stakeholder interests as opposed to a narrow, industry-oriented mandate. It might become necessary to determine who the various stakeholders trust to represent their varied interests and formulate a balanced policy.

3.2.1   Tourism Resource Dependent Industry

Conclusively, tourism development generates many issues within the realms of economic, social, cultural, and environmental policy domains. Economic sustainability has in many places become more important than the others, but the social, cultural, and environmental issues do not go away. Tourism is heavily reliant on cultural, natural, social, and ecological resources and the quality of resources of the destination. Tourism does affect and is affected by the environment.

Tourism, being a resource- dependent industry, needs to pay more attention to the concerns of every stakeholder group and deal with them fairly. However, as it has already been discussed, each stakeholder group might approach STD from a different perspective and have different goals, which is a challenge for STD (Moisey and McCool, 2001). When each partner has a different goal for sustainable tourism, consensus building becomes a challenging process (Lane, 1994). It suggests that sustainability can be reached only when stakeholder groups share goals. The size of the circles neither indicates the number of players nor the importance of stakeholders in each group. It suggests that sustainability requires involvement of all relevant stakeholders from three major clusters so that shared meaning and goals among destination stakeholders are achieved.

In an urban destination context, the industry could be the dominant player, whereas in rural and peripheral areas the local authorities or other public agency might be dominant. In highly sensitive ecological environments, a parks authority or environmental groups could be the dominant players. What we argue is that in order

to achieve STD, the relative power of stakeholder groups has to be neutralised. Although collaboration of all relevant stakeholders can overcome power imbalances (Jamal and Getz 1997; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999), stakeholder theory offers a destination development approach where partnerships or relationships with very different stakeholders are built.

3.2.3 Stakeholder Theory Applied to Sustainable Tourism Development

Stakeholder theory allows destinations to consider a wider range of influencers when developing strategy (Polonsky, 1995). When using a stakeholder management approach destinations will be organised in such a way as to enable the optimal balancing of interests. Destinations will be challenged to create a more participative model focussed on the involvement and participation of all relevant stakeholders. Stakeholder management offers a way of developing destinations so that it can be responsive to the concerns of its stakeholders. The stakeholder

management literature is easily adaptable into a format that meets the needs of destinations, especially those faced with trying to develop a sustainable tourism policy. It asserts that destinations have duties to numerous groups and individuals, that these duties are all of equal value, and that to act in a socially, culturally, and environmentally responsible manner the claims of all these groups and individuals must be dealt with fairly. This suggests an agreed-upon 'balance' among competing claims (Humber, 2002). The stakeholder approach would ensure that all parties are identified and their positions noted.

Decision making taken under these conditions is more likely to address all issues. For an example of consensus building among diverse stakeholders, using a round table process, see Ritchie and Crouch (2003).

3.2.4 Balancing Process for Sustainable Tourism Development

Achieving sustainable development requires a balance between conflicting economic, environmental, social, and cultural objectives. This ideal condition cannot be easily accomplished in a multisector, multiactor destination setting.

The first step is concerned with identification of stakeholders for formulating STD policy at the destination level. The entity likely to start the process could be a DMO, a government authority, an industry leader, a visionary, or an external convener such as a consultant. This individual or organisation must already hold legitimacy, or a new group might have to be created. In either case, the initiator should not only be dedicated to the principles of sustainability but also be able to attract (even persuade) individuals and/or organisations from various stakeholder groups to participate.

The initial assembled team could be called 'focal stakeholders.' It will be the responsibility of the focal stakeholders to identify other relevant stakeholders within the three clusters. A destination's stakeholders can be grouped based on their sustainability objectives and perspectives, which may imply grouping according to destination stakeholders' existing and preferred networks. Groups focused on economic growth may be less concerned with environmental protection or poverty of the local communities (Ioannides, 2001), hence prefer doing business with those who share the same goal.

Planning for sustainability requires minimizing ecological and socio-cultural impacts and maximizing economic and social benefits. When the definition, meaning, and/or vision of

sustainable tourism is not shared among stakeholder groups, linkages among stakeholders cannot be articulated, resulting in non-sustainable solutions (Moisey and McCool, 2001). Some stakeholders are likely to hold more resources or initially be more influential than the others, but based on STD principles and stakeholder theory consideration should be given to all, regardless of their power and access to critical resources.

Three clusters or major stakeholder groups have been identified (see Figure 12.1): industry, local authorities/community, and other interest groups to represent natural, socio-cultural, and environmental resources of the destination, including residents' associations. Within each major stakeholder group, every legitimate stakeholder has to be identified by that group rather than by an external agency.
 Stakeholders can be organizations or persons, and the numbers of each are not pertinent. Only the commonality of their voices on important sustainability issues is of concern in this process. In other words, what is proposed is that 'legitimacy' be defined within each cluster.

The notion of legitimacy could be defined as 'a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed systems of norms, values, beliefs and definitions' (Suchman, 1995). Each of the three major stakeholder groups must go through an inclusive process of within-group consultations, then identify their sustainability issues and *prioritize them through consensus building*.

Determining potential interests of each stakeholder group will complete *the second step of the process*. Determining how effectively the needs and expectations of each stakeholder group are being met depends highly on the previous step, determination of each group's stake. If there are no or few relationships (including communication) within each group and between clusters then this step may not be as simple as it appears (Polonsky, 1995). Therefore, it is important that *'central' and 'bridging' organizations are identified in the second step.* The former refers to organizations that have important decision-making and mediating roles, and who are the key to understanding the circulation of ideas and decisions to act collectively, particularly when the individuals are in different organizations (John and Cole 1998).

The latter could be defined as organizations that facilitate exchanges of resources (e.g., information, money, etc.) between less central organizations. Bridging organizations act like 'brokers' and establish ties with less connected or isolated organizations. These organizations will either be at the intersections of existing networks within and between the three main stakeholder groups, or will have to be identified and legitimized through broad-based consultations.

The last step is to formulate or modify the sustainable tourism strategy and policy of the destination so that each stakeholder group's expectations and needs are integrated. This is the process of between-group consensus building. If destination development goals are prioritized by tourism-industry input only, then there is a lack of balance to guide sustainable tourism goals of the destination. Hence, an agency of local government might have greater legitimacy to convene and guide the process, as opposed to a DMO.

3.2.5 Stakeholder Views from Three Cities

Interviews were conducted to understand stakeholders' perspectives on STD in three cities: Calgary (Alberta, Canada: 15 respondents), Victoria (British Columbia, Canada: 12 respondents), and San Francisco (California: 11 respondents). Overall, 15 respondents represented industry, 10 were from government authorities/agents, and the remaining 13 represented various community organizations or institutions. It was found that 'sustainable tourism' holds different meanings to different groups. Basically, the concept has three major dimensions: economic viability, environmental compatibility, and socio-cultural compatibility.

Most of the respondents used the notion of sustainability in the context of economic terms. Very few were able to provide a definition of STD that included all three basic dimensions. When respondents were asked who should be involved in sustainable tourism policy development, there was agreement among stakeholders in all three cities that the DMO, government, and industry are the most important stakeholders. Calgary respondents emphasised the need to include government in particular to provide funding and initiate sustainability awareness and meetings. Victorian and San Franciscan respondents preferred to see their DMO and industry take the lead, rather than governmental bodies. Unexpectedly, very few respondents identified the environment and environmental supporters as one of the legitimate stakeholders. In San Francisco all the governmental respondents identified nongovernmental organizations and other interest groups to represent social, cultural, and natural resources of their city. This reflects the city's sustainable city initiative. The municipal government developed a 'Sustainability Plan for the City of San Francisco, which resulted in creation of the Department of Environment for San Francisco. In 1996 more than 350 San Franciscan community activists and others representing many city
government agencies, more than 100 businesses, and academia gathered in working groups to draft a plan to achieve a sustainable society. In 1997, the goals and objectives of the sustainability plan became policy of the city and county of San Francisco (see <www.sustainable-city. organization>). It should be noted that this plan does not include a sustainable tourism policy.

However, there are relevant implications to tourism businesses and activities as tourism is one of the most important economic activities of the city. Another environmentally sensitive project exists in the city's convention center. In terms of tourism plans or STD policies, there is none in Calgary. However, the City Hall has departments for both environmental management and community-level strategies.

The city's DMO (Tourism Calgary) has only a marketing mandate. In Victoria, where there is neither tourism policy nor a sustainable city development plan, the DMO (Tourism Victoria) is active in dealing with some sustainable development issues. Tourism Victoria has managed to develop tight relationships with a broad list of destination stakeholders. It seems that the strong leadership of Tourism Victoria encouraged destination stakeholders, from industry to community, to engage in partnerships for the preservation of the environment. There was considerably more interest in sustainable tourism in Victoria than either San Francisco or Calgary, because as one of the respondents said 'with the decline in resource-based industries in Victoria, people realized the economic contribution of tourism as a significant industry and there is a growing interest.'

In comparison, the interest in developing sustainable tourism in San Francisco was low. Some of the respondents believed that 'people will now (after September 11) start questioning how we can attract visitors to San Francisco, and keep earning visitor dollars.

That's something new that we need to learn.' It is clear that sustainable tourism in San Francisco was more related to sustaining economic vitality of the local businesses rather than preserving or conserving the resources. When the question of 'how to increase sustainable tourism practices' was asked, respondents from Calgary believed that practicing sustainable tourism requires cooperation and collaboration among the industry and between the industry and the government. It was also believed that enhancing communication among stakeholders is another factor in practicing more sustainable forms of tourism projects. Education of not only the industry people but also government agencies about the principles and benefits of sustainable tourism was identified as one of the ways to increase sustainable tourism practices.

In addition to leadership, respondents from San Francisco highlighted the importance of management support, financial resources, and educated people in practicing sustainable projects. Respondents from Victoria suggested that sustainable tourism practices could be increased in cities by providing leadership and increasing partnerships. Another issue raised in the interviews was that of barriers to sustainable tourism, that is difficulties facing sustainable tourism policy or development projects. Diversity within the tourism industry was identified as one of the biggest challenges. In Calgary and San Francisco there was an emphasis on the need to increase the education level of all stakeholders on the benefits of a sustainable approach in urban settings. Another significant obstacle identified in Calgary was the lack of financial resources allocated for tourism planning or STD. Respondents from Victoria believed that the fragmented nature of the industry, and hence a lack of common interests and expectations among stakeholder groups, made sustainable projects unreachable. Lack of time and clarity of goals also present a challenge to both developing and implementing more sustainable projects.

To eliminate the urban STD barriers, destination stakeholders agreed on the need to come together and work with each other. One respondent from Victoria emphasised the need to involve 'shakers of the town.' Respondents agreed that these 'visionaries' are needed either to 'assemble stakeholders and put everybody on the same page' or 'explain the importance of tourism on the local economy and get community support.' Another respondent identified the value of 'learning to communicate and sharing not only resources but experiences as well' as a tool in eliminating sustainability barriers.

Self Assessment Questions

    (i)   How does tourism development generates many issues within the realms of economic, social, cultural, and environmental policy domains?

    (ii)   How is tourism being a resource-dependent industry in relation to stakeholders?

4.0 Conclusion

This unit established the appropriateness and utility of stakeholder theory and stakeholder management in helping to achieve STD within a destination. A process was presented, based on stakeholder theory, as a preferred way to identify destination stakeholders, understand their perspectives and concerns, and deal with them appropriately by maintaining a balance among competing stakeholder interests. Stakeholder theorists argue that each stakeholder group, regardless of their relative power, has to be given consideration (Nasi, 1995). This explicitly defines one of the principles of sustainable development. These stakeholders must

be working together to achieve sustainability goals. If a broader base stakeholder group engages in collective efforts for goal achievement, destinations will have a better chance in realising their sustainability goals. The recommended stakeholder balancing process (following Freeman) for STD includes the following key elements:

• Commencing with or creating a legitimate focal group of stakeholders;

• Identifying relevant stakeholders *within* each of three major clusters (their numbers and relative power are irrelevant);

• Determining potential interests within clusters and prioritising sustainability issues through consensus building, first within and then between clusters;

• Determining how each cluster's expectations are met by the destination; and

• Modifying the destination's priorities, strategies, and policies to integrate each cluster's sustainability issues. Interviews from three cities with various stakeholders illustrate that there is no one sustainable tourism definition shared by destination stakeholder groups.

5.0 Summary
There are individual rather than organised efforts to practice sustainable tourism. This indicates a challenge in sustainable tourism planning and policy making because individual goals rather than shared destination goals are the norm. The question that deserves immediate attention is 'how to manage stakeholder involvement and balance their interests,' or in other words, 'how to create balance among stakeholders.' Practically, it should be asked 'how to respond to demands of both profitability and STD.' Creating a more participative decision making and strategic policy-making process is the answer implied in the stakeholder management approach. The ultimate key to balancing all the voices of diverse stakeholders is to ignore numbers and relative power in favour of a system that gives equal weight to all legitimate voices.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Achieving sustainable development in tourism requires a balance between conflicting economic, environmental, social, and cultural objectives. **Discuss**?

(ii) Explain the significance of Stakeholder Theory Applied to Sustainable Tourism Development?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) Tourism development generates many issues within the realms of economic, social, cultural, and environmental policy domains. Economic sustainability has in many places become more important than the others, but the social, cultural, and environmental issues do not go away. Tourism is heavily reliant on cultural, natural, social, and ecological resources and the quality of resources of the destination. Tourism does affect and is affected by the environment.

(ii) Tourism, being a resource- dependent industry, needs to pay more attention to the concerns of every stakeholder group and deal with them fairly. However, as it has already been discussed, each stakeholder group might approach STD

from a different perspective and have different goals, which is a challenge for STD When each partner has a different goal for sustainable tourism, consensus building becomes a challenging process (Lane, 1994). It suggests that sustainability can be reached only when stakeholder groups share goals.

UNIT 15   Global Category of Travel and Targeting segments in the travel industry

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2.0   Introduction

3.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

UNIT 15   Global Category of Travel and Targeting segments in the travel industry
CONTENT

1.0   Introduction

By now, just about everyone who earns a living in travel knows that its constant growth since the end of World War II has vaulted it into the lofty position as the largest industry in the world. And it has occupied that spot for several years (Scott, 2000). Because it continues on an upward climb, except for temporary market disruptions (war, regional terrorism, disease outbreaks, and a soft economy), it should be able to make that claim for at least most of the current decade. Its size exceeds the fields of health services, technology, agriculture, automotive, and a number of other major industry categories that, at one time, were significantly larger.

In this unit, we shall discuss the various category of Travel and its segments, inclusive of development and growth.
Travel claims the top spot without including expenditures for movies, dining out (when not travelling), and related items. The amazing growth of travel has resulted in another characteristic that is not recognized as often. In spite of its still bright future, it has become a mature industry. That fact has consequences for those intent on choosing it as a career or hoping to start a new business venture.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain the meaning of Adventure travel in global tourism

Identify who a budget traveler is in global travel

Define what is meant by family travel in global tourism

Know who luxury travelers are in global tourism

Understand the meaning of the baby boomer generation in targeting segment

Discuss the importance of trip planning and booking in tourism

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Global Category of Travel and Targeting segments in the travel industry

Not included in this analysis are travel segments related to personal sports, such as golfers, tennis players, downhill skiers, and cross country skiers. These segments are reviewed in a recently completed book by the author on marketing leisure travel (Plog, 2004). Without going into detail, travel agencies and travel packagers that serve golfers and downhill skiers can make good money. Those that focus on tennis players and cross country skiers will have difficulty. Quite obvious in what has been presented so far is that this discussion concentrates

on the leisure market. Business travel has many common attributes throughout the world and does not have the growth potential of the leisure market. Businesses cut back on travel during the economic downturn in the early part of the twenty-first century and have discovered new, acceptable substitutes for some portions of corporate travel. And how important is leisure travel? In almost every nation, it dominates travel patterns. In the United States, it comprises 72 percent of all trips; business travel only 28 percent (NFO/Plog, 2003).

3.1.1 Source of Data

Information supporting the concepts presented in this unit comes from the 2003 American Traveler Survey (ATS). ATS is a very large, annual survey conducted by NFO/Plog Research (more than 10,000 completed surveys) since 1995. Based on a random sample of all U.S. households, it collects extensive data on a broad range of leisure and business travel patterns, allowing the opportunity to observe trends over time. Although it focuses on the U.S. market, the trends it discovers are mirrored in many developed countries throughout the world.

The author no longer has a direct association with Plog Research (the company was acquired by NFO Worldwide in 1996) but continues to cooperate with its research staff on various matters. Data are collected from the ongoing household panel of nearly 2 million households developed by Plog Research's parent company, NFO Worldwide. The panel is structured to be representative of all U.S. households by matching current census criteria quite exactly. Except for the baby boomer group, the segments reviewed in this article are self-defined by ATS survey participants. In the survey, respondents identified the segments that apply to them as travelers.

This approach allows overlap between segments in a manner that reflects the marketplace. Thus, a budget traveler could also qualify as an adventure traveler, or a family traveler, and/or a gay traveler. For this reason, totals across the segments add to more than 100 percent. Budget and luxury groups tend not to overlap, however. The baby boomer segment is defined by age (i.e., anyone born between the years 1946 and 1964). Allowing overlap also tends to wash out potential differences between groups because the same people appear in more than one category.

In spite of that fact, true differences emerge between the groups, as will be seen. Also, the adventure travel segment really consists of two markets—soft adventure and hard adventure—both of which primarily take place outdoors. Hard adventure trips usually involve more vigorous activity, with more of the trip planned and experienced personally without support from a travel provider. And there could be some degree of personal risk of injury. Soft adventure is less physically active, usually includes more support services (such as a van to pick up straggling cyclists on a tour of the fall colors in New England, hotel accommodations at night instead of sleeping in a bedroll, etc.). However, because the two groups tend to overlap to a considerable degree (hard adventure travellers also take many soft trips), the two groups are combined into a single segment for purposes of this analysis.

Based on these criteria, the size of each segment in the adult travel marketplace is:

• Adventure travelers: 15 percent,

• Budget travelers: 41 percent,

• Family travelers: 55 percent,

• Luxury travelers: 10 percent, and

• Baby boomers: 51 percent.

3.1.2 FAMILY TRAVEL

The two dominant segments, family travel and baby boomers, hardly seem like segments because of their size. However, both receive considerable attention among travel marketers for a couple of reasons. Boomers travel for leisure far more than their parents did a generation ago. With that segment continuing to grow during the current decade, the question arises about whether this market is as good as other smaller specialty niches. That topic is addressed in this article.

The viability of the family market is a subject of continuing debate but a number of professionals suggest that it has strong potential for increased growth and development. For example, magazines that target families work hard at presenting the case that family travel is a large and growing market in order to attract travel advertisers. But, with families facing large financial commitments and parents not yet at their earnings peaks, the question remains as to whether it is a profitable segment for most travel providers.

The remaining segments truly represent smaller segments (niches). Luxury travelers have long been recognized as good clients. They provide high profit margins, but the segment's limited size means that only a few in the travel business can serve their needs. Although small in size, is it worth the effort for selected companies to consider targeting this group. Whatever segment is considered, the basic questions remain the same for any company wanting to expand its reach into specialty markets. Which groups do they believe they can reach effectively through marketing and promotion programmes, and which of these groups can provide opportunities for growth and profitability? This discussion addresses the topic of the characteristics and marketing viability of each of the groups.

3.1.3 Segment Travel Patterns

A first indication of differences in travel characteristics are explained in this unit.In all data presented here, a trip is defined as 'requiring an overnight stay.' It shows the percentage who have taken domestic and international trips in the past 12 months, and the percentage planning trips within three years. Several points are obvious in the chart.

• The majority of all segments travel domestically, but with significant differences. Gays equal the average for the total population, whereas all other groups exceed it. International travel shows more dramatic differences, with the luxury market exceeding all others (as would be expected) and adventure travellers in second place. Note that gays demonstrate a pattern of strong increased interest in future domestic trips, and an even more dramatic increase in planning future international trips. This market, small as it may be, shows strong potential
for growth.

• The baby boomer market is considered to be golden by most professionals in the travel field. Its size, propensity to travel, and the fact that populations in developed countries around the world continue to age, place it high on most travel marketers' lists of groups they want to attract. However, it measures only slightly above averages for the total population on the characteristics measured (i.e., visits to domestic and international destinations and planned trips).

• Budget travellers, surprisingly, take more trips domestically and internationally than the population as a whole, and are also planning more future trips. In contrast, the family market concentrates more on domestic travel and measures at average for international travel. The patterns noted here will, to some extent, continue as other information is presented on their travel habits and motivations. Table 14.2 provides specific information about the characteristics of the most recent leisure trip. Note that:

• The luxury market, as would be expected, leads on all characteristics— amount spent in total, per diem expenditures, number of nights away, and number of activities on the trip. • Adventure travellers place a strong second, however, on most characteristics, spending more than average and taking relatively longer trips (nights away).

• The baby boomer market stands out in an important way. It spends fewer nights away from home than average, but its per diem expenditures measure second only to the luxury market. Thus, boomers truly offer good opportunities for travel providers because of the size of the market (51 percent of total travelers) and the amount they spend when travelling. That market will continue to grow in importance during the next decade. The Travel Industry Association estimates that boomers will have '$2 trillion in buying power by 2007' in the United States (*Los Angeles Times*, 2003).

3.1.4 LUXURY TRAVELERS
Luxury travelers take the most trips, whether by air or car, followed by *adventure travelers*. But Table 14.3 also points out that gays tend to be heavier air travel users, an important point in considering the value of any segment. Those who travel by air also rent more hotel rooms because of fewer visits to friends and relatives; sign up for more rental cars; and book more packages, tours, and cruises.

The family travel market measures lowest compared with other segments on total trips (along with boomers), and much lighter on air travel (also along with boomers). Families simply cannot afford as much air travel because of the need to buy an average of four air tickets, not two, and their continuing financial obligations from raising their children.

Another way to determine the relative value of a segment is to examine the degree to which its trip taking is spread throughout the year, rather than concentrating on the most heavily travelled summer months. The desired goal for most travel providers should be to serve niches that travel almost as frequently in the fall and spring as they do in the summer. And, if they also take frequent trips during winter months, that provides a significant bonus.

The reason is obvious. Travel agencies, airlines, tour operators, resorts, and leisure destinations often have difficulty meeting summer demand. During off seasons, however, they frequently beg for customers. Off-season travel has gradually increased over the past four decades as resorts and destinations become more effective in their marketing approaches, but travel providers still have a need to fill empty beds during soft times Based

on the criteria of spreading their trips more equally throughout the year, the best segments are the luxury group, gay travelers, and those who seek adventure trips, in that order. Seasonal differences in the amount of travelling among these 3 groups vary only by 13 percent to 19 percent. These segments also travel more during the lowest season of the year— the winter months. In contrast, the budget travel market, families, and boomers show a much larger difference in seasonal variation with a 25 to 28 point spread. Thus, these groups can cause problems for travel providers that need to keep their operations going on a year-round basis.

3.1.5 *Trip Planning and Booking*

Knowing about information sources used by various segments in planning trips can help to target these groups efficiently and effectively. It offers some interesting insights. Except for turning to travel agencies, some people use more information sources than any other group. They go to the Internet quite often (75 percent), and also rely heavily on recommendations from friends (62 percent). But they also select various print sources and call toll free numbers regularly. Apparently they are more concerned about ensuring that all facets of their trips meet their needs. Luxury travelers place second in use of multiple sources and the highest percentage of this group (33 percent) turn to travel agents to help them plan trips.

Adventure travelers, who tend to vary their vacation experiences from year to year, also rely on travel agents quite often to help them plan their next venture, and they also search the Internet to get answers to many of their questions. Budget and family travelers, along with baby boomers, tend to search less for travel information than those in other niche groups. In booking trips, the Internet has been growing dramatically in importance in recent years, a fact widely known in the industry. Again, gay travelers lead the pack, with 58 percent booking at least one portion of their trip on the Internet in the past 12 months, compared with 54 percent for luxury travellers, 51 percent for adventure travellers, and less than onehalf for the remaining segments (46 percent for boomers, 44 percent for budget travellers, and 41 percent for the family market). As a result, Internet advertising, especially on travel sites, should be considered an important part of most marketing programmes targeting each of these groups.

3.1.6 *Travel Motivations*

In targeting these markets, it is important to understand the reasons why each group likes to travel. The ATS questionnaire includes a set of 14 travel-related motivations and asks respondents to select from the list the ones that apply to them. This information appears in Table 14.6. The data indicate that:

• All groups tend to measure above average for the total population (stronger reasons to take trips), as indicated by the fact that they give higher rankings to nearly every item. The highest rated selection in all cases is the 'chance to relax and get rid of stress.' Luxury travelers and adventure seekers in particular select more motivations as important for them than do other groups. An opportunity to spend time with a spouse and the lack of schedules and commitments are next in order of importance for the population, in general. Collectively this configuration points to the fact the most people seek the chance to unwind and recharge their psychic batteries on a leisure trip.

• Adventure travelers stand above other segments in their dual interest in an active vacation experience and in also wanting to participate in culturally related activities. Related to the

active portion of their trips, they achieve highest scores on such items as seeking 'a chance to see and do new things,' 'I feel alive and energetic when I travel,' 'I like to be outdoors,' and 'I like to test my physical abilities with an outdoor adventure.' Their strong interest in culturally based experiences is evidenced by wanting to 'gain knowledge of history and of other cultures,' and a desire to experience vacations that help to 'gain perspective on life.'

• Luxury travelers show some similarities to the adventure group in that they also measure well above average on all items except seeking 'time for friends' when travelling. More than any other group, they believe that travel helps to reduce stress that is part of their lives. Although not their top rated item, they rank above other groups in 'It's nice to have others serve and wait on me.' In general they demonstrate a high level of energy, enthusiasm, and interest in the world around them when they travel.

• Gay travelers present a very unique profile. They also place getting rid of stress as their most important motivation, and they demonstrate an interest in the world in which they live by measuring strongly on wanting to see and do new things and in their desire to gain personal perspective when they travel. Having time with friends is more important for them than for other groups or the general population. Interestingly, they also measure highest in seeking a sense of solitude and isolation. Surprisingly, 40 percent express a desire to spend more time with a spouse. This reference may include a current partner or a spouse from an earlier marriage because some had led heterosexual lives at one time.

• The family market, more than other groups, believes that travel provides a welcome opportunity to spend more time with one's spouse. And, as would be expected, they seek the opportunity to get rid of stress, probably caused by the commitments and problems of raising children. But they measure lower than other groups on all items related to a need to gain perspective or to experience an active and energetic vacation—a consistent finding in all of the author's research. On most dimensions, however, they measure at average levels for the total population.

• The budget market and boomers lack distinctive profiles, measuring at average levels on most dimensions. Broad-based marketing programmes could capture the attention of both groups. The ATS also asks respondents to indicate, on a 10-point scale (10 = most important), the importance they place on leisure travel in their lives (Table 14.7). Although all groups rate it strongly (7.5 and above), luxury travelers and the adventure group rank it highest (8.7 and 8.6, respectively). Those who are more price conscious (budget travellers) also score well above average (7.9 versus 7.3 overall), indicating that vacation trips are important to them, even if they spend less and participate in fewer activities than most segments. Some markets and family travelers are close behind in the importance they give (7.8 and 7.7, respectively). Boomers place last at 7.5, only slightly above the importance assigned to travel by the overall market.

3.1.7 *Demographic Characteristics*
Demographic groupings define most marketing plans. Travel providers generally target higher income groups that have sufficient income to use their services. Age also becomes a factor. Tour companies, cruise lines, resorts, and other travel companies provide products that appeal to certain age groups. The question arises, then, as to how these segments differ on age, income, education, and marital status. It can be assumed that the luxury segment will have the highest income. A common assumption also is that they are older because income

usually correlates with career advancement. The greater the assets of a household unit, the more likely they will travel because they have extra resources when needed, independent of annual income. A good case in point is retired couples. Income may be 60 percent or lower than what it was when either or both spouses were employed. However, high equity allows them to pursue leisure travel nearly at will. Table 14.8 confirms some expectations but also provides some unanticipated results.

• All segments exceed household income for the population in general. The luxury group, as would be expected, earns considerably more than any other segment. However, boomers, who fall behind on some travel dimensions, place second in income. Thus, they have income to travel even more than they currently do, but their travel motivations are not as strong as some other segments. The budget group measures lowest on income, as would be expected, with gays slightly above them. But a second demographic characteristic makes the gay group a more viable target for marketing programmes than might at first be considered (see next point). The remaining segments place between these groups.

• Marital status follows patterns that would be expected. Overall, about 7 out of 10 persons in the population are married, with the family market having the largest percentage and gays placing well below average, as would be expected. However, a hidden conclusion lies in the data. Because most gays are single, their reported household income is based on one wage earner, not two. But, when they travel, they usually go in pairs. Thus, they would pay for only one-half of the cost of a trip and can actually afford to put more money into their travel arrangements than might be projected on the basis of their income.

This conclusion is bolstered to some degree in examining household wealth. Their *household equity is second only to the luxury group*. Considering that their assets also are measured for only one person, not two, it indicates that they rank well above average (per person) in this table. Gays offer a good potential to increase their travel spending. Adventure travelers place second in household asset value, with the budget group at the bottom.

• Age provides some additional surprises. Little spread exists between the niche groups. Boomers are somewhat older and gays are the youngest. And all are younger than the total population. But *the luxury group is the same age as most segments*, not older as might be expected based on their higher incomes and greater assets. Thus, this is a group that has been financially successful earlier than average in life and is able to enjoy a grander lifestyle when they travel.

3.1.8 Segment Profile Summary
Although this unit has minimized the amount of data presented, it still can be difficult to come to clear conclusions about the relative viability of the six segments reviewed. This section presents a summary, examining each segment separately. The presentation is from the bottom up (i.e., the least desirable segment to the most desirable).

The purpose is to provide additional understanding to travel providers about which groups might fit best in their marketing plans, and what kinds of programmes could offer the greatest appeal.
First, some points for clarification. In making comparisons, it should be remembered that today's populations travel far more often and more internationally than generations preceding them. Leisure travel has grown at a compounded rate since the end of World War II. Thus, all comparisons between groups can be judged only on a relative basis. Segments that rank last

in this list of six venture forth more often than the generation that returned home after World War II. As a result, almost all niche markets are viable as targets to some travel providers.

Second, targeting segments (niches) generally provides greater opportunities for initial success than launching a programme designed to appeal to the broad market. Established companies typically dominate the mass market making it difficult for new entrants that lack the financial and strategic resources to offer an effective challenge.

However, the limited size of some segments also means that it is possible that a diminishing number of potential new customers will occur at some point.

Therefore, *segment marketing* must almost always include plans to add new segments at some point to ensure continued revenue growth. Continued success requires constant adaptation to new challenges and opportunities. It is meant to be conceptual, not statistical. It provides a quick way for the reader to determine the viability of each of the segments reviewed. Plus, minus and equal signs compare each group to the average for the population, not to each other. A single plus (**+**) indicates the group is somewhat above average on that dimension. Double and triple pluses point to even stronger differences. Similarly, minus signs, presented as (**-**) indicate below average characteristics. And, equal signs (**=**) indicate average characteristics, again compared with the population at large.

3.1.9 *Budget Travelers*

No surprises here. It would be expected that budget travellers would rank at the bottom for consideration in marketing plans among the six segments reviewed. With average income, fewer household assets, and average age, they have been less successful in their careers than members of other segments reviewed. So why even consider them as viable targets, especially because few companies with which this author has consulted have ever developed programmes for this group? Well, there are an awful lot of them around. A total of 41 percent identify themselves as budget travellers, a huge slice of the market. And they do travel, even internationally.

Their motivations for travel measure high, and they are above average on the number of U.S. trips taken and air travel. The importance of this market can be seen in the number of roadside motels and family restaurant chains that focus on this group. Like most people, their need for vacations rests on the desire to get away from daily stress, avoid schedules, and spend more time with a spouse or family. Even budget travelers want the same sense that they have left town to do something special and recharge their psychic batteries.

Marketing programmes to this group often achieve success by emphasizing *value added features,* such as kids sleep free at hotels/motels, free in-room television, half price second entrees at restaurants, one price includes all rides at theme parks, and so on. And, it is important to stress the value of these features to convince them that they have gotten a good deal. The important point is that this group should not be taken for granted. Good marketing strategies always require careful thought, planning, and execution.

3.2 *The Family Market*

Perhaps no group, in the author's experience, gets more attention as a segment and is touted as offering greater potential for development than the family market. The travel trade press, parts of the consumer media, and speakers at travel conferences regularly suggest that its potential is extraordinary. They point to the enormous size of the segment (55 percent of all

travellers, according to ATS data presented in this discussion), and the continuing need for families to get away together. Some travel groups that serve them have become billion dollar enterprises. But, as pointed out earlier, the types of companies that achieve success are relatively limited. These include theme parks, movie theaters, arcades, low-priced motels, and family-oriented (moderate-priced) restaurants.

But even these groups face the problem of seasonality. How can revenues be sustained during the nine months of the year when families do not travel because school is in session? Disney added adult instructional programmes at its Disney World location in Orlando without much success. Several hotels in Las Vegas added family fare, including a theme park within the grounds of the MGM Grand and live action shows for children at Treasure Island to increase summer traffic. But most of these were dropped. MGM converted the theme park to convention space and Treasure Island shows, although still active, have not developed a family market.

The good news is that families want to travel. Their travel interests measure well above average for the total population, and they also take more domestic trips than most. On the bad news side, they often stay with friends and relatives when they leave home, spending few dollars on hotel rooms. They also use travel agents less, and do not exceed population averages for air travel, international trips, number of trips, or days away on each trip. And, the old unsolvable problem of seasonality creates difficulty for destinations and travel providers about how to create demand for shoulder months and off seasons.

The most common travel motives dominate their interests. Like most people, they feel a strong need to relax on a trip, get rid of stress, enjoy quiet moments with a spouse, spend more time with children, get involved in activities different than what they do while at home, and especially to avoid schedules. Destination marketing that emphasises this kind of vacation experience will have a better chance of success. And, families particularly like packages that include a number of elements for a single price. It implies value (very important to them) and convenience, making the entire trip seem reasonably priced and more convenient. It's a large market, but consider the risks before entering.

Even more important, destinations and other travel providers that offer multigenerational activities will do best. One of the most difficult challenges facing families is the need to satisfy the different interests of their mixed aged children, preteens, and teenagers, on the same trip.

3.2.1 Baby Boomers
As a segment, boomers changed the world. From the time they were infants to when they entered the work force, formed families, and became empty nesters, this huge segment impacted most major industries. Now it's their turn to impact travel. Since they graduated from high school, boomers have pushed along the travel bulge like no other group. A trip to Europe became almost a right of passage into adulthood. They toured the world with few dollars in their pockets and little concern about their futures. As they matured, they kept on travelling at a rate much higher than generations preceding them. Now travel companies salivate because, as boomers increasingly reach the empty nest stage, they can now pursue their long-standing interests in leisure travel to a degree not possible while raising a family. They have equity and income to go where they want to and when they want to.

As a segment, the data suggest that they measure only slightly above average on travel propensity and related characteristics. But that hides the obvious fact that they now contribute heavily to what is the average (51 percent of the travel population). Few travel providers or destinations can achieve great success by ignoring this group. Their travel profile includes that they take more domestic and international trips than most, have an above average interest in travel, and have the income and household equity to pursue their interests with relative freedom.

More than most they take trips to get rid of stress, enjoy a quiet and relaxing time with a spouse, and gain new perspective on the world around them. Because they are so well travelled, they consciously seek new places to visit that often are off the beaten path. This sense of discovery invigorates them and they return home feeling refreshed and ready to take on the daily challenges of their active and full lives. The primary message, however, is that many travel offerings designed to attract smaller segments will also appeal to subsegments of this group. Their broad interests and travel propensity make them ideal targets for a variety of companies. But usually only well-established travel organizations have sufficient financial strength and depth of research intelligence to develop new programmes that will successfully withstand the heat of intense competition from other travel providers.

3.2.2 Adventure Travelers

The adventure traveler segment also receives a lot of attention by travel prognosticators. In this case, they have it right. Those who like a dose of adventure added to their trips make excellent targets for marketing programmes. They take more domestic trips than average, and stand out even more in the amount of international travel they pursue. They spend considerably more while away, take longer trips, and have household income and personal assets well above the norm.

The importance they place on travel measures is very high, and they are also more likely to get away during the off season. Their interest patterns reflect very active minds and energetic lifestyles. They not only choose to participate in more activities on their trips than any other group, but they have a strong intellectual curiosity as well. They want to explore new places and meet new and different kinds of people, preferring to select a different destination each year rather than returning to the same old places. The benefits of targeting this group are multiple. As was mentioned, the group includes hard adventure and soft adventure travel.

Most travel providers and destinations should focus on the soft adventure market for several reasons. This group wants more services included as part of their travel arrangements. As a result, they spend more on each trip and especially on the kinds of services that the travel industry provides. Hard adventure types are likely to go to places lacking in hotels and restaurants and, therefore, require little back up or assistance. And, as the boomer population ages, with smaller population segments following behind, more strenuous types of vacation packagers will face declining sales in the future. Further, and most important, the amount of soft adventure travellers outnumbers hard adventure travellers by about four to one. These advantages should not be ignored. One final point: the market for adventure travel, especially soft adventure, is larger than indicated here. Fifteen percent of the population identify themselves as adventure travellers. But, when data are examined, about one-fourth of the population takes soft adventure trips each year. This segment deserves a closer look.

3.2.3 Luxury Travelers

A stand-up comic during the Borsch-belt era used the line, 'Folks, let me tell you. I've been rich and I've been poor, and being rich is better.' Data certainly confirm that little observation. Any group that successfully penetrates this segment will enjoy multiple benefits. Superlatives describe their travel characteristics. They take the most trips and longer trips among the segments reviewed, both domestic and international, go to more distant places, and are more likely to fly than go by car as compared with other groups.

They also use travel agents more in spite of the fact that they make use of multiple information sources to plan each trip than any group. With the highest household incomes and the greatest personal assets, they have the freedom to pursue all travel interests. To the uninformed, it might seem that this group most often would seek relatively inactive travel arrangements. We usually associate wealth with advancing age and sedentary lifestyles. As was noted, however, they are the youngest segment reviewed. And, when they travel, they are second only to adventure travellers in the number of activities pursued and the strenuousness of these activities. Further, they measure above average on nearly every travel motive measured.

More than any group, they feel a need to get rid of stress, and avoid any semblance of schedules or commitments while away from home. Their active minds lead them to seek out and participate in new experiences, meet new and interesting people, and learn about history and culture of places they have read about. And travel also provides a chance to be more romantic and alone with a loved one. Because they measure highest on the importance that they assign to travel in their lives, they also return more often to travel agents for help in planning upcoming trips. A better segment cannot be found. The only problem is that the segment is relatively small. At only 10 percent of the total market, competition for this elite group will always be intense. And any company that achieves success with them can count on imitators. Excellent service and follow through are prerequisites to achieving service to the high-end market. And serving their needs requires offering them more choices to satisfy their diversity of interests than is true for any other segment.

3.2.4 Product Development

Product development specialists in marketing departments of consumer companies often talk about the six magic words that define their quest— *Find a need and fill it*. In a mature market, such as travel, perhaps a variant of that phrase is required. Specifically, the goal would be to *find a segment and target it*. The formula for success obviously is two sided—the segment must be identified clearly and the travel products offered must focus on their travel interests. That task becomes increasingly difficult over time because travel is now a mature industry with all of its associated problems of stiff competition and slower growth. But, good ideas will always rise to the surface if they have been planned, researched, and marketed properly.

Self Assessment Questions

(i) Why is it that the formation of new tour and travel package companies followed an even more vigorous path?

(ii) Explain why competition within tourism industry leads to obvious consequences of pricing pressure?

4.0 Conclusion

Travel has an important advantage over most other industries with which it can be compared. It is an exciting and challenging field to the point that many people refuse to leave it even when they could make more money doing something else. Selling televisions or pursuing a career as an accountant somehow does not seem as exciting or challenging as becoming involved in leisure travel. And people who enjoy what they do for a living are more likely to achieve personal success. The psychological rewards of pursuing a travel career often outweigh some of its disadvantages. The segments identified in this discussion obviously are not inclusive. The potential for new groupings is almost unlimited. But market size should always be a consideration. Some clients have asked this author to look at the viability of segments that are so narrowly defined that the opportunity for success is slight. One client hoped to target high-income families interested in adventure travel. The small size of the market (about 1 percent of the population), the fact that families would only consider an adventure trip every three or four years, the difficulty of satisfying everyone on the same trip (wife, husband, and different age and different sex children), and the high cost of media to reach this group combine to make it a nonstarter. Another client hoped to target high-income boomers who would like to participate in Antarctic vacations aboard an ice breaker ship.

5.0 Summary

But most of the same problems exist, with the added difficulty that, as the baby boomer group ages, it will pursue less strenuous, more comfortable lifestyles. This summary is presented not to discourage the development of new travel products, but with the hope that putting more effort into researching and understanding a market segment in advance will increase the rate of successful new ventures. Because of the broad diversity of the kinds of people who travel, the industry can accommodate new ideas very rapidly. Smart people will always find a road to success, even if some of their ideas may seem somewhat off the wall at times. Travel welcomes all newcomers—the naïve, the smart, the aggressive, and even the somewhat timid! There's room for all if good thinking and planning are done upfront.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) What is adventure traveler segment and why does it also receives a lot of attention by travel prognosticators?

(ii) What is luxury travel, give three examples of luxury travel in global tourism?

(iii) What are the differences and similarities between adventure and luxury travels?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) The formation of new tour and travel package companies followed an even more vigorous path. But most do not recognize the difficulties of facing off against well-established, financially stable, large tour operators who are able to adapt to a changing competitive environment. Few of these start ups manage to become profitable or financially solvent. CEOs of hotel chains not infrequently get invitations to form new hotel companies and, in spite of hotel companies gobbling up competitors, a proliferation of brands has occurred. But, again, few made themselves into recognizable, preferred brands. All of this leads to a greater number of players in every segment of the travel industry. That trend will continue, but on at a slower pace.

(ii) *Pricing pressure*: Competition leads to an obvious consequence— pricing pressure. In order to grow a company, or protect market share when competition increases, established companies drop their prices. For a time after deregulation of the U.S.

airline industry in 1978, major carriers were able to protect their well-honed variable pricing models (charge business travelers more than leisure travelers) and make strong profits. However, a few discount airlines and start-up carriers ultimately discovered a new formula for success. The new kids on the block have managed not only to survive but to grow and achieve greater profitability than the high cost major airlines.

UNIT 16 **Phenomenon of Tourism & Concept of Global Tourism Determination**

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UNIT 16   Phenomenon of Tourism & Concept of Global Tourism Determination

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

In this unit, we shall study the unraveled the second approach on *Global Tourism concept*, the need to place the consumer at the heart of tourism was determined. In order to understand the consumer, a coordinated ongoing global measurement process was seen as a basic step.

At any stage of development information is vital to all destination areas. An international approach to data collection and analysis was recommended as the best solution.

This unit has been designed to reflect the impact of terrorism, economic recession, disease outbreaks in cattle and humans, and the invasion of Iraq. Each of these events has had an impact on the propensity to travel and on the previously identified travel styles.
The revised unit has three parts: a summary of the information presented in the previous edition, a discussion of the impact of global events on tourism, and some thoughts on research and the future. The basic tenets of the major units are used here as the introduction to the new unit.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Understand that global tourism concept is the need to place the consumer at the heart of tourism

Discuss the meaning of phenomenon of tourism and economics related to travel.

Identify what the travel philosophy is all about in global tourism

Explain the meaning of incidence of travel in global tourism issues

Know what a changed tourists meant and its relevance to passages

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Phenomenon of Tourism & Concept of Global Tourism Determination

Tourism researchers have traditionally focused on measuring consumption and economics related to travel. *Global Tourism concept*, the need to place the consumer at the heart of tourism was determined. Measures such as expenditures per day, number of visits, number of trips, and the like reflect the concern with economic impact and consumption. Little consistent effort has been made in developing a basic understanding of the consumer. A body of consumer knowledge based on empirical evidence is needed in order to thoroughly examine the phenomenon of tourism, and the place of the consumer as tourist. A number of questions can be hypothesised to provide a sense of direction in developing a better understanding of the consumer.

1. What proportion of the population of a country travels and how frequently?

2. How is this proportion changing over time, if it is indeed changing?

3. Who are becoming travelers and who are ceasing to be?

4. Is the proportion of travelers in a population uniform by sex, age, education, income, and other standard socio-demographic measures?

5. For those people who travel, do they all think about travel the same way or can succinct groups in the population be described based on this thought process?

6. If such groups can be described, are they unique to individual countries or do they occur on a wider basis?

7. Are these groups consistent or do they change over time? The seldom used concept of styles of travel can be useful as a way of thinking about the kind of analysis needed to answer these questions and to develop useful concepts related to understanding the travelling consumer. For the purpose of this discussion, travel style is defined as the way people perceive, organize, and execute travel. Two streams of information are included within this definition:

1. The incidence of travel

2. The way people think about the travel that they do. To illustrate the above, empirical data from several sources will be examined to:
1. Determine the incidence of travel in two countries and indicate the type of information that can be derived from incidence data,

2. Describe and classify segments of travelers, and

3. Examine changes, if any, that may have taken place over time.

3.1.1 Incidence of Travel
The incidence of travel is the proportion of the population of an area that travels. For practical purposes, the examination of the empirical data will be limited to a minimum age of 14 in one case and 15 in the other. Trip purpose is limited to pleasure travel. It should be

noted that an international agreement on limiting factors would be required in order to make the data comparable internationally. Data on the incidence of travel are inconsistent. This is unfortunate because the incidence of travel is one of the most important measures of the consumption of travel; the characteristics of the consumer; whether the market is growing, declining, or remaining constant; and how fast changes are taking place. It is also the best measure of who is in the travel market, and of who is entering and leaving it. Together with frequency of trip data, it is also the basis for differentiating the heavy and light users of travel.

3.1.2 Data Sources and Analysis

The data used to illustrate the incidence of travel are drawn from the annual German Travel Analysis and the biennial Canadian Travel Survey. Both of these studies consistently measure travel intensity. The German study conducted since 1970 is based on 6000 interviews of those over the age of 14. Since 1990 the survey has included all of unified Germany. The Canadian study covers the population age 15 years and older and includes 6000 households.

Both surveys asked respondents if they had taken a holiday trip in the period preceding the survey. The German study clearly showed consistent growth in the proportion of the population that had taken at least one five-day holiday trip. Analysis of the data performed for *Stern* magazine concluded that: 'at all levels of income consumers with higher education are at the advantage' (*Stern*, 1983). Thus education level is an essential aspect of travel incidence. In Canada similar growth was noted; however, nonmetropolitan areas had a higher incidence of travel within Canada, whereas metropolitan areas showed a higher incidence of foreign travel. Again, incidence of travel increased with levels of education and household income.

By not using this type of data, a rich resource for understanding tourism in its broadest sense and determining where tourism fits into the economic and social priorities of populations is being missed. The relationship between travel incidence and standard of living by country may indicate future trends in travel. The movement of certain groups in and out of the travel market in times of economic recession may also be of significant interest.

3.1.3 Travel Philosophy

A concept of travel philosophy has been developed by Tourism Canada as part of market segmentation research resulting in travel styles segments. The segmentation process is based on the following assumptions: There are recognizable groups in the population based on:

1. How people organise and value travel (i.e., how people think about travel);

2. Benefits sought from specific pleasure trips; and

3. Activities, interests, location, and facilities required to realise the benefits sought from specific pleasure trips.

Market research studies conducted by Tourism Canada in the 1980s and 1990s provided the data for this section. Three studies were involved:
1. Attitudes of West Germans to Canada as a holiday destination,

2. Canadian Tourism Attitudes and Motivation Study, which was included in the Canadian Labour Force Survey, fall, 1983, and

3. Pleasure Travel Markets to North America. The Pleasure Travel Markets study included the following countries at various times: Australia, Brazil, France, Hong Kong, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Singapore, South Korea, Switzerland, United Kingdom, Venezuela, and West Germany. The studies were based on 50-minute in-home interviews with those who had taken a long haul vacation in the preceding three years, or who intended to take such a trip in the next two years.

3.1.4 Travel Analysis in Tourism

The study of West German attitudes to Canada resulted in the emergence of four segments:
1. The uninspired fellow traveler, 33 percent;

2. The busy sightseeing tourist, 20 percent;

3. The comfort-loving relaxation vacation, 26 percent; and

4. The globetrotter adventurer, 21 percent. That the largest segment was not very interested in travel was surprising. There were indications that this segment accompanied the Group 4 adventurers on holidays. The critical point is that they were taken along on holidays by other people and were not individually motivated. Thus, they are not a market that could be targeted for travel. The Canadian Tourism Attitudes and Motivation Study for 1983 eliminated questions for respondents who had not travelled in the preceding 12 months. Four segments emerged from the entire sample of those who had travelled in the previous 12 months:

1. Planned adventurer, 31 percent;

2. Casual traveler, 27 percent;

3. Low-risk traveler, 24 percent; and

4. Stay-at-home, 18 percent.

The fourth group was composed of those who did not see travel as part of their lifestyle, did not enjoy travel, and travelled very little. It is likely that every population contains a group that is essentially outside of the travel market. This group should be included from time to time in segmentation studies so the underlying characteristics can be studied. Eliminating the stay-at-home group from the analysis leaves three groups that resemble the groups that were developed for the overseas markets. They are:
1. Planned travel, 37.5 percent;

2. Independent travel, 33.5 percent; and

3. Reluctant travel, 29 percent. In order to establish a common terminology for travel philosophy segments, the names used in this report differ from those used in the original reports. The term 'planned travel' replaces 'package travel,' although package travel is a major component of the segment. Independent travel describes those who make their own travel arrangements. They avoid guided tours and packages. Reluctant travel describes a group for whom travel is not a priority. When they travel, they leave arrangements to

someone else. The study of Pleasure Markets to North America involved 13 different countries studied between 1986 and 1990, four of them on two occasions. The three philosophy segments noted previously have been recognised in all of the countries. Hence, the groups are transnational and trans-cultural. However, they do not exist in all countries in the same proportions. The countries can be divided into three groups depending on which group is the largest in each country. Germany and Switzerland each appear in two of the groupings because the two groups are of the same size.

1. High independent travel: France (two studies); United Kingdom (two studies); Australia, South Korea, Switzerland.

2. High planned travel: Brazil, Germany (1989), Hong Kong, Italy, Singapore, Venezuela.

3. High reluctant travel:
Germany (two studies), Japan, Switzerland. In the United Kingdom, France, and Germany some slight shifts in the proportions were observed. However, with only two points in time studied, these changes are interesting but cannot be considered a trend.

On the basis of the evidence available, the three philosophy segments appear to be relatively stable. Further study is required to determine whether significant shifts in the structure of travel markets are occurring. Further study is also needed to see whether countries with recent entries into the international travel market as origins develop the pattern of the older, established markets. In the older markets, one-third of travelers prefer to travel on their own terms, another one-third wants as many of the unknowns removed as possible before travel, and a final one-third is not really keen on travel. Each of these groups requires a separate style of marketing approach. The industry response to their travel needs should reflect the different ways they look at travel.

The fact that some universals in travel segments are emerging highlights the need for international cooperation in developing much-needed research in travel segments. There is need for international agreement on:
• The type of survey to be performed,
• The questionnaire content,
• The methodologies of administration, and
• The analysis.

An international approach to the development and classification of multi-segments will be required if target marketing and future product lines are to be relevant and relative to future market segments. A priority is to find a fast means of identifying the various groups. The use of both travel incidence and travel style data makes possible a greater understanding of tourism on an international basis.

The opportunity to develop comparable data worldwide would provide a means of monitoring changes in travel markets, which is vital to the process of adapting tourism marketing to change. When incidence and style are analysed at the same time, the fact of change will be accompanied by the direction of change. Tourism cannot afford to overlook the implications of these data as a means of improving knowledge of the markets and of increasing the opportunities for customer satisfaction.

3.2 Occasional Downturns in Tourism- Terrorists Attack

It was assumed that uninterrupted growth would continue. Occasional downturns in tourism resulting from terrorist incidents since the 1970s have been relatively short lived. Coshall

(2001) found that destinations that are highly attractive to travelers from the United Kingdom experience rapid recovery after a crisis.

The economic impact of terrorism on destinations has been discussed in a number of studies (Enders, Sandler, and Parise 1992; Sonmez 1994) and is usually the focus of most travel news articles following a terrorist incident. Although acts of terrorism are seldom aimed directly at tourists, the image of destinations where such acts occur is negatively affected in the mind of potential travelers. Bramwell and Rawding (1996) found that image is a major determinant of destination choice. Richter and Waugh (1986) indicated that declines in tourism demand predictably follow terrorist events, even if tourists and the tourism industry are not involved.

3.2.1 Effect of Terrorism on Israel and Period of unprecedented change

In a study of the effects of terrorism in Israel, Pizam and Fleischer (2002) concluded decreased travel to Israel was more the result of the frequency of terrorist acts than their severity. However, Krakover (2000), also studying the impact of terrorism on travel to Israel, found that the more severe the event, the greater the drop in demand, especially in international tourism. Many of the studies noted previously indicated that the negative impact of a terrorist event can last up to nine months.

The fact that tourism has been able to recover from terrorism and violent events indicates that such acts do not remain long in memory. Mansfield (1996) indicated that the rate of recovery is directly related to the effectiveness of crisis management and careful analysis of travel trends, aided by price cuts and marketing efforts. At this writing, two years after the attack on the World Trade Center, there are few people on the planet who are not aware of the enormous impact of that event on tourism. As a result, the economic importance of tourism has achieved marked attention in the media and among governments, many of which had previously ignored, underrated, or misunderstood the impact of tourism on their countries. Expectations were that tourism would recover, albeit slowly.

 When recovery did not happen in the summer of 2002, it was assumed that tourism would return to previous levels in the summer of 2003. The bombing in Bali, invasion of Iraq in March 2003, the SARS outbreak, a continuing decline in the U.S. economy, and an unusually hot summer in Europe, however, served to heighten the fears of international tourists and particularly the already nervous American public, so that predicted increases in international travel did not materialize. Few seem to remember that tourism had clearly begun to decline in the United States by the summer of 2001, due to a downturn in the U.S. economy following the crash of technical stocks and several high profile bankruptcies. Warnings that all was not well with tourism had been raised earlier.
Taylor (1996) noted:

That the challenges would appear so quickly and so dramatically was not anticipated. The new century brought with it a period of unprecedented change. The events in the early years of the twenty-first century have hit the travel industry with a devastating series of blows. Headline stories of layoffs, financial losses, and bankruptcy proceedings are common. The question must be raised—will tourism revert back to its late twentieth century characteristics or have such fundamental changes occurred in such a short period of time that the knowledge and understanding gained a few years ago may now be out of date?

3.2.2 Events that Brought Terrorism in Global Tourism

The events that have brought tourism to its current state of apparent disarray are well known:

1. The Hoof and Mouth Disease outbreak in the United Kingdom, 2001, 9/11 at World Trade centre in New York, and Pentagon and the after effects of regulations and inspections;

2. The ANTRACK, 2002 and SARS panic of April 2003 and the continuing fear of another outbreak of this disease;

3. The discovery of Mad Cow Disease in one cow in Western Canada, May 2003, and the continuing problem of banned beef imports from Canada;

4. Natural catastrophes such as the unprecedented heat wave in Europe, floods in China, monstrous forest fires in North America, and hurricanes in North America in late summer and early fall 2003;

5. The Iraq War that began in March 2003 and the continuing unrest in Iraq and other parts of the Middle East;

6. The August power outage in eastern North America; and

7. The hotel bombings in Bali and Jakarta, Indonesia. The list could go on, but certainly the widespread nature and variety of events within a relatively short period of time must be unprecedented in world history. These events, terrorism, war, disease, and natural catastrophes, have been damaging in their own right. Modern communication has provided the people of the world with front row, centre seats at all of them on an ongoing 24/7 basis.

The news coverage has been nonstop, each event has been broadcast to the world with all of the colour, hoopla, and noise of a championship football game. There have been play-by-play announcers, colour commentators, expert opinion, and highly probing question sessions. Under normal circumstances, a terrorist incident is seen on television a limited number of times.

However, footage of the collapse of the World Trade Center towers in particular, was ubiquitous. Broadcast for several days, coverage of the destruction saturated all venues of media. On some networks, it was possible to see the towers fall multiple times in the course of an hour.

Consequently, millions of people have possibly viewed the scene of the impact and collapse hundreds of times each. This dramatic and frightening sight is undoubtedly permanently engraved in the memory of millions. The fact that these events and the problems arising from them are an ongoing issue, constantly brought to the attention of the public, are reflected in a series of headlines that give a flavour of the problems of tourism from 2001 to 2003:

Terror's Toll on Tourism Tallied (*Las Vegas Review-Journal*, September 22, 2003). How will the constant reminders of the events of the past several years, and the continuing fear of further terrorism, alter the attitudes and choices of the tourist consumer, if at all? The travel styles most affected by terrorism and the ongoing threat of more terrorism, although not researched, can be surmised to some extent by examining those segments suffering the

greatest losses since September 11, 2001. Obviously, the airline segment has been most affected, and high-end hotels, restaurants, car rental agencies have also seen a marked drop in patronage, for the most part due to the reduction of business travel. Planned, package travel has also been hard hit. Motor-coach tours, and other forms of large group travel, have experienced a high rate of cancellation. The cruise industry has responded by taking ships to the passengers by opening new ports so passengers do not have to fly.

Rumours that independent travelers, especially backpackers, are travelling in numbers similar to those of 2000 are unconfirmed. However, a survey by BedandBreakfast.com revealed the bed and breakfast sector experienced an 8 percent increase since September 11, 2001. At one extreme some tourist destinations may become fortress areas— the modern version of the castle in the middle ages. In many countries resorts are already 'exclusive'—off limits to residents of the area other than to work.

Other areas are striving to avoid the fortress type development, working to incorporate tourism into the community and to develop alternative forms of tourism. Will the tourism consumer of tomorrow, if not today, look for a 'big box' type of development, for the sake of safety, security, and the image of luxury? Or will the consumer search out a 'small box' area in hope of finding adventure and the intimacy of a more realistic, authentic environment? Will some look for one type and some for the other? Will the seeking be consistent or will those looking for a big box on one occasion desire a small box on another depending on the travel experience and satisfactions sought? Like the giant discount store Wal-Mart or the corner store—the two groups are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

The tourist can be in one today and the other tomorrow but they will not seek a big box experience in a small box area. Will the big box be seen as more secure, hence preferable in troubled times? Several possible consumer groups can be hypothesized from this thinking:
1. Big box only,

2. Big box mainly but small box on occasion,

3. Small box only,

4. Small box mainly but big box on occasion, and

5. A 50–50 split between big and small box. The consumers classified into these categories will not remain in a category for long periods. As life situation, life stage, needs, and desires change and as the security outlook changes, the consumer may well move from one category to another. The situation will require constant monitoring and the groups must never be seen as being forever—they will change in composition and in experience sought.

3.2.3   *A Changed Travel Industry*
The travel industry spent a great deal of time and money, wisely we might add, in the second half of the twentieth-century on sophisticated research into the critical characteristics of many travel markets. This information lead directly to marketing and development activities designed to provide the visitor with a highly satisfactory experience and the industry with a profit. The knowledge base of tourism was expanded and this additional information was adopted quickly by the industry.

Events in the early years of the twenty-first-century have hit the travel industry with a devastating series of blows. There are severe problems with tourism markets as a result of the events outlined earlier. The question must be asked—will tourism revert back to its twentieth century characteristics or have such fundamental changes occurred in a very short period of time that the knowledge gained a few years ago may now be out of date? A research programme that would seek to provide the information required in order to develop a solution is needed.

The problem that must be faced is have these events altered the very nature of tourism. The research hypothesis that must be tested can be stated in two ways:

1. The events of 2000 through 2003 have had little long-term effect on the health of the tourism industry, or

2. The events have fundamentally affected tourism markets and new understandings of how they will respond in the future are needed. The hypothesis stated should be tested. The outcome of that testing will determine the nature of further studies that may be required. A small task force should be established before any major research effort is launched. The task would be to arrive at a more precise definition of the key elements that should be measured.

3.2.4 *Changed Tourists-Budget Travelers*

In all of the public discussion that has taken place as a result of the disasters, the concern has been with the effect on the industry— transportation, accommodation, food, attractions, and so on. There has been practically no mention of the effect on the tourist. What has the tourist lost or gained by any travel plan changes required in response to the events? There is a great opportunity to develop an understanding of tourists and changes, if any, on tourists' travel styles. For too long research has concentrated on the business side of tourism with very little regard for the tourist.

There have been some very useful studies conducted but all too often the critical measurements that were desired were the effect on the means (the travel industry) and not the end (the individual tourist). A quote (Taylor, 2002) from the foreword to Claire Gunn's recent book on tourism planning suggests that: The basic response of the tourism industry has been to spend large sums of money on additional promotion, and the immediate outlook is for requests for larger and larger promotion budgets. The effect of the current world conditions has been the apparent loss of visitor satisfaction— the capability of the industry to cater to the known needs of tourists has not been altered. What has changed is the willingness of many tourists to travel. The lack of visitors has resulted in loss of business, and that loss has brought about massive layoffs, bankruptcies, and so on. We need to take a close look at various groupings of tourist to determine how they have been affected by the events of the last two to three years and how any problems created can be overcome. In addition to testing the hypothesis, the opportunity exists to examine the impact of the events noted on the tourist and the tourists' travel styles. Several approaches to investigating changes in tourists' attitudes, motivations, motivators, and consequent travel styles are suggested in the following hypotheses:

1. People who experience less exposure to television and other media are more likely to travel,

2. Experienced, adventurous 'small box' travellers are more likely to travel mass 'big box,' and

3. Travel styles have shifted, showing more reluctant travellers than previously. Certainly it would seem prudent to ear mark a small portion of the funds being spent to encourage travel to the hardest hit destinations in an effort to test the hypotheses laid out. There is a great opportunity to develop a greater understanding of the world's tourist markets, how they react to real or perceived disasters and does the reaction change over short and long periods. Action cannot be delayed if advantage of the current situation is to be taken to expand our knowledge of tourism markets and how they react to changing conditions.

3.2.5 *An International Task Force*
In our view an international task force should be established to carry out the research programme. The task force must be seen to be a true task force; it must be established, come together, do its job, and disband. It must be representative of all aspects of tourism but it is to be a research-oriented body, able to design, undertake, analyse, and prepare reports that include clear action proposals. It will use its own expertise and that of consultants.

The role of existing organisations is critical. The Travel and Tourism Research Association, the World Tourism Organization, the Pacific Asia Travel Association, the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism, the European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education, and others must be involved in the development of the task force but none of them must be in control or seen to be in control. A wide range of interests on the supply side from the major business concerns to the extreme sustainability viewpoint will need to be represented on the task force.

The problem will be how to get tourists involved. Because tourists are to be at the centre of the work, the role of tourists must be very transparent. The approach of the task force must be nonjudgmental on the reasons for the problems that have been identified. The role of the force is to see the degree to which tourism (from the tourists' view) has been changed by these events. Are the changes likely to be permanent or short lived or will there be a noticeable if not radical change? Will tourism revert back to the twentieth-century model if no further major incidents occur? The guiding light must always be the assurance that tourists can obtain the satisfactory experience that they seek. It is not our function to develop a plan of work. All we can do is point to the necessity of the task force approach. We recommend a task force because it can be structured to take in a wide range of interests. The problems may have to be examined through **several prisms**. Business and pleasure are two obvious breaks, but within each there are major differences as there are major differences between them. To whom will the task force be accountable?

Self Assessment Questions

(i) Do you agree that the lack of visitors has resulted in loss of business, and that loss has brought about massive layoffs, bankruptcies, and so on, explain why and or why not?

(ii) Would it seem prudent to ear mark a small portion of the funds being spent to encourage travel to the hardest hit destinations in an effort to test the hypotheses laid out?

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4.0 Conclusion

The key to the success of the work of the force is accountability. The tasks must be seen to have a practical outcome in the first instance. They must have an impact on public and private policy. Accountability is a critical issue. The task force cannot be seen to be without accountability, yet it cannot be seen in a subservient role. Adequate financing and staff are necessary to enable the task group to do its work unimpeded. The source of funds must allow the force to function independently, otherwise credibility and accountability are forfeit.

5.0 Summary

The academic community must play a key role. The task force could be located at a university or college and be accountable to it. An academic institution would be involved in the work of the group as well as providing a home and discipline. Two possible approaches are suggested. One is to actively research what has happened and what is happening to tourism, secondly, observe and record what is happening, and discover whether trends are being established. Both approaches are needed and likely others will become apparent as the work progresses. There must be a management attitude that the work of the group can change direction and purpose quickly if circumstances warrant. The process of establishing and operating the task force would seem to require four stages:

(i) Define objectives, develop terms of reference and staffing levels, and set budgetary limits
(ii) Establish task;
(iii) Do its work; and
(iv) Report and disband. When completed, the work of the proposed task force will provide direction for the industry, clarification of the impacts of the events discussed earlier on the industry and especially on the tourist. If tourism is to thrive and prosper, meaningful research will lead the way.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i)   Identify and discuss few consequences of international downturn of terrorists attack on global tourism?
(ii) What are its social and economic consequences on global tourism?
(iii) Discuss the role of international Task force in sustainable development tourism?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) The lack of visitors has resulted in loss of business, and that loss has brought about massive layoffs, bankruptcies, and so on. We need to take a close look at various groupings of tourist to determine how they have been affected by the events of the last two to three years and how any problems created can be overcome. In addition to testing the hypothesis, the opportunity exists to examine the impact of the events noted on the tourist and the tourists' travel styles. Several approaches to investigating changes in tourists' attitudes, motivations, motivators, and

consequent travel styles are suggested in the following hypotheses: People who experience less exposure to television and other media are more likely to travel.

(ii) Travel styles have shifted, showing more reluctant travelers than previously. Certainly it would seem prudent to ear mark a small portion of the funds being spent to encourage travel to the hardest hit destinations in an effort to test the hypotheses laid out. There is a great opportunity to develop a greater understanding of the world's tourist markets, how they react to real or perceived disasters and does the reaction change over short and long periods. Action cannot be delayed if advantage of the current situation is to be taken to expand our knowledge of tourism markets and how they react to changing conditions.

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UNIT 17 Empirical market segmentation in tourism industry

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

Tourism is just like any other industry. Although it offers intangible, perishable services, is characterized by global competition, and is threatened or strengthened by political developments, it is just like any other industry with regard to the most fundamental market characteristic: customers have certain ideas of what they are looking for (preferences), and they choose the offer that best meets their preferences. It is therefore crucial to thoroughly understand what ideas customers have about the vacation of their dreams, the honeymoon to remember for a lifetime, or the adventure trip that still gets adrenaline pumping in their veins when they flip through the photos.

In this unit, we shall read all about empirical market segmentation in tourism industry.

As an organization or a tourist destination, it is important to understand customers' ideas in order to be capable to design offers that best match the consumer preferences and thus increase sales, possibly even satisfaction and consequently the probability of repeated purchase of the same tourism product. This sounds like a very simple and straightforward task for tourism management (i.e., understand the preferences of potential customers). It would indeed be very simple and straightforward if individuals were all the same. If they would share a common view, the same picture about the vacation of their dreams, one perfect tourism product would be designed and marketed.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain what tangible and perishable services meant in tourism

Define what is meant by market segmentation in tourism industry

Understand the meaning of an organization and tourists destination

Identify product positioning and competitive advantage in tourism

Know what is meant by Standard Approaches in sustainable tourism

Discuss the fundamental misconception in tourism Business

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Empirical market segmentation in tourism industry

The complexity of the problem increases dramatically when it is acknowledged that consumers differ in their preferences: different individuals have different ideas about how they imagine their ideal vacation. For tourism management this means that it becomes necessary not only to understand one set of preferences, but a number of different ideal tourism products: the wild Australian adventure with a touch of real danger for the young, single male tourist; the quiet and relaxing spa holiday for the retired couple; or the five-day Europe sightseeing bus tour for culturally ambitious groups of Japanese. The fact that individuals differ in their perception of the perfect vacation implies that there is a lot of variety, or heterogeneity, in the tourism marketplace.

Heterogeneity that challenges the market research skills of tourism destinations and organisations: those destinations or organizations that see what the market, and the many submarkets or market segments, want will be able to attract those individuals and thus 'get what they see,' thereby making them their customers. By doing so, they automatically gain competitive advantage over other destinations and organizations that do not understand market preferences, mostly because they do not bother to look, thus underestimating the importance of thorough market research in the tourism industry.

Destinations or tourism organizations that do not see consumer preferences, and the continuing development of these preferences put themselves at risk of competitors stealing their customers: those competitors who see clearly and offer what the markets or particular segments require.

The starting point of this chapter is the insight that consumers are heterogeneous. They differ in many regards, including their product preferences, and understanding those differences leads to the capability to make the best possible catering arrangements for particular needs, thus gaining competitive advantage in the marketplace.

The aim of the unit is to discuss and illustrate different approaches taken in the area of empirical market segmentation in tourism and to raise conceptual, practical, and methodological problems in this context. This unit provides a discussion of empirical market segmentation, which means that an empirical data set (typically resulting from a tourist survey) represents the basis.

Purely conceptual derivation of market segments or tourist typologies is not treated. Given this aim, readers should be provided with an overview of empirical market segmentation in tourism and realize how much unexploited potential for improvement remains in this area.

3.1.1 Causes of Variety in market segmentation and evaluation

Clearly, consumers are not different in every single aspect. They have many things in common (for instance, one-half of the consumers are female) but they differ in other ways. The differentiating characteristics are of interest in the context of market segmentation. These represent the causes of variety or heterogeneity in the marketplace and, consequently, are the main focus in the identification or construction of market segments. Sometimes one single characteristic or segmentation criterion is sufficient to discriminate between relevant segments. Other times a number of characteristics are used simultaneously to group

customers into segments. This would then be referred to as a segmentation base (Wedel and Kamakura, 2002).

Anything that is useful to management can be used as a segmentation criterion or segmentation base. The most typical criteria and segmentation bases are the following:

• *Socio-demographic:* Typical socio-demographic criteria used in market segmentation include gender, age, education, or income.

• *Geographic:* In tourism geographic segmentation is probably the most common concept in the area of destination management with the country of origin of tourists functioning as the segmentation criterion.

• *Behavioural:* Typical behavioural information includes vacation activities, choice behaviour, general vacation habits (e.g., how often do tourists go on vacation, how long do they stay, etc.), expenditures, and similar pieces of information.

• *Psychographic:* Travel motivations probably represent the single most popular psychographic segmentation base. Other criteria in this group would include guest satisfaction or lifestyle statements. The borders between these bases of segmentation criteria are fuzzy. Therefore, different authors use different classification schemes. But this is not a conceptual problem. It is only a matter of preference in systematizing criteria. Although it has been claimed that psychographic criteria outperform socio-demographic groupings of customers, the usefulness of each of those groups of criteria is entirely dependent on the purpose of the study. Therefore it seems unreasonable to make general recommendations regarding the best choice of segmentation criteria.

Programme review									
	a	Objectives	(Are they appropriate?)						
(1)	b	Strategies/ tactics	b1 Media advertising	b2 Billboard posters	b3 Direct marketing	b4 Information services	b5 Travel shows	b6 Travel writers	b7 Trade missions	b8 Trade shows
	c	Targets	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5	c6	c7	

Performance monitoring									
	(Outputs)								
(2)	d	Performance indicators	No. inquiries	No. inquiries	Coupon responses	No. inquiries	Attendance levels, inquiries/ contacts	Column inches/ minutes coverage	No. inquiries Transactions enacted	

Causal analysis		
	(Outcomes)	
(3)	e	Immediate impacts	Tracking studies Conversion studies Market share analysis
	f	Environmental factors	Multivariate analysis Experimental/quasi-experimental methods

Cost benefit analysis									
(4)	g	Costs	g1	g2	g3	g4	g5	g6	g7	g8
	h	Benefits	h1	h2	h3	h4	h5	h6	h7	h8
	i	Cost: Benefit ratio	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6	I7	I8

Figure 17.6: Framework for destination marketing evaluation.
Source: UN Almanac on global tourism 2002 p. g   218

3.1.2 *Standard Approaches*

Two standard approaches are known in empirical market segmentation: One is referred to as *a priori* segmentation (Mazanec, 2000) or commonsense segmentation. This approach implies that tourism management is aware of the consumer characteristic(s) that can be used to split all tourists into managerially relevant groups. For instance, if a family hotel is being designed, it is clear *a priori* that customers will be adults with children. Choosing the segmentation criterion of 'having children' is thus a commonsense decision that is managerially highly useful in this case.

Why would management want to design a family hotel and then try to attract single couples? The second standard procedure in tourism market segmentation is called *a posteriori* (Mazanec, 2000), or *post-hoc* (Wedel and Kamakura, 2002) or data-driven (Dolnicar, 2002a) segmentation. In this case it is not quite so obvious which characteristic of the consumers might be most useful to group tourists. Because it is not obvious, data from consumers has to be collected and explored. Through systematic exploration of data, a number of different groupings will become apparent, from which management can choose the single most useful one.

The best grouping is thus known only *a posteriori* or *post-hoc* (after exploring data) and is derived in a data-driven manner rather than resulting from a commonsense selection of a consumer characteristic.

3.1.3 Commonsense Segmentation

 In 2000, the Austrian Business Chamber decided that their hotel star grading criteria needed to be revisited to shift from a product-oriented perspective to a market-oriented view. The future criteria for categorizing hotels into one- to five-star accommodation facilities should reflect the needs and expectations of the respective customers.

This problem is a typical commonsense segmentation task: the total market of tourists has to be split into segments according to the hotel star category they typically chose. This is clear in advance and it is also clear that the market will thus be divided into precisely five groups of customers: *people who choose to stay in five-star hotels, four-star hotels, three-star hotels, two-star hotels, and one-star hotels.* A large-scale empirical survey was conducted in order to determine which hotel attributes matter (Dolnicar and Otter, 2003) as well as the particular needs and desires of each one of the segments. The sample size amounted to 614 respondents (selected using a hypothesis-oriented quota sampling technique accounting for season, country of origin, city or noncity destination, business or vacation travel purpose, and star grading categories).

The interviews each took about 15 minutes and were conducted in the hotels the respondents stayed at. From this empirical data set relevant insights could be deducted. For instance, it was found, that there were significant differences between guests staying in different hotel categories: the brand signal 'number of stars' was relevant for 6 percent of the one-star, 16 percent of the two-star, 28 percent of the three-star, 34 percent of the four-star, and 38 percent of the five-star guests indicating that the signaling function of the star categories effects the decision reached by potential customers in a different way.

Managerially, this finding means that five-star hotels have a powerful tool in their possession for attracting customers by informing them about the star category, whereas for a one-star hotel it would be a waste of effort to communicate the category, because only 6 percent of tourists include this information in their decision making process. The contrary applies to prices: about 80 percent of customers of one- and two-star hotels actively seek for price information when deciding on their accommodation, 67 percent of the three-start-hotel guests require this information, 55 percent in the four-star, and 27 percent in the five-star category.

The implications of this significant—but not very surprising—difference leads to the debate of whether or not the hotel star category criteria should impose price ranges on hotels. Another very practical difference is that one-fifth of the five-star hotel guests directly inquire during their hotel decision-making process whether or not a sauna and a gym are offered. This has direct consequences for product design to optimize satisfaction of the needs of this particular segments. Further differences were found with regard to perceived risks, expectations, disappointments with prior hotel experiences, and many more.

As a result of this study, the Austrian Business Chamber was provided with the precise descriptions of all five segments, including the information in which the differences are statistically significant. This was used as a basis for the redesign of the hotel stargrading system criteria. A second commonsense segmentation that resulted from this same empirical study was to investigate specific needs of business travelers (Dolnicar, 2002b).

Again, the choice of the criterion to define the market segment (in this case the purpose of travel had to be business) is chosen in advance. For instance, a hotel that is catering to business travelers will gain more insight into the market only by looking at the segment of business travelers than by exploring the needs of individuals choosing certain hotel categories. Although this example illustrates the concept of commonsense segmentation, its functioning and managerial usefulness, the simple most typical commonsense segmentation in the tourism industry at destination levels is to form market segments based on the country of origin. In Austria, for example, the national tourism organisation conducts a threeyearly large-scale guest survey.

One of the standard reports resulting from this survey is the detailed description of tourists from different nations. This is a grouping that is not only known in advance but also does make a lot of practical sense, because countries of origin differ in languages and cultural backgrounds and thus typically require separate treatment. As illustrated in the examples above, *a priori*/commonsense segmentation basically requires two steps:
(i)The selection of the criterion that is used to split up the customers (choice of hotel category, country of origin), and

(ii)Description of the resulting segments based on empirical market data and including statistical testing of differences. This procedure is widely used and represents the most common kind of market segmentation practically applied in tourism.

Further examples published in academic journals include the following: Baloglu and McCleary (1999) contrast the way visitors and nonvisitors of a destination perceive the image of this region; Goldsmith and Litvin (1999) compare heavy users and light users, a very typical approach in commonsense segmentation; Kashyap and Bojanic (2000) explore differences between business travellers and holidaymakers; Smith and MacKay (2001) investigate how age groups differ in remembering pictures used in advertising; Israeli (2002)

studies destination perception differences between disabled and nondisabled visitors; Klemm (2002) focuses on one ethnic minority in the United Kingdom and describes their vacation preferences; McKercher (2001) explores differences between tourists staying at one destination and those who only travel through; Meric and Hunt (1998) profile the ecotourist; Court and Lupton (1997) construct groups of different levels of intention to revisit a destination and investigates differences; and Arimond and Lethlean (1996) form segments based on the kind of site rental taken at a campground.

3.1.4 Data-Driven Segmentation

Interestingly, from a strict perspective of pure data-driven segmentation, very few such studies exist. Most of the studies of this nature fit into the combined category described later. Apure example of data-driven segmentation is provided by Bieger and Lässer (2002) who group the Swiss population into market segments. The basis for segmentation is a set of travel motives. The reason why this is one of the few pure data-driven segmentations lies in the fact that typically a pre-selection of respondents is made before the data-driven task is initiated.

This approach, however, represents a combination of commonsense (pre-selection) and data-driven segmentation. Studies of this nature have dramatically increased in popularity over the past decades, although practical implementation in tourism industry still remains limited. A data-driven example is briefly described here to illustrate the concept. It is concerned with the grouping of culture tourists (pre-selection with regard to primary motivation for the trip) according to their vacation activities (Dolnicar, 2002c). The analysis is based on data from the Austrian National Guest Survey conducted in 1997/1998 including a total of 10,203 personal interviews. This example was selected because the Austrian National Guest Survey provided an excellent data basis for data driven segmentation (i.e., large number of potential segmentation bases and a high sample size).

The subsample of cultural tourists that was included in this segmentation study (these respondents stated that their main motivation to travel is culture or city tourism) amounted to 2492. The aim was to construct segments of cultural tourists with distinct vaca- tion activity patterns. For this purpose, several activity statements from the interview were used as segmentation base: participation in organized excursions, undertaking excursions, shopping, sightseeing, visiting museums, exhibitions, theatre, musical, opera, visiting festivals, concerts, and visiting local and regional events.

3.2 Behavioral Segmentation

A behavioural segmentation solution with nine segments was chosen because it emerged as the most stable solution and was managerially interpretable. These segments render plausible interpretations and the external validity is high; this means that there are significant differences between the segments with regard to additional descriptive information that was not used in the grouping process itself. One of those segments will be described here. It was named the 'individual culture explorers.'

The segment profile provided thus shows that the segment of *individual culture explorers* is very characteristic because all members, without exception, shop and visit museums and exhibitions. On the other hand, bus trips and excursions do not appeal to this segment at all. This particular data-driven segment could be an excellent target group for museums.

In addition to the vacation activity profiles used to define market segments, a number of additional pieces of information about these individuals are available from the Austrian National Guest Survey. It can be used to examine the external validity of the segmentation solution derived from the data. A valuable insight can be gained from this examination: if the segments differ only in the vacation activities and nothing else, they might be of questionable practical value. External validity, however, gives management the security that segments actually represent different groups of individuals, if they differ in several aspects, even those that were not used to group them. Consequently, such segments are reasonable targets for separate marketing action. Individual culture explorers, for instance, significantly differ from other cultural tourists with regard to numerous managerially relevant pieces of information: they visit Austria more frequently in winter than other segments do, and they value cultural offers significantly more than other segments, a fact that is reflected in the highest level of expenditures per person per day for entrance fees to cultural attractions. Such a data-driven segmentation can be of great value to businesses involved in providing or organising cultural attractions in Austria.

It enables managers to choose which segment to focus on. In this case, the individual culture explorers would be highly attractive given their pattern of activities and their willingness to spend a lot of money to visit cultural attractions. As illustrated in this example, data-driven segmentation requires at least three steps given that an empirical data set is available even though it is more favourable to design the survey based on the following segmentation needs:

(i)The selection of the criterion that is used to separate customers. In this case information is multivariate; it contains more than one question of the questionnaire. In the culture tourism example the criterion used were eight questions on vacation activities people engaged in during their stay.

(ii) Data analysis with an appropriate algorithm avoiding a number of typical mistakes made in the context of data-driven market segmentation (Dolnicar, 2002a).

(iii)Interpretation of the segments and testing of the validity of the solution. Although data-driven segmentation has been increasingly used in tourism research, industry has not fully adapted this approach yet— probably because it is methodologically more complex and conceptually less intuitive than commonsense segmentation. However, it has a sunny wide: adopting *a posteriori* approaches represents an excellent opportunity to extract more information about the market than the competitors and, consequently, to gain competitive advantage. Further examples of combined commonsense and data-driven segmentation studies published in academic tourism journals in the past include the following: Silverberg, Backman, and Backman (1996) split naturebased tourists into benefit segments; Dodd and Bigotte (1997) preselected winery visitors and grouped them according to demographics in a datadriven manner; Formica and Uysal (1998) used visitors of a cultural– historical event in Italy as a starting point and investigated psychographic segments on the basis of their motivations; Kastenholz and Gordon (1999) studied benefit segments among visitors to rural areas; and Moscardo and colleagues (2000) chose the visitors of friends and relatives and study segments based on behavioural patters.

Focusing on senior motor coach travellers as preselection of tourists, Hsu and Lee (2002) constructed segments
based on motor coach selection criteria. Dolnicar and Leisch (2003a) searched for vacation segments among winter tourists in Austria. Again, the above list is by no means

comprehensive, but it provides the reader with further relevant sources in the area of data-driven market segmentation in tourism.

3.2.1 Fundamental Misconceptions

Typically, market segments are revealed or constructed and the resulting groups are described. The single most crucial criterion for the usefulness of a segmentation solution is, whether choosing a segmentation strategy based on those segments actually increases tourism revenues at a destination or profit in tourism industry. This is seldom mentioned.

Unasked Question 2: Do Market Segments Change over Time?

In the case of commonsense segmentation, it is typical to study on a yearly basis the changes that take place in the market. For instance, are Japanese tourists spending more money, travelling more, travelling further, or staying longer than they did last year? This is a very important question to ask because the market changes constantly and missing market changes means not seeing which preferences need to be met. In the area of data-driven segmentation this question remains widely unasked. Typically, one segmentation solution is computed at one point in time.

The grouping of tourists is then used as basis for strategic marketing and is usually not questioned either in view of its usefulness or with regard to possible changes that might be occurring over time. Such a limited approach can be dangerous. It means that management takes one glimpse at the market and then instantly shuts their eyes again. A simple recommendation of how data-driven segments can be monitored over time was provided by Dolnicar and Leisch (2003b). *Unasked Question 3:*

3.2.2 Market Segmentation with Product Position competition

How Does Market Segmentation Interact with Product Positioning and Competition?
Market segmentation is only one of three building blocks in strategic marketing. Market segmentation studies typically do not treat all three areas as integrated and strongly associated. For instance, the most attractive market segment is not a good choice for a destination if another destination is strongly perceived in this particular way already, and therefore competition would be too intense. Such integrated issues reflect on the segmentation choice but are typically ignored while segmentation is treated as an independent and isolated area of strategic marketing. Mazanec and Strasser (2000) suggested an integrated framework to conduct market research and analysis simultaneously for all those areas.

Misconception 1: There Are True, Real Groups among Tourists
that Need to be Revealed
The most fundamental misunderstanding in the area of market segmentation is an implicit assumption of tourism management: segments are clearly distinct entities that exist naturally among individuals. It is assumed that any segmentation of tourists, be it commonsense or data-driven reflects a true and real existence of groups that are clearly separated. From the author's experience in segmenting tourism data sets for one decade now, this is an illusion.

Rarely is there an empirical data set in which individuals form homogeneous groups that are clearly and distinctly separated from other homogeneous groups. Consumer heterogeneity is an individual phenomenon. As such, all grey shades exist and most groupings of such individuals into market segments represent an artificial task.

Market segments are constructed, not revealed. This has never been discussed in the scientific community, where the focus of development lies on methodological improvements of segmentation techniques. However, the view regarding the underlying assumption about the occurrence or nonoccurrence of natural groups of tourists has been implicitly mentioned. It shows the transition from the strict revelation of true groups among individuals toward the acceptance of artificiality of market segmentation. Frank, Massy, and Wind (1972) stated that the purpose of taxonomic procedures is to describe *natural groupings* in empirical data sets. Myers and Tauber (1977) referred to market segments within the field of segmentation research as clearly defined natural groupings of people.

Consequently, the goal of the segmentation process is to identify these natural groupings. Two decades later, Mazanec (1997) did not assume the existence of natural segments, consequently implying that homogeneous groups have to be constructed rather than found. Wedel and Kamakura (2002) agreed with this latter assumption, and they claimed that market segmentation involves *artificial groupings* of individuals that are constructed for best possible targeting action.

A framework to increase transparency with regard to the underlying segmentation concept was proposed by Dolnicar and Leisch (2001) that distinguishes between three data-driven segmentation settings, as illustrated in Figure

The fundamental idea of this framework is to ask two questions about
the empirical data:
(i) Is there any structure in the data at all?

(ii) If yes, is this structure real cluster structure or is it data structure of other nature? No matter what the answers to these questions are, it is managerially useful to segment the market. But the underlying concepts are entirely different: in the case of *revealing clustering*, true clusters are found, in the case of *stable clustering*, segments can be repeatedly identified although clear border lines between the segments do not exist.

And finally, if no structure exists in the data, it is still better to construct artificial groups (*constructive clustering*) that include members similar to each other rather than to address all tourists on the planet in an identical manner. In any case, this framework is a useful structural guide for improved managerial understanding of the market structure, which is the basis for their longterm strategy.

Misconception 2: The Software/the Algorithm Will Provide
the Answer to the Segmentation Problem

In data-driven segmentation there is a wide misconception that exposing empirical data to a clustering algorithm (typically the Ward's clustering if hierarchical procedures are favoured by the researcher or *k*-means clustering if partitioning techniques are chosen) will result in *the* answer. This is not the case because each grouping computation might result in a different solution. This makes systematic exploration so important. Although there will always be some kind of a numeric result emerging from a computation, this is neither the only nor the best possible grouping that can be found.

Algorithms impose structure on data; they do not simply look at data in a neutral objective manner. It is important for segmentation researchers and tourism managers to acknowledge this fact.

3.2.3 Ignored Dangers and Exploring empty Space

Although most of the unasked questions and fundamental misconceptions represent ignored dangers as well, this section aims at pointing out a few dangerous habits of data-driven segmentation that have emerged through the many years of applied data-driven segmentation in tourism and tourism research. This was investigated in detail by Baumann (2000) and Dolnicar (2002a). The main points of these studies include:

It is crucial for any data-driven segmentation study to be based on data of sufficient sample size given the number of variables included as the segmentation base. In the majority of segmentation studies in tourism research, this is not the case. The number of variables used defines the dimensionality of space. More variables mean increased space in which groups are searched for. If, for instance, ten travel motive statements are used to group tourists, the space that is explored is ten dimensional. It takes a lot of respondents to fill that space sufficiently to actually find patterns or groupings.

 The best protection against this danger is commonsense. More formalised security is provided by Formann (1984) who suggests the minimal sample size to include no less than 2k cases (k = number of variables), preferably 5 ·2k if respondents answered the questions with *yes* or *no* (binary answer format).

3.2.4 Using Inappropriate Distance Measures for the Data

In tourism research it has become a standard procedure in guest surveys to use ordinal data scales, five- or seven-point scales that are ordered and indicate the strength of agreement or the strengths of guest satisfaction. Such data scales are not suitable for the standard distance measures implemented in clustering algorithms, mostly Euclidean distance. By applying distance measures for other data scales, assumptions are made. Assumptions that most probably are not satisfied in the case of ordinal data and Euclidean distance especially the critical assumption of equal intervals between the answer categories. To illustrate the general ignorance toward this problem, two-thirds of tourism segmentation studies use ordinal data and practically all of the authors who mention which measure of association underlies the computations use Euclidean distance.

By so doing, the value of the collected market data is overestimated and the segmentation results thus do not mirror only pure market information.

3.2.5 Unquestioned Data Preprocessing

A standard clustering ritual has emerged over the years in tourism research that involves conducting factor analysis before clustering the data. This is a dangerous habit if applied in an uncritical manner. Typically, the variance explained by the retained factors is approximately 50 percent, meaning that the price researchers pay for reducing the number of variables is that they literally throw away one-half of the information they have collected from the marketplace.

Neither factor analysis nor standardization procedures should be used as part of some standardized segmentation procedure. They should be applied only if there is a good reason to do so, for instance the standardization of different answer formats for different survey questions. The danger of uncritical preprocessing lies in constructing a segmentation solution in a transformed space, a space that has little to do with the initial market information collected from potential visitors.

3.2.6 The Number of Segments

In the case that true clusters do not exist in the empirical data used to construct a market segmentation solution (these include stable and constructive clustering in Figure 16.2), the decision of how many segments to construct influences the results in the most dramatic way. For example, grouping tourists into two segments based on vacation activities will lead to one highly active market segment and a rather passive, relaxationoriented segment. If, however, the same tourists are grouped into ten segments, the active tourist will be further subdivided in segments with particular interests: for instance, culturally active and sports-oriented tourists. The number of clusters therefore most strongly influences the results. Although many researchers have studied this problem in the past, there is no simple solution (Dimitriadou, Dolnicar, and Weingessel, 2002). But ignorance is certainly the worst solution. The minimum requirement for a properly conducted segmentation study therefore is to investigate whether certain numbers of clusters render more stable results, basically representing a measure of internal validity. If this is not the case, a wide variety of solutions has to be constructed and explored in detail before one specific solution is chosen as the basis for an organization's or destination's
long-term strategy.

3.2.7 Market Segmentation and Competitive advantage in Tourism

In tourism, market segmentation has developed to become a very common tool in strategic marketing. However, as this chapter aims at illustrating, there are still many unresolved issues in the area that can cause segmentation solutions to be anything between utterly absurd to strategically invaluable. Segmentation is a long-term building block of organisation success and as such represents one of the most critical managerial decisions. For these reasons it is most important for tourism managers to invest a lot of time and thinking into their segmentation solution and critically question it. A few questions that could help a manager in doing this might be the following:

• Do I need to search for segments? Which benefits do I expect from treating different tourist groups differently?

• What is the purpose of my segmentation?

• Keeping this purpose in mind, what are segmentation criteria or segmentation bases that are relevant in this context?

• Are there single segmentation criteria that are known and guaranteed to split the tourists into relevant segments? In this case, commonsense segmentation is sufficient.

• Which segmentation base is relevant and should be explored in an attempt to identify or construct market segments?

• Which one of the many possible data-driven market segmentation solutions is managerially most useful? If the market research company conducting the study claims there is only one true solution, consider switching to another market research company.

• Are the resulting market segments valid, either because they can be revealed repeatedly or because they differ with regard to additional information about the tourists?

• Which segment or segments are the best matching targets for the offer my organisation or destination can make?

• Which segments are most appropriate targets considering product positioning and competition knowledge?

Self Assessment Questions

(i) What are the most fundamental misunderstanding area of market segmentation in tourism?
(ii) Consumer heterogeneity is an individual phenomenon. Discuss?

4.0 Conclusion
Understanding the market, understanding the consumer, and the variety among consumers remains a rich source of competitive advantage in tourism. However, the amount of readily available market data is constantly increasing. Computers and statistical software packages are becoming standard marketing tools. And new marketing graduates are learning the art of data exploration in the core subjects of their degree. Consequently, understanding the market will soon be a prerequisite of organisational or destination survival in the highly competitive global tourism marketplace.

5.0 Summary
Market segmentation makes use of the understanding of systematic variety among customers and as such represents a powerful tool for success. It functions like a magnifying glass for managers willing to look at the market, and invest some time into exploring it. And if they take the time to look, they are likely to 'get what they see.' If they do not, their competitors might.

6.0Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Explain and elaborate on how Market Segmentation Interact with Product Positioning and Competition tourism industry ?
(ii) Discuss the difference between Market Segmentation and Competitive advantage in Tourism?

7.0 References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) The most fundamental misunderstanding in the area of market segmentation is an implicit assumption of tourism management: segments are clearly distinct entities that exist naturally among individuals. It is assumed that any segmentation of tourists, be it commonsense or data-driven reflects a true and real existence of groups that are clearly separated.

(ii) Rarely is there an empirical data set in which individuals form homogeneous groups that are clearly and distinctly separated from other homogeneous groups. Consumer heterogeneity is an individual phenomenon. As such, all grey shades exist and most groupings of such individuals into market segments represent an artificial task. Market segments are constructed, not revealed. This has never been discussed in the scientific community, where the focus of development lies on methodological improvements of segmentation techniques. However, the view regarding the underlying assumption about the occurrence or nonoccurrence of natural groups of tourists has been implicitly mentioned.

UNIT 18   Developing strategic approaches to tourism destination marketing

CONTENT

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

   3.1 **Developing strategic approaches to tourism destination marketing**

      3.1.1   Essential Ingredients of the Strategic Approach
         3.1.2   SWOT Analysis

   3.2   Tourism Marketing in Perspective
      3.2.1   Public Sector tourism Agencies in Australia
      3.2.2   Factor that affect propensity to travel
      3.2.3   Country's political stability & attractiveness to tourism
      3.2.4   Public Sector Tourism and marketing demand
      3.2.5   Systematic evaluation as an integral components of the destination
          marketing
      3.2.6   Cost incurred in implementing programs

4.0 **Conclusion**
5.0 **Summary**
6.0 **Tutor Marked Assignment**
7.0 **References/Further Readings**

UNIT 18 **Developing strategic approaches to tourism destination marketing**

CONTENT

1.0   Introduction

The emergence and continuation of tourism as a dynamic and viable industry is dependent on the adoption of a strategic approach to destination planning and marketing.

In this unit, we shall look into the various segments of developmental strategies and approaches involved in tourism destination marketing.

The hallmark of such an approach is the inclusion of a systematic and structured analysis of broader environmental factors affecting tourism demand as an integral part of the planning process. Equally, as an adjunct to this approach, the ongoing evaluation of the strategies adopted is essential to ensure program that become ineffective or counter-productive are identified and replaced.

In this unit, we shall further be looking into the dynamics of the strategic planning process which can thus be likened to the 'natural selection' of program activities.

Although it can be argued that this approach is necessary in any domain of human activity, it is particularly applicable to the tourism field because of the highly discretionary nature of tourism demand, and its consequent sensitivity to both transitory shocks and long-term trends in the broader environment.

2.0   Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain how to develop strategic approach to marketing success in tourism

Discuss essential elements of marketing perspective for tourism enterprise

State integrated plan and ingredients of strategic approach to tourist destination

Understand the use and application of SWOT analysis in addressing tourism issues

Identify how to evaluate the effectiveness of promotion programs, variables that affect the response of markets

Know how to implement system evaluation and cost benefit analysis to improve tourism

3.0   Main Content

   3.1 **Developing strategic approaches to tourism destination marketing**

A full appreciation of these factors is essential if public sector tourism organizations and private sector tourism enterprises are to exploit new opportunities as they arise and adapt to potentially threatening changes. Although the above may appear to be a mere statement of the obvious to many readers, the approach advocated is either not generally applied, or it is applied only in a partial sense.

This point is developed by referring to the case of public sector tourism marketing in Australia, where there has been a focus on advertising at the expense of a more balanced strategic approach. It would appear that, although the Australian experience may not necessarily be typical in this regard, it is at least widespread.

In considering these issues, we begin with an overview of the essential ingredients of the strategic approach and highlight symptoms of this approach not being applied in the

Australian situation. Elements of the marketing perspective are then studied in order to bring into focus specific aspects of tourism destination marketing that are relevant to the application of the strategic approach in this setting.

A model describing factors affecting tourist arrivals at a destination is used as a backdrop for reviewing the dynamics of the Australian inbound market and, in the process, attention is drawn to the range of environmental factors that have a bearing on the effectiveness of marketing program. The current status of tourism destination marketing in Australia is then reviewed in order to elaborate on the key facets of the strategic approach and, finally, the argument for including evaluation procedures as a routine component of the strategic planning process is outlined.

3.1.1 Essential Ingredients of the Strategic Approach

For the purposes of this analysis, the strategic approach is regarded as involving the following essential ingredients:

• A comprehensive and integrated plan of action for an enterprise organization.

• A clearly enunciated set of goals and objectives that provide the focus for the plan of action. These will reflect the corporate view of what is essential for the long-term effectiveness and survival of the organization and its product.

• The establishment of systems for monitoring and evaluating progress toward goals, objectives, and targets specified in action plans.

• An approach to planning which explicitly reconciles the inherent competitive advantages and limitations of the organization (or its product) with the challenges (opportunities and threats) of the environment. The development of the latter aspect of the strategic approach usually involves what is referred to as SWOT analysis—(i.e., strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) (Johnson and Scholes, 1984).

3.1.2 SWOT ANALYSIS

SWOT analysis includes an assessment of existing, and anticipated, opportunities and threats within the environment. Its main purpose is to determine whether or not, in the light of

emerging environmental conditions, the weaknesses of an enterprise, product, or destination have the potential to undermine its long-term survival. If this is so, those weaknesses will need to be remedied.

Alternatively, the enterprise may have certain strengths that may put it into an advantageous position for exploiting new opportunities. In the Australian context there are several symptoms of a general lack of strategic thinking in tourism. First, there is a prevailing 'boom and gloom' mentality, with dramatic shifts between the extremes of optimism and pessimism reflecting a tendency to overreact to short-term events and developments.

Secondly, there is an inclination to rely on 'gut feelings' and anecdotal evidence as a basis for making decisions, rather than drawing on readily available objective research. It is human nature to assess a situation in a way that reinforces our preconceptions and prejudices. The first impression is therefore often reinforced by selectively drawing on anecdotal evidence that tells only part of the story. Then, when more soundly based research contradicts what has become the conventional wisdom, it is the research that is questioned rather than the conventional wisdom.

Finally, following on from the previous point, there is a parsimonious attitude to investment in research. This is reflected in the data presented in Table 17.1, which reveals a disproportionately low level of investment in tourism research by the public and private sectors, relative to other industries.

The first two symptoms, in particular, reflect the incomplete picture of the environment affecting tourism held by many decision makers. That is, the assessments they make are not balanced by an appreciation of the full range of factors influencing trends in tourism. This point is considered in more detail subsequently when public sector tourism marketing in Australia is examined more closely. Aspects of the third symptom, relat-

3.2 Tourism Marketing in Perspective

Most analyses of tourism marketing (see, for example, Greenley and Matcham, 1971) highlight distinguishing features of the tourism product by referring to such characteristics as:

• Intangibility (product cannot be seen, touched, tasted, or sampled before purchase).

• Perishability (production is fixed in time and space and the product cannot be stored for future use).

• Heterogeneity (it is difficult to achieve standardization to the extent that is possible in mass-produced goods).

• Inseparability (the act of production and consumption is simultaneous). Although this approach may have been useful for pin-pointing characteristics of the tourism product that have a bearing on the marketing process, in these respects tourism is in fact no different from services in general. Furthermore, Middleton (1983) and others (for example, Wyckham, Fitzroy, and Mandry, 1975) have argued that services are not really distinguishable from goods in terms of these dimensions in any case.

Whatever one's position on the issues in this debate, there are two features of tourism that have a fundamental bearing on the subject of this paper, but which are neither emphasised nor generally recognised in the literature. First, tourism is an amalgam of complementary services that are destination specific. Although Medlik and Middleton (1974) and Jeffries (1971), for instance, recognise the 'amalgam' characteristic, they do not specifically emphasise, or spell out the implications of, tourism being destination specific.

The implications of this from a marketing point of view are that some emphasis has to be placed on promoting the destination, rather than individual elements of the amalgam per se. Also, because the organisation of the services at a particular destination is fragmented, a considerable amount of coordination is required in this process. The need for this coordination has resulted in government intervention (Gilbert, 1990), and in fact the main role of the public sector in tourism development (in Australia if not in all countries) has focussed on generic marketing of regions, states, and the country as a whole.

To appreciate the second prominent feature of tourism marketing that is most relevant to the point of this paper, it is necessary to go back to the classical 'four Ps' framework (i.e., product, price, promotion, and place) attributed to McCarthy (1981). Using this framework, tourism marketing is described as being:

• The process of identifying the needs and propensities of the consumer (or, more specifically, different segments of the consuming public),

• Developing or modifying the product in accordance with the needs of identified target markets,

• Devising mechanisms for facilitating awareness of, interest in, and access to the product, and

• Translating the above into sales through distribution networks, pricing mechanisms, and so on. However, given that the attractions or attributes of a destination are relatively fixed, there is a considerable element (at least in the short term) of adjusting consumer wants to the product. We thus have a typical chickenand- egg situation in the marketing process, which was explicitly recognized by Kottler (1961) more than 30 years ago when he pointed out that 'marketing's short-term task is to adjust consumers' wants to existing goods, but its long-term task is to adjust the goods to the customers' wants.' Of course, when considering tourism we should substitute 'products' for 'goods,' because this statement clearly applies across the board to both goods and services.

3.2.1 Public Sector Tourism Agencies in Austrlia

The problem with public sector tourism agencies in Australia, and probably the world over, is that they have become fixated on the short-term aspect of tourism marketing by putting all their efforts into packaging regional icons into images designed to appeal to consumers in advertising programs.

This process usually involves some marketing research (group sessions, sample surveys, market segmentation analyses, etc.), which is used to identify those features of the product that have an affinity with the attitudes and preferences of consumers.

However, as a consequence of the emphasis on advertising programmes, agencies have lost sight of the fact that consumer decisions occur within the context of a range of broader environmental factors. These factors impact on the propensity of specific market segments to make discretionary expenditures, and they influence the trade off between tourism and other outlets for leisure activity that must also be taken into account.

A strategic approach to marketing therefore requires a more rigorous analysis of these contextual factors than has been generally carried out to date. To elaborate on this point, an outline of what constitutes the environmental (or contextual) factors is provided in the following section. It provides the background required for the analysis of recent developments in public sector tourism agencies in Australia, which leads to the conclusion that they have become preoccupied with a tactical, as opposed to a strategic, approach.

3.2.2 The Factors that Affect Propensity to Travel

For the purposes of elaborating on the strategic considerations that need to be taken into account in tourism marketing, we will examine the dynamics of the inbound market. The range of factors influencing the market is described in Figure 17.1, where a distinction is made between:

• Factors that affect the propensity of populations to travel; and

• Factors that affect the comparative advantage of the destination question and, therefore, the potential for it to be chosen as a place to visit. At this point it is important to note that the model has been for illustrative purposes only. It is not intended to provide a comprehensive or exhaustive coverage of all factors at this stage, although it could be construed as having the potential to provide a heuristic framework for doing so in the longer term. Again, examples from the Australian situation will be used for clarification purposes.

Considering the factors that affect the propensity to travel first, one of the main sets of variables relates to *economic factors*. The general health of the economy, as reflected, for instance, in gross domestic product (GDP), has a bearing on:

• Disposable incomes, and therefore the ability and preparedness to spend on discretionary items such as travel. The significance of this variable is reflected in the fact that, according to Middleton (1983), three-quarters of world travel in the 1980s was generated by the 20 countries with the highest per capita disposable incomes. The distribution of incomes within the population is also important because this will influence the proportion of the population who have sufficient income to travel.

• The general health of the economy also affects unemployment levels, which in turn have a fundamental influence not only on the size of the population with the disposable income required for travel, but also on the overall confidence of the market to spend in this area. High unemployment generates uncertainty within individuals about their future income-earning capacity, and thus reduces their preparedness to spend on discretionary items such as travel.

 The significance of economic growth, and its bearing on tourism through its effect on disposable incomes, unemployment levels, and general consumer confidence.   All these

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reversals coincided with periods of general worldwide economic downturns. The more pronounced reversal in 1989 reflects the additional effects of other contributing factors, such as:

• Time-switching effects associated with the 1988 World Expo in Brisbane and the Australian bicentennial celebrations,

• The appreciation of the Australian dollar,
• An Australia-wide domestic airlines pilots dispute, and
• An increasing proportion of holiday visitors in the Australian inbound market, which has the effect of making the market more volatile because of its increasingly discretionary nature (Faulkner, 1990). The second set of factors affecting propensity to travel relate to *demographic factors* such as the size, age profile, and family structure of the population:

• After taking into account disposable incomes and the distribution of incomes, the actual size of the population is obviously critical in determining the number of travellers that can be generated by a particular market.

• Aging populations often generate more travel owing to the higher proportion of retirees who not only have more free time at their disposal for travel, but also have relatively high disposable incomes despite being income poor.
• Household structure has a bearing on the nature of demand through its influence on household disposable incomes through, for example, the incidence of double income households with no kids (DINKS) and the free time available for holidays (e.g., DINKS have an inclination for short breaks because of the work commitments of partners and the difficulty of arranging concurrent leave).

The third set of factors affecting propensity to travel relate to the *socio-cultural background* of the population. Relevant factors include:

• The migratory history of the population, which will have a bearing on travel to the extent that it generates visits-to-friends-and-relatives traffic, and

• Institutional factors, such as holiday entitlements, affect the amount of free time a population has at its disposal for travel vis-à-vis other leisure pursuits. For instance, travel for Japanese is constrained by them having only two weeks annual leave. Because population and wealth are two of the more easily measurable and potent factors affecting the potential of individual markets, various markets are classified in terms of these two factors (Figure 17.3). Here each country has been plotted according to its population (on the vertical axis) and GDP per capita (on the horizontal axis).

If it is assumed that wealth takes precedence over the size of the population, then each group's potential to generate visitors can be ranked in accordance with the numbering system adopted in the graph. Thus, for instance, China is a low generator of overseas travellers despite its huge 1.1 billion-person population because fewer of its people can afford to travel. If we look at how each market has performed in terms of the number of arrivals in Australia (Table 17.2), however, we can see that there are a number of anomalies:
• Japan has almost double the number of arrivals compared with the United States, despite these two countries being in the same group.

• The United Kingdom stands out as having up to 10 times the number of arrivals of other countries in its group.

• Singapore, New Zealand, and Hong Kong registered more arrivals than most of the wealthier and larger countries in the previous group.

• New Zealand is among the top three inbound markets despite its being one of the smallest countries. To address these apparent anomalies, we need to look at the second set of factors in the model—factors affecting the *competitive advantage* of Australia vis-à-vis other destinations. These include such factors as:

• Geographical proximity, which in turn affects costs of getting to Australia in terms of both time and money, the level of inconvenience associated with time zone adjustments, and what the geographers refer to as intervening opportunities.

• Comparative prices of various aspects of the product, which, in turn, can be influenced by relativities between countries in wages, price
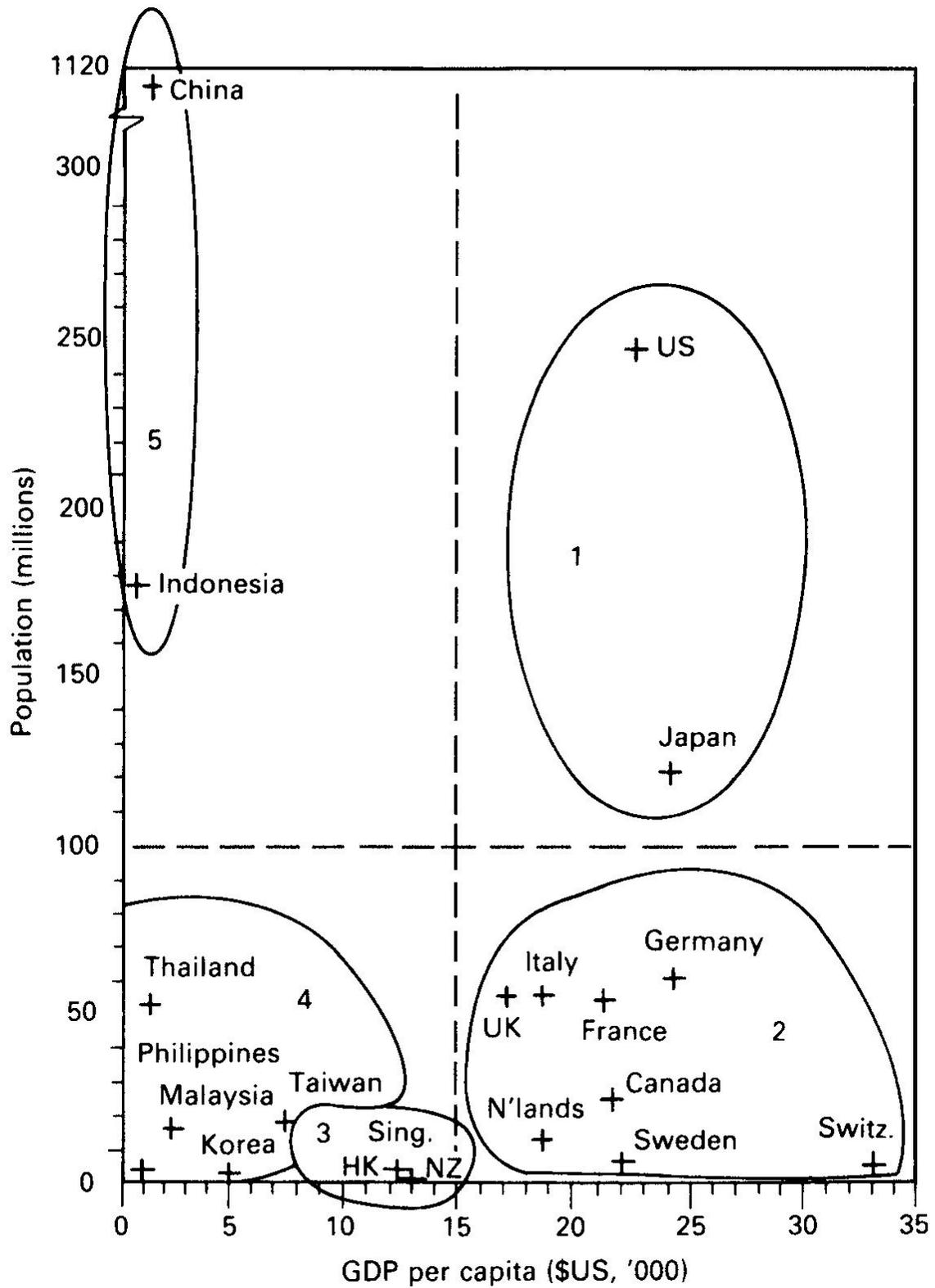
Figure 17.3: Population and wealth of major markets. **Source:** International Aviation Dev Corp. 2008 p34

inflation, and exchange rates. The policy environment in the destination can have a profound effect on its competitiveness.

The microeconomic reform agenda in Australia has enhanced its competitiveness as a destination through the impact of deregulation on the price and quality of domestic airline services.

3.2.3 Country's Political stability and attractiveness to Tourism

However, despite this and other reforms, many aspects of the Australian product continue to be uncompetitive in terms of price (Commonwealth Department of Industry, Science and Technology, 1996). In particular, Australia's

weak position competing against Asian destinations stands out in this analysis.

• The political stability of a country will affect its attractiveness as a destination to the extent that this influences safety considerations. The decline in Fiji's inbound market during and after the 1980s political coup provides an example of this effect, as does the more recent impact of the Gulf War on world travel in general.

• As we have seen in the recent history of inbound travel to Australia, events such as the 88 Expo can have a profound short-term effect on visitor numbers. They can also have a longer term promotional effect. The staging of the 2000 Olympics in Sydney has been broadly endorsed as a major coup for the tourism industry because of its potential to have this effect. Given that Australia is a long-haul destination for most countries, international airfares make up a substantial proportion of the total cost of visiting this destination.

The effect international airfare fluctuations can have on visitor numbers is highlighted in Figure 17.4, which shows a peak in arrivals to Australia from the United States coinciding with the height-
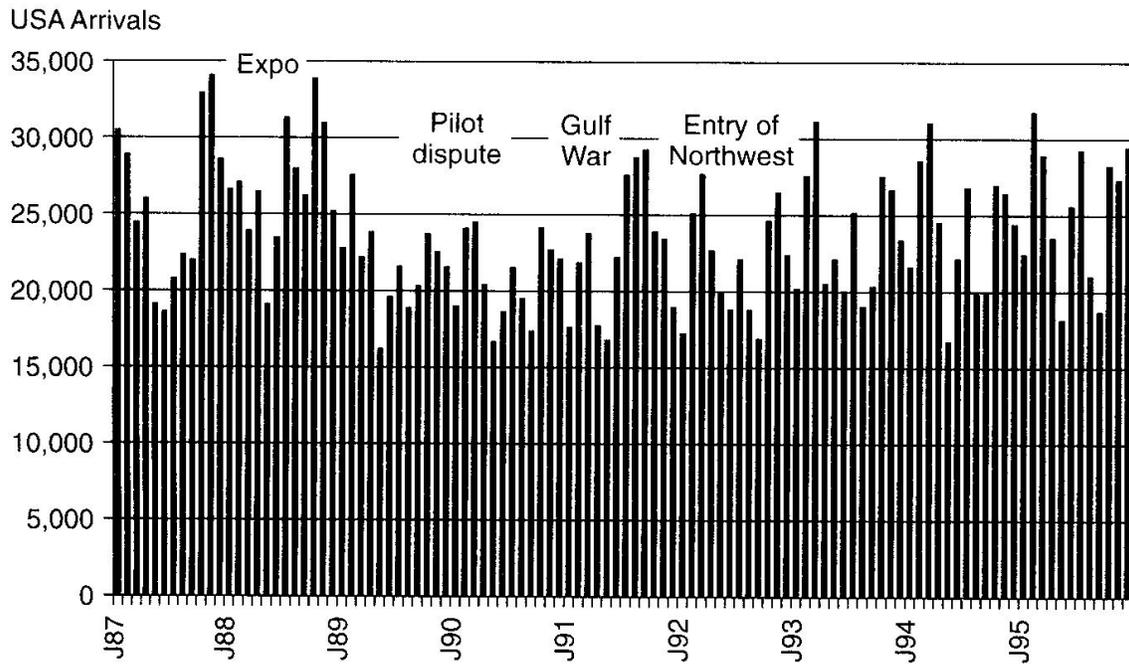
USA Arrivals

Figure 17.4: Short-term arrivals from the United States. *Source* USA aviation Compass, N.Y. 2007 p.112

ened competition on the U.S.–Australian route that accompanied the entry of Northwest Airlines. This figure also highlights the response of the U.S. market to the 1989 World Expo in Brisbane.

The two remaining factors that affect the competitive position of a destination are the natural and man-made attributes (or intrinsic characteristics) that affect its appeal as a place to visit, and the effectiveness of the marketing of the destination.

Advertising and promotional activities are fundamental catalysts by virtue of the role they play in stimulating the overseas markets' awareness of, and interest in, travelling to the destination. In the analysis of inbound markets in terms of wealth and population, we noted several anomalies.

These anomalies become somewhat more understandable if we take into account just one of the more readily quantifiable factors referred to earlier as contributing to comparative advantage— geographical proximity.

When we superimpose the geographical proximity factor on the earlier classification based on population and wealth, **as in Figure 17.5,** it can be seen that most of the anomalies exceed expectations because of their greater geographical proximity to Australia.

What stands out in this sort of analysis is the impression of transience in the factors affecting demand. It seems that the combination of variables that is most influential varies in time, with each variable (or set of variables) coming into play periodically as some threshold is reached, which represents the point at which the market becomes sensitive to the

3.2.4   Public Sector Tourism and Marketing Demand

The previous model highlights the need to analyze macro-level factors affecting tourism demand in order to provide a context for other aspects of marketing research. Indeed, the analysis of these factors is essential for establishment of a truly strategic approach for two specific reasons:

• Such analyses provide the basis for identifying, and therefore targeting, those markets that exhibit the greatest potential to travel, and

• In evaluating the effectiveness of promotion programs, variables that affect the response of markets, but are less susceptible to manipulation through the advertising process, must be taken into account. In reviewing the progress of public sector marketing in Australia toward the satisfaction of these requirements one would have to conclude that, at best, we have had mixed success.

There have been some positive developments, which represent a tentative step in the right direction, but progress beyond this point has faltered, owing to a shift in priorities toward an all-consuming concentration of resources on advertising. On the positive side, the establishment of the Australian Bureau of Tourism Research (BTR) in 1987 resulted in the

concentration of state and commonwealth resources to create the critical mass required for an effective research programs.

Also, through this initiative, a more coordinated approach to tourism research at the national level has been established. Systems for monitoring the levels and characteristics of tourist activity have been upgraded and progress has been made in the analysis of factors affecting demand, especially through work carried out on the development of forecasting models.

This work has been extended recently through the establishment of the **national Tourism Forecasting Council,** which adds a consultative dimension to the forecasting process. In line with the BTR's designated role of promoting the more effective use of research in tourism development, it has been instrumental in fostering the adoption of a strategic approach by making government and industry more aware of the importance of a firm research foundation in the planning and management process.

In general, marketing research carried out by government tourism bodies has consisted mainly of market segmentation studies aimed at calibrating advertising activities and, incidentally, to provide input to product development.

Tracking studies have also been carried out for the purposes of gauging the immediate effect of individual advertising campaigns on changing the awareness of, and interest in, the product. Meanwhile, some satisfaction surveys have been conducted from time to time. These surveys have not always involved the degree of methodological rigor that would justify the conclusions drawn from them.

The recognition of the influence of contextual factors has been to some extent forced upon the commonwealth and state tourism agencies by their respective departments of finance and treasuries. The simplistic attribution of growth in tourism numbers directly to advertising campaigns, without reference to other factors, is no longer accepted as a credible justification for continued public funding of tourism promotion (Faulkner= and Shaw, 1992).

Such pressure was instrumental in the conduct of a more rigorous evaluation of the **Australian Tourist Commission's (ATC) programme** (Australian Tourist Commission, 1991), which featured a detailed analysis of contextual factors (Crouch and Shaw, 1990). Crouch (1994) has since extended this work by using a meta-analysis–based approach to isolate the key independent variables that have been used in the analysis of international tourism movements.

Despite the impetus that the ATC initiative could have provided, there remains a general insensitivity to the level of commitment to research, which is essential to the development of a truly strategic posture. Indeed, as mentioned previously, the prevailing trend among public sector tourism agencies in Australia is toward the concentration of resources on advertising programs at the expense of research.

This phenomenon has been referred to as 'advertising fundamentalism' (Faulkner, 1991), the rationale of which appears to hinge on the following proposition that 'gaining the competitive edge in the quest for maximizing market share resides in the manipulation of consumer awareness and choice through advertising programs.

In the context of limited funding and the high cost of maintaining electronic media exposure, therefore, the diversion of funds from research and other areas is justified.' Although it is plausible that an increased commitment to advertising will increase market share, this will occur only if these programs are integrated with a broader strategy encompassing product development and the effective identification and targeting of potential market segments.

Also, the impacts of advertising and the marketing program as a whole need to be continuously monitored and evaluated so that deficiencies can be remedied and adjustments made in response to changing circumstances.

Therefore, without a sound research basis for these aspects of the marketing process, the destination marketing organization's stewardship of the overall marketing programs is akin to 'flying blind.'

3.2.5 Systematic Evaluation as an Integral Component of the Destination Marketing Process

From the study of earlier units in the previous module, it might be concluded that a considerable investment in research is an essential prerequisite for the development of a truly strategic approach to tourism destination marketing, and research has a two-fold role in this context.

First, research is necessary to assess the current state of affairs and scan the environment in the manner necessary to carry out a destination SWOT analysis and, in the light of this, devise marketing plans for the future.

Second, research is necessary to evaluate the impacts of these plans and thus provide a basis for identifying deficiencies and devising measures to remedy these. The approach to the evaluation phase to date, however, has been distorted by the tendency for this activity to be carried out largely as a response to external demands for accountability, rather than as a consequence of any recognition of its importance as an integral part of the planning process.

A piecemeal and fragmented approach to evaluation has therefore prevailed, with the high profile/high cost elements of marketing programs being the focus of attention and the timing of the evaluation being governed by the periodic concerns of other agencies, rather than the continuous requirements of internal programs management. Within this environment, the full potential of evaluation as an integral part of the destination marketing plan development and management process is yet to be realized.

A framework for the comprehensive evaluation of destination marketing program is provided in *Figure 17.6.* Here, the evaluation process is depicted as comprising four basic layers of activity:

• The program review stage, where the appropriateness of organizational objectives is assessed, and the key strategies (media advertising, direct marketing, travel writer programs etc.) are identified. Associated targets around which the marketing program is structured are also noted as benchmarks for considering outcomes.

• The performance monitoring phase involves the measurement of the output of each element of the programs in terms of various performance indicators (number of inquiries generated, coupon responses, column inches generated, etc.).

• The causal analysis phase carries the previous activities a step further by attempting to establish linkages between outputs and responses in the marketplace. At one level, we may employ such techniques as tracking studies and conversion studies to quantify immediate impacts, whereas market share analyses might be used to map longer term market trends with a view to identifying longer term effects.

At another level, multivariate analysis or experimental methods might be applied in an effort to distinguish market reactions specifically attributable to the program from those associated with the effects of broader environmental factors such as those discussed earlier in this unit.

3.2.6 Cost Incurred in implementing Programs

Finally, the cost–benefit analysis stage is essentially concerned with establishing whether or not the costs incurred in implementing the programs are outweighed by the benefits derived from any increase in visitor arrivals that is achieved. A more detailed review of the methods involved in the development of this approach to evaluation appears in Faulkner (1997), where the underlying rationale for its application is also described. Briefly, there are two key points regarding the limitations of evaluation methodologies and the strategic planning process that warrant mention at this point:

• Destination marketing programs encompass a range of activities that represent a small proportion of the extensive array of factors that influence international tourism flows. Although some of these factors are quantifiable and can therefore be taken into account in conventional forms of analysis, many potentially important variables have been excluded because adequate data is not available and/or they are simply not quantifiable. We can, therefore, only ever expect to isolate the impacts of marketing and other contributing factors in a partial sense.

• Also, whatever techniques are applied in the evaluation process, they will each be deficient in some respect and the interpretation of results will be subject to certain caveats.

This problem resulted in the ATC (1991) adopting a 'weight of evidence' approach to the evaluation of its programs, whereby several parallel *studies involving methodologies* with different sets of strengths and weaknesses were involved. Thus, collaborative results produced by a combination of these studies imply a higher level of confidence to the extent that the limitations of one technique might be compensated by the strengths of another.

The framework described in Figure 17.6 represents an extension of this approach in the sense that it provides a more systematic and coherent methodology.
• Attempts to attribute market trends to specific marketing initiatives are further compounded by the fact that many of the variables and events influencing tourists' decisions in general, and the relative attractiveness of the destination in particular, are simply beyond the   control of destination marketing organizations.

There are two implications:

First, whatever criteria are adopted as indicators of success in the marketplace, caution must be exercised in the extent to which outcomes are attributed specifically to marketing activities.
Some outcomes are achieved as the consequence of a fortuitous (or unfortunate) convergence of random events irrespective of the actions of destination marketing organisations.

Second, no matter how sophisticated the forecasting methodologies on which strategic planning may be based, the environment in which we operate is essentially chaotic and the only certainty is that the unexpected will happen.

In the Australian context, the advertising fundamentalists will appear to be vindicated in the short term, as growth in the inbound and domestic tourism sectors in the early to mid-1990s has continued in response to improving international and domestic economic conditions, and the inbound market in particular continues to be boosted by the growth of nearby Asian economies.

The extent to which increased visitation levels are actually attributable to the emphasis on advertising will therefore be open to question, and will certainly not be verifiable if research functions remain under resourced.

More importantly, however, problems will be encountered in the future as the effectiveness of longer term (i.e., strategic) planning is jeopardized by the insufficient research input to both the analysis of emerging trends and the evaluation of previous methods. We are therefore prone to repeating the mistakes of the past.

Self Assessment Questions

(i)   How and why can considerable investment in research is an essential prerequisite for the development of a truly strategic approach to tourism destination marketing?
(ii) Outline and explain two reasons why appropriate research is essential in state affairs of tourism success?

4.0   Conclusion

The basic proposition of this chapter has been that the analysis of the contextual or environmental factors affecting tourism demand is an integral part of the more strategic approach to tourism marketing, which is so essential for long-term effectiveness. Equally, more rigorous and systematic evaluations of marketing effectiveness are required to complement this approach. The trend toward advertising fundamentalism (at the expense of the commitment to research) among tourism agencies in Australia is therefore inconsistent with the development of the strategic marketing approach and will be counter-productive in the longer term. From an Australian point of view, this trend will progressively undermine any competitive advantage its tourism product either currently possesses or has the potential to develop in the future. Of course, this will occur only to the extent that other countries, which provide alternative destinations, are not also falling into the 'advertising fundamentalism' trap.

5.0 Summary

It seems highly likely, however, that the failure to adopt a truly strategic approach is not unique to Australia. On an international scale, therefore, the implications of this phenomenon go beyond simply the effect it may have on the competitive advantage of individual countries vis-à-vis others. The real problem is that the prevailing approach to tourism development and marketing has the potential to stifle the emergence of tourism as a dynamic and sustainable force in many economies.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) What are essential Ingredients of the Strategic Approach to tourism marketing?

(ii) Highlight Discuss the distinguishing features and characteristics of Tourism Marketing in Perspectives?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) From the study of earlier units in the previous module, it might be concluded that a considerable investment in research is an essential prerequisite for the development of a truly strategic approach to tourism destination marketing, and research has a two-fold role in this context.

(ii) *First,* research is necessary to assess the current state of affairs and scan the environment in the manner necessary to carry out a destination SWOT analysis and, in the light of this, devise marketing plans for the future.

(iii) *Second*, research is necessary to evaluate the impacts of these plans and thus provide a basis for identifying deficiencies and devising measures to remedy these. The approach to the evaluation phase to date, however, has been distorted by the tendency for this activity to be carried out largely as a response to external demands for accountability, rather than as a consequence of any recognition of its importance as an integral part of the planning process.

UNIT19   Ethical considerations in sustainable tourism

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UNIT 19   Ethical considerations in sustainable tourism

CONTENTS
1.0 Introduction

There is a growing awareness that the natural world has limits that our current assumptions and activities are quickly exceeding. It ethical not to ignore the positive economic and environmental impacts that tourism can create, and the potentially significant contribution that tourism can make to the socioeconomic development of host and generating societies.

In this unit, we shall be studying the critical issues and concepts involved in ethical and professional conduct considerations in ethical decision making in global tourism business.

Should we not be channeling our energies into preventing less sustainable activities like commercial logging and the transportation of heavy goods through park high-ways .

In this unit also we shall further explores the relationship between ethics and sustainable tourism and considers how an understanding of the ethical approaches of future tourism managers will benefit our ability to manage the industry in the future.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Define the meaning of ethics in sustainable tourism

Identify the key parameters of ethical consideration in understanding tourism

Discuss the bases and essence of ethical decision making process in tourism business

Explain how ethical approach to sustainable tourism depends on our view of sustainable tourism

Understand that ethical decisions demonstrate strong ties with the concepts of corporate and social responsibility and ultimately sustainable tourism

Know the limits of their professional ability to recognize the ethical issue in the course of their practice of norm, value and related issues in tourism

State your understanding of teleological or deontological view of ethics in tourism

3.0   Main Content

3.1 Ethical considerations in sustainable tourism

The Relationship between Ethics and Sustainable Tourism and Ethics is the study of moral philosophy and is concerned with the distinction between 'right' and 'wrong.' Clearly the world is a complex place and issues of absolute right or wrong are rare, but ethics can provide the broad disciplinary framework within which sustainable tourism can be analysed (Tribe, 2002).

This is because a vital part of ethics is that of value clarification, and by examining common definitions of sustainable tourism its values emerge. However, regardless of whether we are convinced by a principles-based approach or a utilitarian view of the world, to make a decision on any topic we need to understand the issues before us. Yet, in the case of sustainable tourism, these values and our understanding have changed radically over the last 50 years, and as our understanding has changed, so has the ethical context in which past tourism managers have made their decisions. To appreciate the importance of understanding ethics in relation to sustainable tourism, we need to consider two crucial debates that affect the successful development of the tourism industry. The first debate is thousands of years old and considers 'what is ethical,' and the second debate considers 'our view of sustainable tourism.'

3.1.1   Understanding Ethics in Tourism

As with so many questions, the answer to the question, 'what is ethical?' depends heavily on the approach we take to answer the question. The two main approaches to ethical decision making derived from the literature are those reliant on the theories of deontology and teleology. A *deontological* approach enjoys a rich historical legacy, dating back to philosophers such as Socrates, and more recently to the work of Kant. Deontology is concerned with the idea of universal truths and principles, which should be adhered to regardless of the circumstances.

Kant's categorical imperative states that a person faced with a problem should be able to respond consistently and in conformity with their moral principles and also feel comfortable with the decision being made in full view of others. A *teleological* view can be understood as 'consequentialism' (Kaynama, King, and Smith, 1996) following from the philosophical work of Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill on utilitarianism. Thus, ethical decisions are made in view of expected outcomes, which eliminate the universality of decisions and subordinates principles to context.

A common expression for the two approaches would be that deontology places the means as more important than the end, whereas for teleology it is the end that justifies the means. If we go back to our original example, if the ski areas in the parks were known to be causing serious environmental damage, a deontological approach might be to close the resorts until such time as the damage could be prevented entirely. The effects of this may be unemployment for those who worked at the resorts as well as negative publicity sent to the marketplace, ultimately damaging the viability of the resorts. However, the decision to close

the resorts would still be taken, because to cause environmental damage is wrong and so to solve it immediately is the correct course of action.

A teleological view would be to evaluate the damage done to the environment versus the resort and the local economy and then to conduct a cost– benefit analysis to determine a course of action. The outcome may be the same as that taken by a deontologist, but the reasoning would not be made on the basis of principle but because this was the most expedient decision. Such approaches to ethical decisions demonstrate strong ties with the concepts of corporate and social responsibility and ultimately sustainable tourism and sustainable development. Huberman-Arnold and Arnold state teleologically, 'The corporate world has seen the value of ethics in the workplace. Good treatment of those internal to the corporation as well as those external to it, and of the environment, will improve the work climate, and increase profitability backed by public approval' (2001).

Preaching the alternate view, Przeclawski expresses his conviction that '. . . tourists, inhabitants and brokers should respect *fundamental values* such as human life and dignity, natural and cultural environment, family, holidays and holy places, real and suitable information, private property, freedom and observe the ethical norms connected with them' (1997).

Similarly, the actions of some within the tourism industry to promote greater sustainable tourism are taken because of a belief that such actions are simply the right course of action, whilst for others, actions promoting sustainable tourism are taken because they will result in increased profits. Related to this argument, Bowie (2001) points to a trend away from the Kantian perspective of ethics for the sake of ethics and toward a position where ethics are considered when they can produce greater profits. He cites the increase in the number of U.S. companies calculating the benefit accrued from their charitable donations, rather than just giving money to charity.

Thus, ethics are seen not to have an intrinsic value, but are attractive because of their extrinsic worth. Wheeller (1993) has also argued that we support sustainable tourism because it makes us feel better, not because of a philanthropic concern for the environment. In fact he says ecotourism's impotence is its main attraction, calling it 'the perfect political fob, it soothes consciences, demands no sacrifices and allows extended holiday choice while providing an ideal shield, doubling as a marketing ploy, for the tourism industry.' However, what such a dogmatic position ignores is that the effect of a deontological or a teleological decision can be exactly the same regardless of the reasons for which it was taken.

A decision to preserve rare species for intrinsic reasons or for extrinsic reasons still results in the preservation of rare species. Later in the unit we consider how managers make these decisions in order that those decision-making processes can best be manipulated to produce a decision of benefit to all. The following section examines the context in which these decisions are made and the effect this has on the extent to which decisions can be considered ethical or not.

In Banff National Park, Canada, like in many other parts of the developed world, a fierce battle is taking place between conservationists and the tourism industry. Conservationists are arguing for more environmental protection and a restriction on tourism growth, and tourism operators are seeking to upgrade and develop tourism facilities, arguing that it is wrong to

restrict access and deny their businesses profits and locals and tourists the opportunity to enjoy some of the most beautiful and accessible outdoor recreation terrain in the world.

Current federal policy favors the conservationists, and the new National Parks Act makes ecological integrity, not enjoyment, the primary role of Canada's national parks. The decision by the Canadian government to give the environment priority over humans in the park is a noble one.

3.1.2 Relationship between Ethics and Sustainable Tourism

From the previous units study we know that we can take either a principled view of the world or a more pragmatic, consequentialist view, but we need also to consider the second part of this phrase, our 'view of the world.' The dominant view of the world will shape, and be shaped by, our understanding of sustainable tourism and so determine the relationship between ethics and sustainable tourism.

Thus, our ethical approach to sustainable tourism depends on our view of sustainable tourism, and although this is a more recent debate than considering our ethical approach, it is no less important. From the birth of mass tourism in the 1950s the tourism industry has largely been seen as an economic panacea and mostly bereft of environmental, social, or political impact. Zierer (1952, quoted in Cohen, 1978) states confidently, 'a notable characteristic of the tourism industry is that it does not, or should not, lead to the destruction of natural resources.'

Convinced by the economic benefits of the industry, the World Bank was an enthusiastic supporter of tourism development and lent nearly US$500 million to tourism projects between 1969 and 1979 (Lanfant and Graburn, 1992). Stankovic (1979) characterises the effusive views of tourism, opining, '. . . tourism . . . can, more than many other activities, use and valorise such parts and elements of nature as are of almost no value for other economic branches and activities.' Bartelmus (1994) refers to this neoclassical view as an 'empty-world' approach because of the way the environment and humans are excluded from consideration, although such an exploitive approach to natural resources was typical of the age before Carson's seminal Silent Spring (Carson, 1966). It is easy with the benefit of hindsight to be critical of the decisions made during this period, and looking now from a time 40 years further on we might feel that the almost total support for economic benefits was wrong.

The idea of 'moral relativism' supports the belief that decisions are taken within a cultural context and it is unjustified for those outside this context to criticise the ethics of the decisions made. Hence, non- cognitivists believe that what is morally right or wrong is whatever cultural groups say it is, thus avoiding the position of one group telling another group what is acceptable. Just as moral relativists look across cultures, so it is similarly possible to look through time at the morality of decisions and avoid declaring past actions to be immoral because of what we know now.

However, the problem with moral relativism is that if we accept that no cultural group has moral superiority over any other, we must also accept the immoral groups, or those morally intolerant of others, because their views carry equal weight to those of all other groups. By extension, genocide could be seen as a morally valid act because it was supported by a

cultural group. Rejecting non-cognitivism and moral relativism means accepting that there are objective truths to be discovered, the problem becomes in determining what the objective truths should be based on.

Many philosophers have felt that religious morality should be the foundation of any search for objective truths, and this has led easily to an anthropocentric view of the world. Under this anthropocentric view of the world, man is placed at the centre of everything and believes that the world and all its resources are for the benefit of us.

The Book of Genesis gives rise to this idea, calling on Adam and Eve to 'dominate and subdue' the earth, leading us to believe that man has been granted dominion over the nonhuman and non-sentient environment.

Within this 'instrumentalist' view the value of the resources of the world is limited to the pleasure and profit they can produce for man. Concordant with this position is the opinion that resources can be substituted perfectly for each other. Thus, to leave to future generations a rich financial inheritance is of equal value to bequeathing a rich environmental legacy.

Assuming this paradigm, what is 'right' is what is most beneficial for man, and the needs of the environment are not considered beyond this. Despite understanding the damage done by this approach to the environment, it is difficult to be critical of the approach taken given the moral context.

There are plenty of examples in the world still where the immediate concerns of man are understandably given priority over the more distant concerns of environmental protection. Yet, in a tourism context, the unquestioning acceptance of tourism as an economic panacea was replaced in the 1970s and early 1980s by an era of the great critique. The cautionary stance taken by the writings of the day was typified by Plog (1974) who famously observed, 'Destinations carry with them the potential seeds of their own destruction, as they allow themselves to become more commercialized and lose their qualities which originally attracted tourists.'

Amongst the many epoch-marking works, Budowski (1976) and Cohen (1978) focussed on the environmental impacts of tourism; Cohen (1972), DeKadt (1979), Doxey (1975), and MacCannell (1976) the sociocultural impacts; Britton (1982) and De Kadt (1979) the political consequences; whereas Bryden (1973) questioned the previously unchallenged economic value of tourism.

Although the critiques of the 1970s raised awareness to the potential impacts of tourism, the response adopted by the protagonists of the industry during the mid-1980s was described as 'adaptive' (Jafari, 1989). However, this promulgation of alternative forms of tourism seemed reactionary rather than adaptive and gave rise to the vilification of mass tourism (Turner and Ash, 1975; Butler, 1990; Smith and Eadington, 1992; McElroy and de Albuquerque, 1996).

Mass tourism came to be synonymous with unsustainable practices, seen as being responsible for the deleterious effects of tourism on environments and societies. As a consequence, the rise of alternative tourism and 'ecotourism' were seen as the champions of a sustainable way forward with the emphasis on small-scale developments, community involvement, and the preeminence of environmental protection. This shift in thinking denotes a move from an anthropocentric ethic to an eco-centric ethic. This was a significant departure from previous

thinking because man's place alongside, rather than in domination over, the rest of nature is assumed.

The conservation of sentient and non-sentient beings is not just for their extrinsic value, but because they are afforded rights of existence, a recognition of an intrinsic right 'to be.' A more extreme version of eco-centrism is where the rights of the ecosystem are deemed to be more important than any single component of the system. Under such a view, the reintroduction of species to an area would be supported if it strengthened the ecosystem, even if this was at the cost of human safety, or led to a decline in numbers of a more plentiful species. However, such an ethic is felt to be out of step with current thinking, and actions taken under the direction of this ethic could be seen to be unethical against the current moral background.

The dominant approach today is arguably a second anthropocentric view of the world, described as one with a 'conservation ethic' and is perhaps the view of the world taken today by most of the international organizations such as the United Nations or the World Bank. Even the Brundtland1 report on sustainable development can be said to have followed a conservation ethic.

Under this ethic the value of nature is recognized and we seek to conserve the environment for a general benefit to mankind, not just an economic benefit. Still the economic imperative is recognized, but it is understood that a minimum amount of natural resources must be bequeathed to our children in order that the world can continue to function and so future generations do not face problems of survival.

Within a tourism *context, Hunter (1995) describes our understanding of sustainable tourism, as concerned with sustaining the tourism industry, as the 'dominant paradigm,' one where a 'tourism-centric' view is taken of sustainability.* Butler (1993) characterizes this interpretation of *sustainable tourism as 'tourism which is in a form which can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time'* (emphasis added).

The essential element to this definition is that tourism is concerned to maintain 'its' viability over an indefinite period of time.

This is clearly the definition of sustainable tourism that has been developed by those in the tourism industry, and not the definition that has crossed from the developmental literature. Although it is equally clear that a tourism industry that is not sustained is not in a position to contribute to sustainable development.

An alternative understanding of sustainable tourism is to view it in a developmental context. Butler (1993) describes sustainable tourism in this context as Godfrey (1998) also identifies tourism in a sustainable development context, *'sustainable tourism is thus not an end in itself, nor a unique or isolated procedure, but rather an inter-dependent function of a wider and permanent socio-economic development process.' Under this interpretation, the most needy element of a society, whether it be the natural environment, society, culture, or finance, is what the tourism industry (and all industry) should work toward, with each element being valued equally.* Despite this, Healey and Shaw (1994) believe that there is a preference for the economic over the environmental, whereas Craik (1995) places the environment above socio-cultural matters for consideration.

However, even if all elements of society are valued equally, it is not appropriate for tourism to necessarily contribute equally to all elements of society.

Hence, tourism may be able to contribute much needed hard currency to a destination, in which case, the old interpretation of tourism as an economic panacea can be seen to promote sustainable tourism because it promotes sustainable development. Conversely, in other destinations, preservation of the natural environment may be the strongest contribution the tourism industry can make toward the development of society and here the tourism industry would be operating under a more eco-centric ethic. What is central to this understanding of sustainable tourism is that the tourism industry acknowledges itself to be a part of society and not apart from society.

3.1.3 Strategic Contribution to Tourism and Environment for future generation

By understanding the need for more sustainable development and the contribution the tourism industry can make toward this position, it is possible to assume either a teleological or deontological view of ethics. An understanding based on promoting sustainable development because it is our responsibility as stewards of the world for future generations can be achieved through more teleological means. Similarly, an anthropocentric view of the world can encourage us to pursue sustainable dev

elopment, not because of the intrinsic value of the environment as an eco-centrist would hold, but because a sustainable world will make the world a nicer place to live in. Holden (2003) questions whether it is time for a new environmental ethic and reports signs of a change in the dominant ethic, evidencing the United Kingdom's 'Strategy for Sustainable Development,' which, in relation to leisure and tourism, observes, 'the environment has an intrinsic value which outweighs its value as a leisure asset.'

The strategy continues to discuss the need to protect the environment for the enjoyment of future generations and so adopts a more instrumental approach. Although this change in language may appear to signal a more ecocentric approach, it is instructive that this change has happened in a developed western society where perhaps man's requirement of the environment has changed from a time when resources were to be exploited through consumption.

If man is deciding that the environment has a right to exist, then arguably man is still using the environment for his purposes, albeit these purposes have changed, then the dominant view of the world could still be seen to be anthropocentric. The reconciling of ethical approaches (deontology/teleology), a view of the world (anthropocentric/eco-centric), and our understanding of sustainable tourism (sustaining tourism/tourism that contributes to sustainable development) can be a head-spinning exercise. Yet the following section demonstrates why understanding how decisions are made and what factors influence these decisions is crucial to the ability to control the development of the tourism industry in the future.

3.2 Manager's Understanding of Ethical Decision Making

in Tourism

The previous section shows that it is possible to be anthropocentric, teleological, and to understand sustainable tourism to be all about the advancement of the industry and yet to still be in agreement over a course of action with an ecocentric deonotologist who believes

sustainable tourism means searching for how the industry can contribute to the sustainable development of society.

Hence, if the industry is to encourage more sustainable practices, we need to be able to understand how the tourism managers of today and the future make decisions in order that those decision-making processes can best be manipulated to produce a benefit to all of us. A number of 'tools' exist to control the tourism industry, ranging from market-based instruments such as taxes to more command-and-control instruments such as legislation.

For a deontologist, breaking the law would contravene their view of ethics and so the legislation would be abided by almost regardless of the value of the legislation. Yet, a teleologist would consider the consequences of not abiding by the law and would weigh this against the benefits of breaking the law.

If tourism managers seem to adopt a teleological approach to management, then legislation can expect to be effective only if accompanied by stringent penalties that make the outlawed behaviour not worthwhile, and hence the need to understand how decisions are made. Malloy and Fennell (1998), Cleek and Leonard (1998), and Stevens (2001) all point to the increasing prevalence of codes of ethics employed by both the general tourism industry and the ecotourism industry as a tool to provide guidance to employees when making decisions.

3.2.1 World Tourism Organization (WTO) on Ethics

An important contribution in this area has been made by the World Tourism Organization, who in 1999 approved the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism that consolidated and reinforced previous recommendations and declarations on sustainable tourism.

The Code aims to preserve the world's natural resources and cultural heritage from disruptive tourist activities and to ensure a fair and equitable sharing of benefits that arise out of tourism with the residents of tourism destinations.

Article 3 of the Code refers specifically to sustainable development and includes some of the most innovative legal principles and environmental methods in this field (Table 13.1) (World Tourism Organization, 1999).

It is also unique in that it includes a mechanism for enforcement of its provisions. Ferrell and Skinner (1988) believe that the existence and enforcement of codes of ethics are associated with higher levels of ethical behaviour, although without the means to enforce adherence, Moore (1970) believes a code of ethics has limited meaning.

The need for means of enforcement would indicate that those making decisions do not respond to the codes deontologically, but teleologically. Yet, valuable research by Malloy and Fennell (1998) declares the majority of codes to be deontological in their language.

Research showing whether tourism managers did in fact apply a teleological approach to decisions would reveal deontological codes of ethics to be little more than an exercise in promoting external goodwill, whereas the opposite finding would strengthen the case for codes of ethics (Rondinelli and Berry, 2000). However, thus far there has been no tourism study to assess ethically how decisions are made by those that are subject

3.2.2 Factors Driving Sustainable Tourism

1. All the stakeholders in tourism development should safeguard the natural environment with a view to achieving sound, continuous and sustainable economic growth geared to satisfying equitably the needs and aspirations of present and future generations

2. All forms of tourism development that are conducive to saving rare and precious resources, in particular water and energy, as well as avoiding so far as possible waste production, should be given priority and encouraged by national, regional and local public authorities

3. The staggering in time and space of tourist and visitor flows, particularly those resulting from paid leave and school holidays, and a more even distribution of holidays should be sought so as to reduce the pressure of tourism activity on the environment and enhance its beneficial impact on the tourism industry and the local economy

4. Tourism infrastructure should be designed and tourism activities programmed in such a way as to protect the natural heritage composed of ecosystems and biodiversity and to preserve endangered species of wildlife; the stakeholders in tourism development, and especially professionals, should agree to the imposition of limitations or constraints on their activities when these are exercised in particularly sensitive areas: desert, polar or high mountain regions, coastal areas, tropical forests or wetlands, propitious to the creation of nature reserves or protected areas

5. Nature tourism and ecotourism are recognized as being particularly conducive to enriching and enhancing the standing of tourism, provided they respect the natural heritage and local populations and are in keeping with the carrying capacity of the sites to the codes.

Beyond understanding whether codes should be promoted, such research would enable better understanding of whether market-based instruments offered potential for progress, or if only increased legislation
could force organizations into changing their preferred decision. Smith and Duffy (2003) suggest that the problem with relying on codes of ethics arises from the tendency of many businesses to interpret public (moral openness) solely in terms of public relations ad publicity (self-serving).

3.2.3 Influencing the direction of the tourism industry

Beyond the ability to influence the direction of the tourism industry through the manipulation of tools available, we need tourism managers to be honest and explicit about the choices they are making. An understanding of ethics shows us that it is not 'wrong' to act in the belief of producing greater benefits to a greater number of people if this entails cost to some. Similarly, acting in a manner that favours man over the envi- ronment is in concordance with a considerable body of opinion and this reasoning should not be concealed.

Yet, making these decision-making processes explicit will force a further evaluation of the merits of the chosen course of action. As such, continuing along a previous path without consideration will not be possible; instead decisions will necessarily become more appropriate for their constant reevaluation. Along with the need for employees to be more explicit in their decision-making approach, the effect of organizational roles has been central to much of the debate over promoting corporate and social responsibility. This approach considers that in addition to the characteristics of the individual concerned, their decisions are functions of their roles within an organization.

The model developed by Steed, Worrell, and Garner-Steed, (1990) demonstrates the range of factors believed to impinge on the decision made by an employee. They propose that individual factors (both personality and socialization), ethical philosophy and ideology, external forces, and organizational factors will all have an influence on ethical decision making.

Raiborn and Payne (1990) suggest exploring the outcome of the organisation's decisions and assessing them according to their degree of adherence to the four values of justice, integrity, competence, and utility. Such an approach applied in a tourism context would provide valuable data to understand what makes one organisation's approach more ethical than another and so enable the development of best practice and shows how an organisation's decisions could be categorised and placed within a hierarchy, which has as its top the most moral behaviour ('theoretical standard') and ends with behaviour that is legally acceptable ('basic standard').

Producing such a framework to assess the ethicality of decisions made by tourism organizations would enable the relationship to be tested between the ethical behaviour of each organization and independent variables. These independent variables would include the factors identified by Steed, Worrell, and Garner-Steed (1990), plus the effect of the existence of tools such as an ethical code, the existence of an ethical champion within the organisation, the severity of punishment for breaching legislation, and potentially a range of other tools. In addition, the types of ethical dilemmas faced by tourism managers could be classified and a list of ethical principles proposed for tourism.

Such principles have been developed for business in general (Josephson, 1988) and for specific fields such as marketing (Gaski, 1999) and hospitality (Hall, 1992a; Jaszay, 2002) but not for the discipline of tourism. A list of ethical principles in tourism would form a basis for ethical decision making in that field and would establish standards or rules of behavior (the dominant ethical paradigm) within which a future tourism manager should function.

Managers could be asked to describe an ethical dilemma, giving a background to the situation, the ethical choices that they had available, and the actual decision they made. Such an approach may illustrate the main constraint managers felt on their behaviour and so provide an illustration as to how to most effectively control the direction of the tourism industry.

An outcome of the research described earlier on tourism would be a set of ethical scenarios that could be used for education and training purposes. In general, there is no consensus on the extent to which ethics are effectively combined with practical education in curricula, although most agree that such efforts are an important and necessary component of education (Hultsman, 1995).

As we are aware, many organisations and sections of society are concerned with ethical behaviour, and the education sector is no exception. Much research has been conducted by other subject disciplines on the level of ethics displayed by students and the way students reach decisions on ethical issues. However, research has not identified where tourism students can be positioned and how they make decisions. The tourism industry has grown to become the world's largest industry because of, or in spite of, the decisions made by managers, many of whom have not had any training in ethical decision making (World Tourism Organization, 2002).

The increase in numbers of students studying tourism at university indicates that tourism managers of the future will receive a university level education, most likely at an age of continuing moral development (Piaget, 1975). Writing prophetically about the need for the accountancy industry to offer improved ethical training to its students, Cohen, Pant, and Sharp comment,

'An important role of university and early professional training is to provide professionals with the ability to recognize the ethical issues in the course of their practice, to define the norms, principles and values related to the situation, to identify alternative choices and to decide on the most appropriate course of action when such dilemmas are encountered' (2001). Whitney (1989) writing about the hotel and hospitality industries writes similarly, 'If we educators fail to address ethics in our classes we leave an important part of student education untouched.

We are preparing them incompletely for careers in an industry which is becoming increasingly sensitive to ethical issues.' Using case studies or ethical scenarios has been advocated as the most useful way of examining ethical issues and teaching ethical concepts (Hultsman, 1995; Stevens, 2001). So a useful research project would be to test the ethical dilemmas on tourism students worldwide. This would add to the limited research related to the cultural differences and similarities of ethical perspectives and decision approaches of students (Okleshen and Hoyt, 1996).

The same dilemmas could be presented to tourism managers to compare and contrast responses for the two groups. Ethical responses can be examined relative to the influence of age, experience, and gender in moral and ethical development. Previous studies tend to indicate that managers have higher ethical values than students (Carroll, 1975; Freedman and Bartholomew, 1991). Indeed, in 1999, 24 students in a business ethics course at San Diego State University were dismissed from the class and put on academic probation for cheating.

In response to such incidents, many schools are emphasizing the need for future managers to receive ethical training. The results of greater research into the ethical positioning of tourism students and tourism managers might indicate there is a need for a discrete module on tourism ethics in the way that there are appropriate modules on ethics for would-be lawyers, doctors, accountants, and journalists.

A final by-product of testing these ethical dilemmas on students would be a standard framework for making ethical decisions specific to the tourism industry. As yet, no such framework exists and we are left to consider the appropriateness of ethical theories that have been found to be useful for other industries.

It has been suggested that the teleological systems might have more application in the tourism industry because managers can be taught to compare outcomes to the various stakeholders for each possible decision and select the decision that has the best outcomes (Carroll, 1989; Khan and McCleary, 1996).

Research in the area of management ethics has underscored the value of a teleological approach to ethics as a means by which to educate and learn through an understanding of the consequences of one's actions (Malloy and Fennell, 1998). Some of the models proposed for analyzing ethical dilemmas are summarized in and each supports a teleological approach, but the value of these to the tourism industry remains unknown.

Self Assessment Questions

(i) Why is it that mass tourism came to be synonymous with unsustainable practices, seen as being responsible for the deleterious effects of tourism on environments and societies?

(ii) Explain how tourism may be able to contribute much needed hard currency to a destination, in which case, the old interpretation of tourism as an economic panacea can be seen to promote sustainable tourism protection?

4.0 Conclusion

Returning to our original example in Banff National Park, calling for more environmental protection and restrictions on tourism is asking for a change in environmental ethic to one where the rights of humans are placed on a more even footing with nature and with the assignment of rights to the environment. Tourism is likely to be one of the first battlegrounds where this paradigmatic shift occurs because of the extrinsic benefits of a pristine environment to the tourism industry.

As such, the rights of the environment can become protected in law, as within a national park, and so nature's value would appear to be more intrinsic. Highly developed countries like Canada are likely to see more pressure to assign rights to nature because residents are more affluent and so become more concerned with aesthetic issues. But the movement for environmental protection is unlikely to proceed in less developed countries where issues of survival are more pressing.

The shift to the assignments of rights of existence to nature can come only when humans are sufficiently comfortable within their own existence that they do not feel threatened by, or suffer from, nature being promoted. Although it may be that many Canadians have reached this position, there are undoubtedly many who do not feel that to limit the tourism industry for the protection of nature at the expense of jobs, income, and so on is a worthwhile trade.

Undoubtedly new understandings will develop as the context for decisions change and so the way we view problems facing us must change. In an increasingly complex world we can question the value of linear thinking, which believes that if button A is pressed, then B will happen. For the tourism industry with its reliance on environments and people, perhaps there is value to incorporating the more nonlinear thinking of ecologists and assuming a more adaptive style of management (Twining- Ward, 2002). There are also those who feel that until the problem is addressed on a global scale, local efforts are peripheral (Wheeller, 1993).

5.0 Summary

Tourism destinations do not exist in spatial isolation, and under a tourism-centric paradigm, resources might be channeled into a destination/ region to prevent or address problems, or to expand the tourism product, but the neighbouring regions could bear at least some of the cost without any financial reparation. The counter argument is that the smaller the identifiable region, the easier it is to implement strategies sustainable at that level.

Think Global act local mantra

Thus, the Rio summit gave rise to Agenda 21 and to Local Agenda 21, which stressed the 'think global, act local' mantra. Clearly this debate will continue.

In an economically fractured society the debate will be lengthy as the richest members of society reach a point where they are able to afford to trade economic well being for environmental rights long before the poorest members of society are able to afford this luxury. As people's view of the world changes, so our understanding of sustainable tourism must change. Yet understanding the outcomes of this thought process is not sufficient, we must begin to understand how difficult decisions are made.

By informing the managers of today and tomorrow about how they are making decisions then if or when we are ready to move to a new environmental ethic, the basis on which the decision is reached, will be clearly understood.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i) Explain your understanding of key criteria and importance of ethical consideration in decision making in global tourism?

(ii)Identify and elaborate on your understanding of factors considered salient in the development of sustainable tourism?

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) Mass tourism came to be synonymous with unsustainable practices, seen as being responsible for the deleterious effects of tourism on environments and societies. As a consequence, the rise of alternative tourism and 'ecotourism' were seen as the champions of a sustainable way forward with the emphasis on small-scale developments, community involvement, and the preeminence of environmental protection. This shift in thinking denotes a move from an anthropocentric ethic to an eco-centric ethic. This was a significant departure from previous thinking because man's place alongside, rather than in domination over, the rest of nature is assumed.

(ii) Tourism may be able to contribute much needed hard currency to a destination, in which case, the old interpretation of tourism as an economic panacea can be seen to promote sustainable tourism because it promotes sustainable development. Conversely, in other destinations, preservation of the natural environment may be the strongest contribution the tourism industry can make toward the development of society and here the tourism industry would be operating under a more eco-centric ethic. What is central to this understanding of sustainable tourism is that the tourism industry acknowledges itself to be a part of society and not apart from society.

UNIT 20   Global Tourism Issues, Future and Prospects for the industry

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UNIT 20   Global Tourism Issues, Future and Prospects for the industry

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

One of the major problems of the travel and tourism industry that has hidden or obscured its economic impact which is the diversity and fragmentation of the industry itself.

The travel industry includes hotels, motels, and other types of accommodation; restaurants and other food services; transportation services and facilities; amusements, attractions, and other leisure facilities; gift shops; and a large number of other enterprises. Because many of these businesses also serve local residents, the impact of spending by visitors can easily be overlooked or underestimated.

In addition, Meis (1992) points out that the tourism industry involves concepts that have remained amorphous to both analysts and decision makers. Moreover, in all nations, this problem has made it difficult for the industry to develop any type of reliable or credible tourism information base in order to estimate

2.0 Objective

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
Discuss environment challenges facing tourism at destination locations
Know the ecological degradation effect, Wildlife threat and extinction cost and consequences on global tourism
Explain the political cost involve in consideration of tourism investment & development
Identify some recent social strife, threats, Aviation insecurity, terrorism and wars effect on Global Tourism Scene.
Analyze the Economic cost, infrastructural facilities degradation and implication involved in management of successful Tourism operations.
State your understanding of some spread of Health related hazard of HIVAIDS/SARS/FLU /GAY Activities and Cost and social consequences involved with tourism at destinations.
Compare and contrast the relevance of channeling investment in tourism, cost effectiveness, benefits, the potentials investment sustainability need for the rapidly growing tourism industry in developing Sub-Sahara African nations in general and Nigeria in particular.

3.0 Main Content
3.1 Global Tourism Issues

However, the nature of this very diversity makes travel and tourism an ideal vehicle for economic development in a wide variety of countries, regions, or communities. Once the exclusive province of the wealthy, travel and tourism have become an institutionalized way of life for most of the world's middleclass population.

In fact, McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie (1995) suggest that tourism has become the largest commodity in international trade for many world nations, and for a significant number of other countries it ranks second or third. For example, tourism is the major source of income in Bermuda, Greece, Italy, Spain, Switzerland, and most Caribbean countries.

In addition, Hawkins and Ritchie (1991), quoting from data published by the American Express Company, suggest that the travel and tourism industry is the number one ranked employer in Australia, the Bahamas, Brazil, Canada, France, [the former] West Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Singapore, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Because of problems of definition that directly affect statistical measurement, it is not possible with any degree of certainty to provide precise, valid, or reliable data about the extent of worldwide tourism participation or its economic impact.
In many cases, similar difficulties arise when attempts are made to measure domestic tourism.

3.1.1 Incomparability of Tourism Statistics

The principal difficulty in measuring the extent of tourism demand is the basic incomparability of tourism statistics. Such incomparability exists not only when attempting to compare data from various nations, but also creates problems when regions, provinces, states, or cities within a country attempt to compare with one another data on tourism demand. At the international level, there are a number of reasons for this incomparability.

The definitions of a *tourist* and a *visitor* vary, especially at frontiers where statistics are collected. Not all countries have adopted the UN Statistical Commission's definitions, whereas others use their own definitions. Even when the UN definitions are used, data collection methods vary widely so that some countries may not gather information on the purpose of a visit or whether or not the visitor will be (or has been) remunerated. In addition, although most countries gather statistical data at their frontiers, others rely on information provided by hotel registrations. In this case, even though the same definitions may be used, the two data sets are not comparable. Some countries do not even count the arrivals of foreign nationals from bordering countries, especially if there is a unique or special relationship between the countries.
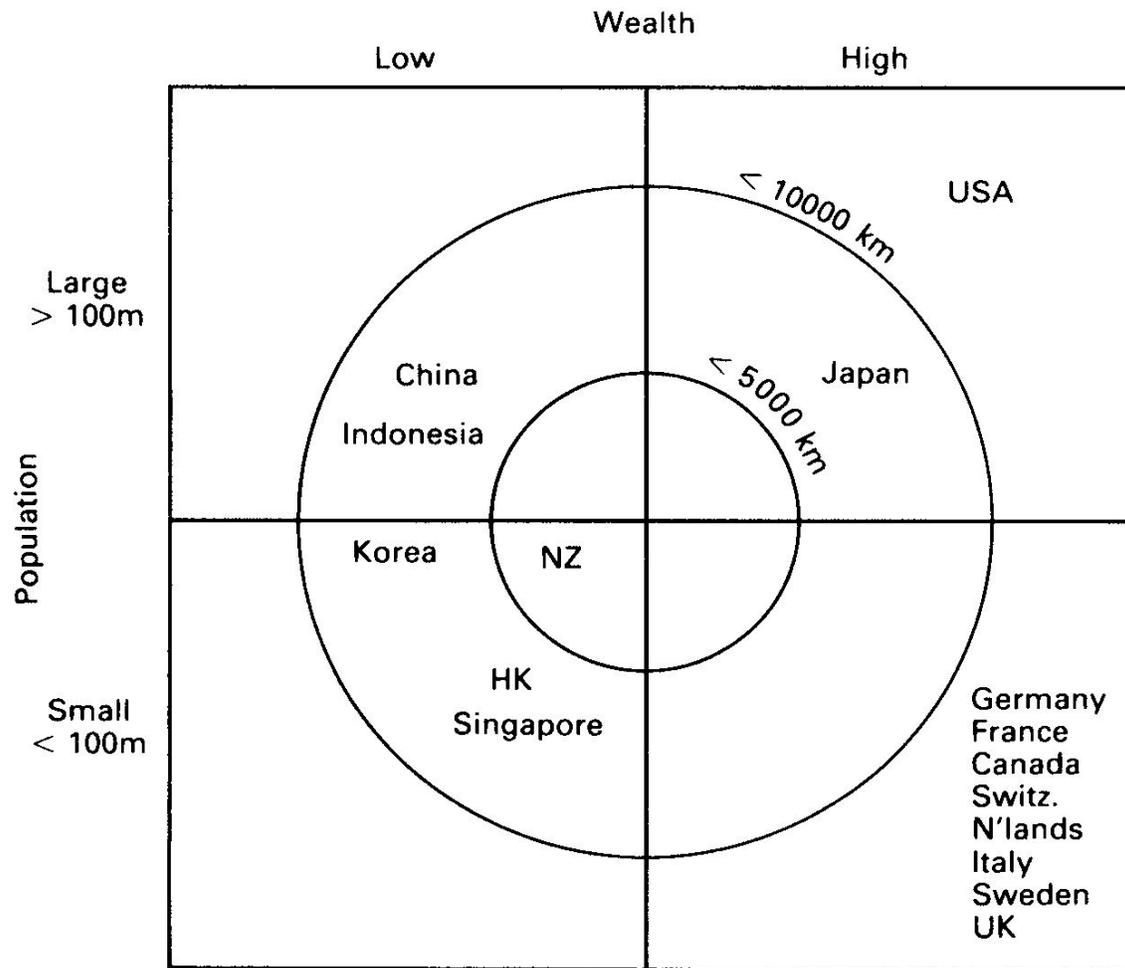
Figure 17.5: Geographical proximity of major markets.   **Source:** UN Almanac pp.112, 221, 2005

variable in question. If this is the case, then it is little wonder that empirical studies fail to agree on a common set of dominant variables (Crouch and Shaw, 1990). This suggests that constant surveillance and analysis of all these factors are necessary if the dynamics of the market are to be properly understood.

 Often, in some world nations visitors who are travelling for business or other similar purposes are not regarded as tourists, and therefore they are not recorded as such.

In addition, students who spend most of the academic year studying abroad in foreign countries are also often overlooked when compiling statistical data. Excursionists and other day visitors are included in the statistical data of some countries, but are excluded in others.

Special situation visitors such as cruise ship passengers are often not counted in some countries because they are considered to be transients. Flight crews and other visitors in transit are often treated likewise. Frechtling (1992) suggests that of the 184 nations in the

world, 166 report tourism data to the WTO each year, and: [o]f these 166 countries, four do not have a measure of international visitors or tourists. Thirteen countries have no recent measure of international tourism receipts, and 46 do not estimate international travel expenditures.

More than one-half (84) have no measure of international departures, and two-thirds (113) do not count visitor nights in all accommodation establishments. At the sub-national level, similar situations also exist. For example, in the United States, there is no standard definition valid throughout the country.

As a result, definitions of tourism vary from state to state. Gee, Makens, and Choy (1989) suggest that in Florida, 'a tourist is an out-ofstate resident who stays at least one night in the state for reasons other than necessary layover for transportation connections or for strictly business transactions.' In Alaska, 'a tourist is a nonresident traveling to Alaska for pleasure or culture and for no other purpose.' Massachusetts defines a tourist as 'a person, not on business, who stays away from home overnight.' For Arizona, 'a tourist is a nonresident traveller in the state, while a traveller is used to identify Arizona residents traveling within the state.' In Utah, 'a tourist will participate in some activity while in the state, while a traveller simply passes through on their way to another state.'
Finally, in Nevada, 'tourists are residents of states other than Nevada who visit the state or stop somewhere in the state while en route through and without regard for trip purpose.' The confusion in terminology is by no means limited to the United States.

3.1.2 Difficulty in developing valid, reliable, and credible databases about tourism

A review of any of the statistics published by the WTO/UN points out the innumerable footnotes to the data indicating national variations, differences in data collection methodology, and significant diversity in terminology standards. Indeed, one of the important tasks of the WTO is to work systematically to improve and help develop definitions and classifications of tourism that are of worldwide application and that emphasize both clarity and simplicity in their application.

Throughout Europe, Wöber (2000) suggests that 'unfortunately, city tourism office managers have very little influence on the local authorities who are usually responsible for conducting national and regional tourism research studies.' Although in 1995 the Federation of European Cities Tourist Offices (FECTO) attempted to establish a common database of primary city tourism statistics among their members, nonetheless it has proved unworkable because of the lack of uniform reporting and definitional difference.

For too long, the tourism industry, both international and domestic, has had great difficulty making statistical comparisons with other sectors of the economy. In all nations, this has led to difficulty in developing valid, reliable, and credible information or databases about tourism and its contribution to local, regional, national, and global economies. A number of individuals throughout the world who are involved in the travel and tourism industry have long recognized the interdependent nature of travel and tourism statistical systems at all levels of government. Further, they realized the need for ongoing reviews and revisions of both concepts and working definitions of travel and tourism that are used internationally.

The various Conference recommendations that have been adopted by the UN Statistical Commission laid the foundation for new, expanded, and modified international definitions

and standards for travel and tourism. Those principles and guidelines provide for the harmonious and uniform measurement of tourism among world nations.

3.1.3 The positive and negative impacts of tourism

The essence of this quote by Valene Smith is that the activity of tourism creates impacts and consequences; we cannot prevent these, but need to plan and manage to minimize the negative impacts and accentuate the positive impacts of tourism. These impacts occur because tourism, both international and domestic, brings about an intermingling of people from diverse social and cultural backgrounds, and also a considerable spatial redistribution of spending power, which has a significant impact on the economy of the destination. Early work on the impact of tourism on destinations focused primarily on economic aspects. This was not only because such impacts are more readily quantifiable and measurable, but also there was a pervading climate of optimism that these studies would show that tourism was of net economic benefit to host destinations. In many cases, this was indeed true. Yet tourism, by its very nature, is attracted to unique and fragile environments and societies and it became apparent that in some cases the economic benefits of tourism may be offset by adverse and previously unmeasured environmental and social consequences.

The benefits and costs of tourism accrue to two quite distinct groups of people. On the one hand, the visitors themselves receive benefits and incur costs in taking holidays. On the other hand, the resident populations of the host region benefit from tourism (not only financially) but at the same time incur costs of various types. Because it is not possible to deal adequately with both aspects within the limited scope of this single unit attention will be devoted to the positive and negative effects of tourism from the point of view of the host country or region.

3.1.4 Carrying Capacity Cost Concept

The general issues central to any of the units studies of the positive and negative impacts of tourism must include notions of carrying capacity and also of how impacts can be assessed.

Carrying capacity is a relatively straightforward concept—*in simple terms it refers to a point beyond which further levels of visitation or development would lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience* (Getz, 1983; O'Reilly, 1986; McCool and Lime, 2001). Commentators point out that operationalising capacity is difficult. Buckley (1999), for example, mounts a scathing attack on the concept and its utility, stating that carrying capacity is 'ultimately meaningless.' This is echoed by McCool and Lime (2001) who state that 'the concept of a tourism and recreation carrying capacity maintains an illusion of control when it is a seductive fiction, a social trap, or policy myth.' Yet, despite this debate and discussion in the literature, the basic conceptual framework of carrying capacity remains the same (Saveriades, 2000), and however it is approached,

there is no doubt that any consideration of the impact of tourism must recognise the pivotal role that carrying capacity plays by intervening in the relationship between visitor and resource.

Effectively, the impact made by tourism depends on both the volume and profile characteristics of the tourists (including their length of stay, activity, mode of transport, and travel arrangement). In this respect, a number of authors have attempted to classify tourists according to their impact on the destinations (see, for example, Smith, 1977). The character of the resource (including its natural features, level of development, political and social structure) is equally important because it determines the degree of its robustness to tourism and tourism development (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

A range of variables, therefore, needs to be taken into account in any determination of the impact of tourism. Yet determining such impacts also raises a number of issues. In economics, impact methodology has a long pedigree, but the measurement of environmental and social impacts has not progressed anywhere near as far. Indeed, in all forms of impact analysis, it is important to distinguish tourism-induced events from other agents of change, ensure that secondary and tertiary effects are considered, and have a view as to what the situation was before tourism intervened.

All of these points are problematic and the tendency is therefore to simplify and narrow the scope of investigation to 'contain' the research into a manageable outcome (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). In part, the difficulty of quantifying the environmental and social impacts of tourism has delayed the development of impact methodologies. But the rising tide of environmentalism has caught up with tourism and has lent support to the view that in some cases the economic benefits of tourism are more than outweighed by the environmental and social costs of tourism. Concepts such as 'sustainable tourism development' and 'the responsible consumption of tourism' are seen by many as the answer, along with the enhanced planning and management of tourism. These issues are discussed later in this unit. Nonetheless, *the issue of management is closely related to the notion of carrying capacity* because a destination can be 'managed' to take any number of visitors. Simply 'hardening' the environment and managing the visitor can accommodate large volumes without an unacceptable decline in the environment or the experience. McCool and Lime (2001) reconceptualize carrying capacity along these lines, suggesting that managers should be looking at the particular conditions that are desired or appropriate at a destination to support recreation and tourism activity—'sustaining these conditions is at the heart of concerns over impacts, saturation and carrying capacities.'

3.1.5 Conflict and Tension between Stakeholders in Tourism
The question must therefore be asked, managing and sustaining these conditions for whom? In pluralistic societies, the conflicts and tensions between the stakeholders in tourism—tourists, developers, planners, environmentalists, and communities—will in the end determine levels of tourist development. Butler (1999) then raises the question as to how we judge the notion of the 'satisfaction' of these various stakeholders as one

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of the key research questions for sustainable tourism. After all, tourism takes place within political and social contexts of power, relationships, and governance. It is, however, heartening that the result of this discussion is a continued pressure for sustainable tourism amongst the various groups in society and that this is changing the perceived balance between the positive and negative effects of tourism. This balance has also been influenced by the events of the early years of the twenty-first century including the terrorist attacks on New York and the bombings in Bali. It could be said that these 'shocks' to the tourism system have acted to reduce the impacts of tourism in some parts of the world because levels of international travel have reduced and tourists have switched to domestic travel or opted for destinations that are perceived as 'safe.'

3.1.6 The Economic advantages and disadvantages of Tourism

The economic advantages and disadvantages of tourism have been extensively Documented.
International tourism is an invisible export in that it creates a flow of foreign currency into the economy of a destination country, thereby contributing directly to the current account of the balance of payments. Like other export industries, this inflow of revenue creates business turnover, household income, employment, and government revenue.

However, the generation process does not stop at this point. Some portion of the money received by the business establishments, individuals, and government agencies is in respect within the destination economy, thereby creating further rounds of economic activity. These secondary effects can in total considerably exceed in magnitude the initial direct effects. Indeed any study purporting to show the economic impact made by tourism must attempt to measure the overall effect made by the successive rounds of economic activity generated by the initial expenditure.
The process has been documented with attention drawn to the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of the various approaches (see, for example, Archer and Fletcher, 1991).
Domestic tourism has somewhat similar economic effects on the host regions of a country. Whereas, however, international tourism brings a flow of foreign currency into a country, domestic tourism redistributes currency spatially within the boundaries of a country. From the point of view of a tourist region within a country, however, domestic tourism is a form of invisible export. Money earned in other regions is spent within the host region creating additional business revenue, income, jobs, and revenue to local government. The process of secondary revenue, income, and employment generation within the host region is then the same as for a national economy. The principal difference during these secondary stages, however, is that individual regions within a country are usually less economically self-contained, and, hence, a far greater proportion of the money is likely to leak out of the regional system into other regions. The secondary effects in individual regions are far lower in magnitude than for the national economy as a whole.
Moreover, tourism seems to be more effective than other industries in generating employment and income in the less developed, often peripheral,

regions of a country where alternative opportunities for development
are more limited. Indeed, it is in these areas that tourism can make
its most significant impact. In such places many of the local people are
subsistence farmers or fishermen, and if they become involved in the
tourism industry their household incomes increase by a very large
amount. The growth of tourism in such areas may provide also a monetary
incentive for the continuance of many local crafts, whereas the
tourist hotels may create a market for local produce. Indeed, the introduction
of a tourism industry into such areas can have a proportionally greater effect on the welfare
of the resident population than the same
amount of tourism might have on the more developed parts of the same
country.
The development of tourism, especially in a previously underdeveloped
part of a country, requires the existence of an infrastructure, as
well as hotel accommodation and other facilities specific to tourism. In
many cases these utilities are economically indivisible in the sense that,
in providing them for the tourism industry, they at the same time become
available for the use of local people. Thus, in many countries, highways
and airfields, constructed primarily to cater for tourism, now provide an
access to wider markets for many locally produced goods. Unfortunately,
in many cases the local people still receive little direct benefit from these
developments. This in essence is a problem of both physical and economic
distribution (i.e., of the extent to which, and the speed at which, these
facilities should be made more generally available).

As tourism continues to grow in a region, it makes increasing demands
on the scarce resources of that area. Land in particular is required and in
consequence land prices rise. Farmers and other local landowners are
encouraged to sell, with the result that, although they may obtain short-term
gains, they are left landless with only low paid work available.
Indeed much of the benefit from higher land prices may accrue to speculators
who buy land from the previous owners before it has been scheduled
for development. These problems can be overcome, however, if
either the land is acquired at an early stage by the government for a fair,
market price or if the land is rented rather than sold to the developers.
Market forces do not necessarily ensure that development keeps pace with
demand. There is a need for realistic planning and the effective enforcement
of planning regulations to reduce possible conflicts of interest and,
where appropriate, to conserve unique and unusual features for the enjoyment
of future generations of visitors and residents alike. This is a lesson
that has been learned rather late in many developed countries.
Superficially at least the economic 'benefits' of tourism seem self-evident.
Yet in recent years several writers have expressed reservations
about the nature and size of the benefits attributable to tourism and have
become increasingly skeptical about the potentialities of tourism as a tool
for development and growth and as a means of maximizing the welfare
of the indigenous population. For example, Tosun, Timothy, and Öztürk
(2003) found that although tourism as an economic development strategy
in Turkey has increased the rate of economic development, it has also
created inequalities between Turkish regions and social classes. In particular

this was caused by the approach of offering economic incentives for mass coastal tourism developments at the expense of rural areas. The problem is essentially one of resource allocation and of whether or not the development of a tourism industry offers the optimum usage of the

resources available—in other words an assessment of the costs and benefits of tourism development vis-à-vis alternatives.

3.2 *Cost- Evaluation impact. Benefit, and Assessment*

In cost-benefit terms, the economic benefits gained by a recipient country from tourism have been outlined previously. Again, these benefits have to be offset against the economic costs involved. Apart from the purchase of import requirements, the earnings of expatriate workers, and the overseas expenses incurred by the foreign companies concerned during both the construction and operating phases of the development, none of which benefits the resident population, the country itself incurs considerable costs internally. The real cost to society of employing resources and factors of production in any one sector, including the construction and operation of hotels and other associated tourism services, is the value of the output that could have been obtained from their use in other sectors of the economy (Archer, 1996). Because capital and skilled labor are rarely, if ever, abundant in such countries, the development of a tourism industry requires some of these scarce resources to be diverted from their alternative uses. Admittedly, some factors of production might otherwise be unemployed, in which case their use in tourism involves no real cost to society, but in most cases the opportunity cost incurred is the value of the production lost in other sectors.

Whether or not tourism creates greater net benefits to society than other forms of development depends primarily on the nature of the country's economy and what alternative forms of development are practicable. Also, in the interests of diversification, it is sometimes considered desirable to promote several forms of development even though one or more of these may offer relatively lower net benefits.

3.2.2 Tourism imposes political, cultural, social, moral, and environmental changes on the host country.

Despite the plethora of economic analyses undertaken during the last 25 years, economists have not displayed any noticeable propensity to work jointly with specialists from other disciplines in multidisciplinary teams. Their contribution to such work has normally consisted of analyses undertaken in parallel but not jointly with other specialists. There is a need for research in the following areas:

• A more balanced view of the economic effects of tourism demands a deeper understanding of the human issues surrounding the impact made by tourism. This requires joint work by economists, sociologists, political scientists, and others. In particular, economists should work more closely with sociologists in analyzing and quantifying the social costs and benefits of tourism.

• The long-term advantages and disadvantages of tourism can be better

understood if economists work more closely with environmentalists as well as specialists in the various humanities.

• The economic analysis of tourism will be improved if more economists apply their efforts to improving the methodology of existing techniques rather than merely replicating them in a succession of case studies. Wagner (1997), for example, employs a social accounting matrix to examine the economic impact of tourism on a Brazilian ecosystem. There is an especial danger that replication of economic impact studies in isolation will simply fuel the call for development in destinations and omit considerations of other costs.

In addition to the economic costs and benefits already mentioned, tourism also imposes political, cultural, social, moral, and environmental changes on the host country. The fact that such costs are rarely quantifiable in money terms has prevented more all-embracing considerations of the impact of tourism on destinations. However, techniques are being developed to allow comparison across impacts utilizing a standard set of variables. For example, Lindberg and Johnson (1997) have developed a framework for measuring social impacts in a metric consistent with economic impacts using contingent valuation to provide a cost-benefit framework.

Political Effects

3.2.3 *The Political Costs and Benefits of Tourism*

Whereas the virtues of international tourism have been extolled as a major force for peace and understanding between nations (World Tourism Organization, 1980; 1982; Litvin, 1998; Leitner, 1999), the reality is often far removed from this utopian image. Long-haul travel between developed and developing countries is increasing annually and is bringing into direct contact with each other people from widely different backgrounds and with very contrasting lifestyles and levels of income. Where these disparities are very great, the political as well as the sociocultural consequences may be severe.

In extreme cases international tourism has imposed a form of 'neo-colonial' type development on emerging nations (Hall, 1994; Hall and Jenkins, 1995). Quite simply, this neo-colonialism takes power from the local and regional levels and concentrates it into the hands of multinational companies. These companies will negotiate only at the national level and expect any 'problems' to be solved by national governments, otherwise investment will be withdrawn. At the operational level, the higher paid, more 'respectable' posts in hotels and other establishments are sometimes occupied by expatriates who possess the necessary expertise and experience. Although the lower paid, more menial jobs are frequently reserved for the indigenous population, it is possible that such apparent discrimination can foster resentment and can sour international relationships. In extreme cases such development can even inhibit the growth of a national consciousness in a newly dependent country.

Domestic tourism, on the other hand, can act as an integrating force strengthening national sentiment. Peoples in outlying areas are traditionally more preoccupied with local village affairs and, in consequence,

sometimes prove easy prey to separatist agitators. If, by travel to other parts of the same country, such people can begin to experience pride in their national heritage, a sense of national unity may help to prevent regional fragmentation.

In the more developed countries, visits to national historical monuments, stately homes, and ancient battlefields form a significant motivation for domestic travel, and similar developments are already taking place in other parts of the world. In many developing countries, students and groups of schoolchildren travel to other regions of their homelands, and such movements of people can do much in the long run to strengthen the political unity of a country. Provided that the individual characteristics and identities of the various regions are not submerged and lost, such travel can benefit both tourists and residents alike.

Unfortunately, contact between peoples of different backgrounds is not always beneficial and may in some cases generate additional cultural, social, and moral stresses. Although the mixing of people from different regions of a country can produce a better understanding of each other's way of life and a better appreciation of problems specific to particular regions, it can at the same time create misunderstandings and even distrust.

So far political scientists have contributed relatively little to the analysis of tourism, and most of the work in this field has been concerned with the situation in particular countries. Noteworthy exceptions include books by Hall (1994), Hall and Jenkins (1995), Hall (2000), and Kerr (2003) and a paper by Mathews and Richter (1991). The books provide a framework for the examination of tourism and politics/policy making, whereas the paper by Mathews and Richter reviews the efforts made by political scientists to apply their special disciplines to the study of tourism. The authors examine first the ways in which many important aspects of tourism involve some of the central concepts of political science and, second, the contribution that political science can make to the study of tourism.

3.2.4 SOCIAL CULTURAL EFFECT

Two major issues in tourism can be addressed by political scientists.

1. A fuller understanding of the human impact of tourism on destination areas can be achieved only by a much greater integration of the work of political scientists with specialists in other disciplines and with tourism practitioners.

2. Knowledge of the impact of tourism on many aspects of human life and organization can be improved if more political scientists are willing to use their expertise to study tourism as an independent variable affecting areas of concern in public administration, comparative politics, political theory, international relations, and national politics (Richter, 1983). Specific work is needed in a variety of areas but particularly welcome would be:

• Studies examining the influence of tourism on the roots of power in communities and the implications for community-based investment and the integration of tourism into the community. A major contribution here would be in terms of examining the many political

interests involved in the development of tourism and the role
of conflict resolution and consensus models (Jamal and Getz,
1995);
• Work examining the stage of destination life cycle at which community
involvement is most appropriate, and the stages at which
communities are most vulnerable to external political and commercial
decision making; and
• Further examination of policy impact analysis within a tourism
and event context (Whitford, 2003).
Although political effects are influential, it is difficult to disentangle them
from the social and cultural effects of tourism. For example, Tsartas (2003)
examines the influence of local social structures, particularly the family,
on both tourism development and policy in the Greek islands and coastal
areas. These social influences on policy and planning have led to
unplanned and rapid tourism development, partly driven by the pressures
of mass tourism and the downgrading of agriculture as an economic
sector.

3.2.5 **Consequent problems of prostitution, drugs, gambling, and sometimes vandalism (*Some Socio-cultural Costs*)**

Wide cultural differences occur between different countries and sometimes
between different regions within the same country. Indeed the existence
of such differences may be one of the principal stimulants of a
tourism industry. In some developing countries such traditional cultural
behaviour patterns of particular groups of people form one focus of the
tourism industry (Butler and Hinch, 1996). Sometimes, however, differences
in physical appearance and, perhaps more importantly, differences
in cultural behaviour between visitors and residents, are so great that
mutual understanding is replaced by antipathy.
The problem is exacerbated because tourists are, by definition, strangers
in the destination. Their dress codes and patterns of behaviour are different
to the residents and, often, different from those that the tourist
would display at home; inhibitions are shed and the consequent problems
of prostitution, drugs, gambling, and sometimes vandalism ensue. As
strangers, tourists are also vulnerable and fall victim to robbery and
crimes perpetrated by the local community who may see these activities
as a way to 'redress the balance.' Lindberg, Anderson, and Dellaert (2001)
chart the social gains and losses to residential populations as a result of
tourism stating that the attitudes of residents are heterogeneous, with this
very diversity creating a challenge to decision makers who try to reach
consensus. This comes down to recognizing that the values of residents,
rather than straight demographics, may explain antecedents of opinions
on tourism (Williams and Lawson, 2001).
When the cultural distinctions between the residents and tourists from
more prosperous countries and regions are strongly marked, local culture
and customs may be exploited to satisfy the visitor, sometimes at the
expense of local pride and dignity. Here the issue of staged authenticity
is an important one where the host destination is able to convince tourists

that festivals and activities in the 'front region' of the destination (e.g., public areas such as hotel lobbies or restaurants are authentic and thus they protect the real 'back region', i.e., residents' homes and areas where life continues) (McCannell, 1973; Ingles, 2002). Tourists are increasingly motivated by a quest for authenticity, and one of the problems of 'alternative tourism' is that the tourists are encouraged to penetrate the 'back region.'

3.2.6 Synergy of Management Planning

With good management and planning, however, tourism can provide an impetus for the preservation of ancient cultures, but too often the local way of life degenerates into a commercially organized effigy of its former self. The traditional dances and the skilled craftwork give way to cheap imitations to satisfy the needs of the visitor and to obtain money with the least possible effort. Here, Medina (2003) recounts that Mayan indigenous peoples even access new channels (such as archaeologists) to research and revive their traditional practices. In some cases this is merely an initial response and, later, tourism can stimulate high quality revivals of crafts in particular. Nonetheless, there is a constant tension in countries wishing to be part of the global tourism movement but also to retain their cultural authenticity (Brunet, et al., 2001).

3.2.7 Tourism has disrupted completely the way of life of the local people

In primitive and isolated areas, the arrival of too many visitors can even cause local people to leave their settlements and move to new areas where they can remain undisturbed. To combat this in vulnerable areas such as North American Indian reservations, 'governing rules' for visitors have been formulated. In more developed areas, in extreme cases, tourism has disrupted completely the way of life of the local people.

3.2.8 African Tourism Institutions-Kenya Games Reserves

The institution of the national park system in **some parts of Africa,** although justifiable on the grounds of wildlife conservation and tourism, has in some cases seriously affected the hunting and nomadic existence of the local people. The problem is not confined, however, to developing countries. Insufficient research has been carried out so far to disentangle the social and cultural side effects of tourism development. In other areas wildlife has been severely disturbed, coral reefs have been despoiled, and alien forms of plant life have been introduced into delicate ecosystems on the shoes and clothing of visitors. Lest the picture appear too bleak, it should be remembered that tourism, both domestic and international, is at the same time a positive force in helping to conserve the environment of the holiday regions. In the twenty-first century, for example, new forms if tourism, such as 'clean up' tourism, are combating these problems, leaving the destination in a better environmental condition than they found it—a form of 'enhanced sustainability.'

Many of the disadvantages mentioned previously can be offset by high quality planning, design and management, and by educating tourists to appreciate the environment. Tourists are attracted to areas of high scenic beauty, regions of historical and architectural interest, and areas with abundant and interesting wildlife. Some of the money spent by tourists in the region, in particular the revenue received from entry fees, can be used to conserve and improve the natural and manmade heritage (as is the case for example in the **Kenyan game reserves),** whereas tourism may also provide a use for otherwise redundant historic buildings.

3.2.9 Inability of the local people to achieve the same level of affluence may create a sense of deprivation and frustration

Where the cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds of the tourists are very different from those of the local population, the results of their intermingling may be favorable but it can be explosive. The so-called demonstration effect of prosperity amid poverty may create a desire among local people to work harder or to achieve higher levels of education in order to emulate the way of life of the tourists. On the other hand, in many cases the inability of the local people to achieve the same level of affluence may create a sense of deprivation and frustration, which may find an outlet in hostility and even aggression. The merit of social intercourse between tourists and the indigenous population as a means toward fostering better understanding and goodwill between nations has been extolled as a major social benefit obtained from tourism.

Although this is true in many cases, particularly in those countries where tourists are still comparatively rare, it is certainly not true in many countries where tourists' tastes and habits have proved offensive to particular sectors of the local population. Because of factors such as these, some writers have rejected the term 'demonstration effect' and substituted the term 'confrontation effect.'
Perhaps the most significant and one of the least desirable by-products of this confrontation is the effect on the moral standards of the local people. In extreme cases, crime, prostitution, gambling, and drug traffic may be imported into the holiday areas from other regions. Many of the social conventions and constraints imposed on tourists in their home areas are absent when they visit another region, and in consequence their moral behaviour can deteriorate without undue censure.
As a result, many local people find that by catering to the several needs of their visitors they themselves can achieve a relatively high level of prosperity. Although the credit or blame for developments such as red light districts can be attributed more to the growth of international tourism than to an increase in domestic tourism, the latter must bear its share of responsibility
.
3.3.0 TOURSTS BLAMED FOR ASSISTING THE SPREAD OF STD/HIV/AIDS ETC
A critical issue here is the form of contact between host and guest. In the 'enclave' tourism model, so berated by proponents of 'alternative forms of tourism,' contacts are controlled and minimal, mainly confined to 'culture

brokers' who speak the language of both host and guest and who understand both cultures. It is when the tourist penetrates into the daily lives and homes of the hosts, the back region, that real exposure of cultural and social differences between the two groups emerge, and problems may occur. Tourists have been blamed for assisting the spread of sexually transmitted diseases and AIDS in many countries, but their contribution is probably very small in relation to the part played by the local population. Indeed, visitors themselves do not always emerge unscathed from their interaction with the local community (Petty, 1989; Cliff and Grabowski, 1997; Wilks and Page, 2003). Poor hygienic conditions in many tourist resorts create suitable conditions for the spread of various intestinal diseases, typhoid, cholera, and hepatitis. Lack of forethought and ignorance result in cases of severe sunstroke and skin cancer. Inappropriate precautions result in infection by the AIDS virus, which already affects a significant percentage of the population of some countries in Africa. Governments, tour operators, airlines, and resort operators have a duty to visitors and residents alike to provide adequate information to ensure that these risks are known and minimized.

Many of the other socio-cultural problems associated with tourism are related to the degree of intensity of tourism development. Although difficult to measure, there is a relationship between tourism density and the growth of local resentment toward tourism. The flow of tourists into a region increases the densities at which people live and overcrowds the facilities that tourists share with the local population. Overcrowding reduces the value of the holiday experience and creates additional strain for the resident population.

In extreme cases local people may be debarred from enjoying the natural facilities of their own country or region. Along part of the Mediterranean, for example, almost half of the coastline has been acquired by hotels for the sole use of their visitors, and in consequence the local public is denied easy access.

3.3.1 ISSUES OF SOCIAL CULTURAL EFFECT

The literature on the socio-cultural effects of tourism is quite extensive, although the majority of the contributions are concerned with specific cases in particular countries. Some of the more general contributions have been made by Dogan (1989), Dann and Cohen (1991), Smith and Brent (2001), and Reisinger and Turner (2003).

Dogan (1989) provides an interesting analysis in which he shows how the reactions of the host community to the influx of tourists and the changes that tourism brings has been quite diverse, ranging from an active resistance to the complete acceptance and even adoption of the tourists' culture patterns. He shows how the choice of strategies, deliberate or otherwise, to cope with the changes depends on both the nature of the socio-cultural characteristics of the host community and the magnitude of the changes themselves. His conclusion is that even in the case of a previously homogenous community that adopts a particular response to

tourism, the community will itself become diversified and groups will emerge within the community exhibiting very different responses to tourism developments.

3.3.2 The quantification of the socioeconomic costs and benefits of tourism

Dann and Cohen are concerned with the contribution that the discipline of sociology can make to the understanding of the tourism phenomenon. Here, different perspectives on tourism have been adopted by sociologists, and in consequence this has lead to the emergence of a variety of approaches. Dann and Cohen believe that '. . . some of the best work in tourism has been eclectic, linking elements of one perspective with those of another, rather than opting for an exclusive point of view.' Two major issues require the attention of sociologists.

(i) There is a need for many more multidisciplinary studies where sociologists can contribute the insights of their discipline to the study of particular aspects of the tourism phenomenon or to the analysis of tourism in specific countries and regions. Here there is a clear need for work to examine the social-carrying capacity of destinations; work that must be closely linked to community-based models of tourism planning and the 'limits of acceptable change' (Saveriades, 2000). Mitchell and Reid (2001) stress the need for research into mechanisms of community integration into the planning process. Indeed, although much is written on why community empowerment is important, there is much less written on how to do it.

(ii) The quantification of the socioeconomic costs and benefits of tourism requires the joint efforts of sociologists and economists. At present this work is being carried out almost entirely by economists, who are not always in the best position to identify all of the phenomena requiring quantification or the appropriate weightings to apply to each (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997).

3.3.3 *The Environmental and Ecological Costs and Benefits of Tourism*

The extent and nature of the environmental and ecological damage done by tourists is related to the magnitude of the development and the volume of visitors, the concentration of usage both spatially and temporally, the nature of the environment in question, and the nature of the planning and management practices adopted before and after development takes place. Excessive and badly planned tourism development affects the physical environment of destinations. In many areas the uncontrolled commercial exploitation of tourism has produced unsightly hotels of alien design that intrude into the surrounding cultural and scenic environment. In such cases the architectural design has been planned to meet the supposed wishes of the visitor rather than to blend into the local environment. The effects, moreover, are not solely scenic, because the waste and sewage from these developments are often discharged in an unprocessed form and pollute the rivers and seas of the holiday areas.
Poor and ill-conceived forms of tourism development also destroy irreplaceable natural environments, the true and long-term benefits of which

may not have been properly evaluated. Thus, for example, marshlands and mangrove swamps, which provide both outlets for flood control and also the basic ingredients for local fishing industries, have been drained to create tourist marinas. Water resources needed by local farmers and villages have been diverted for the use of tourist hotels and golf courses, and, in some mountainous areas, forests have been depleted to create ski slopes with much resultant soil erosion, flooding, and mud slips causing substantial loss of life and damage to property.

Furthermore, the tourists themselves are often guilty of helping to destroy the surrounding environment—the more attractive a site, then the more popular it becomes and the more likely it is that it will be degraded by heavy visitation (Hillery, et al., 2001). In many areas tourists, sometimes ignorantly, sometimes deliberately, damage crops and farm equipment, frighten farm animals, and bestrew large quantities of garbage over the countryside. From one mountain alone in Great Britain during the summer months, almost a ton of litter a day (mainly discarded lunch wrappings) is brought down from the summit, whereas from the New Forest in Southern England approximately 25,000 empty bottles are retrieved each year. In other areas wildlife has been severely disturbed, coral reefs have been despoiled, and alien forms of plant life have been introduced into delicate ecosystems on the shoes and clothing of visitors.

3.2.9 The Future of the Tourism Industry

Lest the picture appear too bleak, it should be remembered that tourism, both domestic and international, is at the same time a positive force in helping to conserve the environment of the holiday regions. In the twenty-first century, for example, new forms of tourism, such as 'clean up' tourism, are combating these problems, leaving the destination in a better environmental condition than they found it—a form of 'enhanced sustainability.'

Many of the disadvantages mentioned previously can be offset by high quality planning, design and management, and by educating tourists to appreciate the environment. Tourists are attracted to areas of high scenic beauty, regions of historical and architectural interest, and areas with abundant and interesting wildlife.

Some of the money spent by tourists in the region, in particular the revenue received from entry fees, can be used to conserve and improve the natural and manmade heritage (as is the case for example in the Kenyan game reserves), whereas tourism may also provide a use for otherwise redundant historic buildings.

There is obviously a need for research to examine the environmental impact of tourism, particularly in regions and environments that have been neglected in past work. Holden (2000), for example, states that research on the environmental impacts of tourism is still 'relatively immature and a true multidisciplinary approach to investigation has yet to be developed.' Butler (2000) provides a list of the research priorities in this area including:

• A need to better understand the elements that comprise environmental attractiveness and quality;

• Integration of research in the physical sciences into tourism planning and management, particularly in terms of the causes of impacts rather

than their effects; and

• Assessment of 'the real impacts of tourism and the level of sustainability achieved requires in-depth longitudinal research and environmental, economic and social auditing.' This demands long-term funding commitments.

Taking the last point, environmental indicators should be developed for use in cost-benefit analysis and also to allow environmental standards to be devised at destinations to assist consumers in their choice. Manning (1999) has devised indicators of tourism sustainability to act as an early warning system and identify emerging problems.

Already, the World Tourism Organization has embraced this concept and published work in the field. It is therefore implicit in this trend that planning for tourism will be undertaken. Here the 'planning in' of the environmental, social, and cultural context of tourism at the destination (in terms of using local architectural styles, etc.) is vital. In other words, the relationship between tourism and the environment is mediated by planning and management.

These tourism planning and management techniques exist and are well tried in many areas. What is necessary is for the barriers to planning and management, which exist in many areas, to be removed to allow the existing techniques to be applied effectively. This requires that an agency is willing to implement these approaches (Butler, 2000), whereas planners must also understand the role of stakeholders in operational planning and management approaches to sustainable tourism (Hardy and Beeton, 2001). On this point, Nepal (2000) stresses the need for national level policy and management issues for protection of valuable sites integrating scientific research and forging partnerships between local people, the industry, and tourism professionals.

A major stumbling block here is the privatization of many public tourist agencies and the deregulation of planning in some western nations.

A future issue to consider will be the development of new financing models to ensure continuity of funding for privatized agencies that perform a regulatory role.

A critical issue for the foreseeable future, therefore, will be the relationship of tourism and the environment. The environment has moved into centre stage in the debate, as evidenced by the discussion on tourism at both the 1992 Rio de Janeiro Earth Summit and the 2002 Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development. Here, although the excesses of tourism development have been identified, the alliance of tourism with environmentalists to sensitize tourists to the issues is also recognized. It is this issue that forms the next section of the chapter.

3.3.4 Potentials and Sustainable Development of Tourism Consumption Industry

This unit has reviewed the key elements of the positive and negative impacts of tourism. As mentioned in the introduction, it is only in recent years that the negative 'downstream' effects of tourism on the environments, societies, and vulnerable economies have been set more fully

against the tangible economic gains. Add to this the rise of environmentalism
and 'green' consciousness in the mid to late 1980s, and the stage
was set for a reassessment of the role and value of tourism.

In part, this is also a reflection of the growing maturity of both the tourist as consumer
and the tourism sector itself. In the early decades of mass tourism, short-term
perspectives prevailed as the industry and public agencies attempted to cope
with burgeoning demand. In the 1980s, 1990s, and early
years of the twenty-first century, growth rates slowed and tourists began
questioning some of the excesses of tourism development. In response,
longer planning horizons are being considered and new forms of tourism
advocated as industry and governments slipstream behind public opinion
and media attention given to these issues.
One of the most valuable results of this reassessment has been the belated
discovery of the relevance of the sustainable development concept to
tourism (see, for example, Pigram, 1990; Farrell and Runyan, 1991;
Bramwell and Lane, 1999; and Holden, 2000). As with many service industries,
some of the most important ideas and innovations come from outside
the industry or the subject area. The concept of sustainable development
has a long pedigree in the field of resource management and has, at last,
become an acceptable term in tourism. It has also become a debated term
with definitional arguments over its meaning and operationalization, particularly
as the meaning of sustainability increasingly implies a 'triple
bottom line' approach (Hardy, Beeton, and Pearson, 2002).
The oft quoted Drundtland Report *defines sustainability simply as 'meeting the needs of
the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet
their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development,
1987).*
The concept of sustainability is central to the reassessment of the role
of tourism in society. It demands a long-term view of economic activity,
questions the imperative of continued economic growth, and ensures that
consumption of tourism does not exceed the ability of a host destination to
provide for future tourists. In other words, it represents a trade-off between
present and future needs.
In the past, sustainability has been a low priority
compared with the short-term drive for profitability and growth, but,
with pressure growing for a more responsible tourism industry, it is difficult
to see how such short-term views on consumption can continue.
Indeed, destination 'regulations' have been developed in some areas, and
already the bandwagon for sustainable development and responsible consumption
is rolling.

This is evidenced by a number of initiatives:
• Public agencies are issuing guidelines for the ethical consumption of
tourism (see, for example, the WTO's global code of ethics for
tourism).
• Industry sector organizations have developed sustainable auditing
procedures for destinations (see, for example, the WTTC's 'Green
Globe').
• Pressure groups and professional societies have devised codes of

conduct for visitors and travelers (see, for example, the Audobon
Society's 'travel ethic' and the Sierra Club's 'wilderness manners').
• The private sector is developing responsible tourism policies for the
operation of their companies (a major collective project here is the
'Tour Operator's Initiative for Sustainable Tourism Development' representing
25 companies worldwide; see also individual companies
such as Exodus Holidays www.exodus.co.uk).
• Tourism consumer groups are growing in number and influence
(Botterill, 1991) and guides to responsible tourism are increasingly
available (Mann, 2002).
• Sustainable tourism is becoming integral to tourism curricula
(Jurowski, 2002).
As a philosophical stance or a way of thinking, it is difficult to disagree
with the concept of sustainable tourism development and responsible
consumption of tourism. But a little knowledge is a dangerous thing and
some commentators have oversimplified the complex relationship
between the consumption and development of tourism resources.
This is particularly true of the so-called alternative tourism movement, which is
lauded by some as a solution to the ills of mass tourism. Indeed, the tenor
of much of the writing about alternative tourism is that any alternative
tourism scheme is good, whereas all mass tourism is bad, although this
is rightly refuted by Jafari (2001). Butler (1990) provides a useful characterization
of the two extremes, whereas Wheeler (1991; 1992) provides
telling criticism of alternative tourism. Others too warn of the ecotourism
bandwagon; Beaumont (2001) is concerned that it preaches its values to
the converted, whereas Ascot, La Trobe, and Howard (1998) classify deep
and shallow ecotourism on the basis of commitment of the visitor.
There is, of course, a case for alternative tourism, but only as another
form of tourism in the spectrum. It can never be an alternative to mass
tourism, nor can it solve all the problems of tourism (Duffy, 2002). Cohen's
(2002) criticism is telling. He sees forms of sustainable tourism as 'green
washing,' misrepresenting the concept and using it to gain access to take
over the control of natural sites or cultural practices. He also warns of
issues of equity in terms of using sustainability as an instrument of power
in the restriction of visitation to key sites.
A variety of issues emerge from these trends. It is important to disseminate
cases of good practice in sustainable tourism, and to draw out
generalities from these cases. In this way, responsible behaviour may
pervade the provision and consumption of tourism and displace the more
extreme calls for 'politically correct' tourism development. It must be
recognised that the relationship of economics to environmental and social
issues and policies in tourism is a complex one (Archer, 1996). Often economic
policy is determined at the regional or national level, yet the impact
of that policy is felt at the local level on environments and societies
(Hough and Sherpa, 1989). Teo (2002) observes that globalization has
heightened the imperative for sustainable tourism as global process
impact on tourism at the local level and are then moderated by a range
of processes and power relationships that determine the success or failure
of sustainable tourism.

3.3.5 Model of community participation, Integration and Planning in tourism

Good models of community participation and planning in tourism are increasingly available (Richards and Hall, 2000), and in particular the notion of destination 'visioning ' is growing in acceptance as a means of communities taking control of their tourism futures (Murphy, 1985; Haywood, 1988; Ritchie, 1999; Richards and Hall, 2000; Ruhanen and Cooper, 2003). But it must also be recognised that tourism takes place in many different social and political contexts and what works in one place may need adaptation for another. From this point of view, Go (2001) is less optimistic that there has been real progress in converting the good intentions of sustainable tourism into practice.

This also applies to the borrowing of concepts and techniques from other subject areas and industries. Nevertheless, tourism has much to learn from others. In particular, techniques of environmental management, visitor planning and management, and studies of visitor/environment relationships are well developed in the recreation literature, and are just as applicable to tourism (Cooper, 1991). In particular, recreational managers are much more advanced in their use of the notion of 'capacity' than are tourism planners (Barkham, 1973; McCool and Lime, 2001), although such mechanistic planning techniques are now being questioned (Butler, 1996). Perhaps the central issues emerging from this section are the gradual shift from short-term to longer-term thinking and planning in tourism; it is no longer acceptable for the industry to exploit and 'use up' destinations and then move on (Cooper, 1995). In addition there is an urgent need for tourism to sharpen up its terminology (e.g., alternative? responsible? soft, appropriate tourism?), to think clearly about the implications of sustainable/ responsible initiatives, and to develop a code of business ethics.

Self Assessment Questions

(i) How can many of the disadvantages mentioned previously in tourism be offset ?

(ii) Why would Tourists be attracted to areas of high scenic beauty, regions of historical and architectural interest, and areas with abundant and interesting wildlife without causing threat and possible extinction to wildlife?

3.0 Conclusion

Over the last 25 years, both the planning and marketing of tourism have been primarily orientated toward the needs of the tourist and the provision of interesting tourist experiences. This attitude has its basis first in

the need of developers and operators to attract large numbers of visitors and hence ensure an adequate financial return on their investments and operations, and, second, in the desire of politicians and planners to maximize the financial benefits from tourism for their country or region. For both parties the primary concerns have been how many tourists will come, how can we attract more, and what facilities and services will they require? Fortunately the climate of thought is changing, albeit slowly. Increasingly

politicians and planners are becoming aware of the longer-term
social, economic, and environmental consequences of excessive and badly
planned tourism expansion. Sharpley (2000), for example, calls for
national and international cooperation to facilitate the adoption of sustainable
tourism-development policies.

 However, he notes that 'the political structure and fragmented nature of the industry suggest
the political systems dedicated to equitable development and resource use are unlikely
to be forthcoming.' If the adverse effects of tourism are to be prevented
or remedied, it is crucial that politicians and planners become less preoccupied
with increasing the number of visitors (and indeed with volume
as a yardstick of success) and devote more consideration to the long-term
welfare of the resident population. As Ritchie and Crouch (2003) note, it
is the enhanced welfare of the local community that is the key yardstick
of success for a competitive destination.

5.0 SUMMARY
Planning for the resultant impact of tourism necessitates a careful definition
of the respective responsibilities of the public and private sectors and
communities. Planning should be designed to maximize the economic
and social benefits of tourism to the resident population, whereas at the
same time mitigating or preferably eliminating the adverse effects. In the
past most of this type of planning has been remedial—it has taken place
after much development has occurred.
In the future, planners and communities must take a more proactive role in controlling the
nature of such development in terms of stricter building and design regulations; controlled
access to vulnerable sites and attractions; strict transport regulations,
especially in core areas; and the use of entry fees, barriers, and
designated routes for vehicles and pedestrians alike.
Tourism creates both positive and negative effects in the destination
country or region. Thoughtful policy making and planning can do much
to minimize or even remove the negative effects. Tourism can be a very
positive means of increasing the economic, social, cultural, and environmental
life of a country.
The major issue now is can politicians, planners
and developers, and citizens rise to the challenge and create a truly
responsible, and thus acceptable, tourism industry, one which brings
long-term benefits to residents and tourists alike without compromising
the physical and cultural environment of the destination region.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

(i)   How many and what type of tourists does the resident population of
an area wish to attract?
(ii) What is the optimum number of tourists that an area can support in
terms of its physical, environmental, and social carrying capacity?
(iii)How can these tourists contribute to the enhancement of the lifestyles
of the residents?

7.0 References / Further Readings

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Answer to Self Assessment Questions

(i) Many of the disadvantages mentioned previously can be offset by high quality planning, design and management, and by educating tourists to appreciate the environment. Tourists are attracted to areas of high scenic beauty, regions of historical and architectural interest, and areas with abundant and interesting wildlife.

(ii) Some of the money spent by tourists in the region, in particular the revenue received from entry fees, can be used
to conserve and improve the natural and manmade heritage (as is the case
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provide a use for otherwise redundant historic building.