TOURISM MANAGEMENT

FIFTH EDITION

DAVID **WEAVER**   LAURA **LAWTON**

WILEY

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PREFACE

In early 2013, the UNWTO, with much fanfare, reported that more than one billion international overnight tourist trips occurred globally during the previous year. Aside from the symbolic power of this impressive number, the achievement was even more remarkable given the lingering effects of the global financial crisis — proof indeed of the tourism sector's great resilience as well as the continuing explosive growth of mass tourism markets in China and other parts of Asia. We described tourism as a 'juggernaut' in the preface to the fourth edition, and see no reason to reconsider this characterisation. At the same time, we remain cautious against any sense of complacency. The ongoing civil war in Syria has devastated the tourism industry in that country and threatens to engulf other parts of the Middle East. In the Philippines, it was a natural crisis, Typhoon Haiyan, that pummelled that country's tourism sector in November of 2013. So even though the trend of worldwide growth has been remarkably consistent, individual destinations can experience extreme and often unanticipated decreases in visitation that can endure for years. We can therefore say that managers *must strive for destination and product resilience* so that declines in visitation after such tragedies are as small as possible and recoveries are as quick as possible at all levels.

Of course, this aspiration is easier said than done given the complexity of tourism and its myriad and often subtle connections with other natural and human systems, but it is our hope that this new edition will continue to equip aspiring managers and planners with the broad cutting edge knowledge and mind-set conducive to resilience and innovation in the tourism sector. We continue to emphasise the paramount importance of sustainability, not only in the narrow social and environmental sense, but in a 'triple bottom line' sense that concurrently acknowledges the legitimacy of economic or financial viability. Such holistic thinking, transcending narrow ideological dogma, needs to be deeply embedded in the deliberations of all tourism planners and managers. Special features in each chapter also continue to emphasise how innovative technologies can be utilised in the interests of resilient and sustainable tourism. Social media, for example, has attained a degree of importance as a democratic marketing vehicle that we could not have foreseen even a few short years ago. The democratisation of tourism, and continued efforts to have it enshrined as a fundamental human right, furthermore, reflect the need to incorporate diversity and inclusivity into the managerial mind-set — old assumptions about wealthy white tourists and poor non-white hosts simply do not capture any longer the realities of contemporary tourism. Any manager of a Gold Coast theme park or marquee hotel will attest to this as they attempt to capitalise on the incredible opportunities afforded by this unfolding Asian Tourism Century. We invite the reader to embrace these challenges as well and to see tourism for what it truly is, one of the most important, widespread and fascinating forces of the modern era. As with its predecessors, the fifth edition of *Tourism Management* has benefited enormously from the professionalism and enthusiasm of the publishing team at John Wiley & Sons Australia. In particular, we acknowledge Terry Burkitt (Publishing Editor), Dan Logovik (Content Editor), Tara Seeto (Publishing Assistant), Kylie Challenor (Managing Content Editor), Delia Sala (Graphic Designer) and Tony Dwyer (External Composition Coordinator). Like them, we are proud and excited about this new edition, which reflects Wiley's long-standing commitment to tertiary level tourism education in Australia and beyond.

Dr Dave Weaver
Dr Laura Lawton
March 2014

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adopted and signed by the APEC Chairperson and the PATA Chairperson at a meeting of the APEC Tourism Working Group and at the 50th PATA Annual Conference in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, in April 2001. The Code was developed as a reflection of both organisations' strong commitment to sustainable tourism development across the Asia–Pacific region.

TEXT

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FEATURES AT A GLANCE

Chapter	Managing tourism	Breakthrough tourism	Technology and tourism	Contemporary issue	Case study
1					
2	China's Golden Weeks — Golden for whom?	Breaking the billion barrier	Rocketing into space? Not so fast …	Bringing more than good memories back to New Zealand	Post-tsunami enterprise resilience in Phuket, Thailand
3	Are Egypt's pyramids forever?	Getting a break through social tourism	New ways to see old Olympia	No leave, no life	Managing with Generation Y
4	Visiting the neighbours	Rwanda on the threshold?	Getting mended in Malaysia	What makes a successful tourist shopping village?	The domestic pleasure periphery in Brazil
5	Building social capital with the Gympie Music Muster	Adventure tourism and rush	Making big decisions in small businesses	Experiencing a different China in Yunnan Province	Contemporary tourism heritage as heritage tourism: Evidence from the Gold Coast and Las Vegas
6	Catering to people with disabilities	Obesity as a tourism issue	Introducing the flashpacker	Travelling with my best friend	Understanding Chinese outbound tourists
7	Getting them to visit after the bushfire	Going full circle with roots tourism	E-helping small businesses with the Tourism e-kit	Good reviews = higher prices	Middle-earth and New Zealand — An enduring fellowship
8	A magnet for migrants?	Faster multiplier effects through slow tourism	Brave new world of RFID	Making South Australia a lifestyle destination	A natural alternative for Tasmania?
9	Behold the voluntourist	Gross national product or gross national happiness?	Coping with sharks in Western Australia	Resilient rural renegades in northern Vietnam	Cruising for trouble?
10	Two-track tourism in Iraq?	Come and see it before it's gone …	Technology cycles	Resilience and adaptability in a mature destination	East Asian destination cycle dynamics in rural Korea
11	Global observatories of sustainable tourism	Biofuel takes off	Using social media to gauge resident perceptions	Geopolitical sustainability and the quadruple bottom line	Certifying the certifiers through the Global Sustainable Tourism Council
12	Visitor tolerance levels at Victorian zoos	Interrogating yourself with autoethnography	SurveyMonkey	Qualitative reinforcement	Building knowledge capacity through Tourism Research Australia

1 Introduction to tourism management

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 define tourism from a holistic perspective and appreciate its status as one of the world's most important economic sectors

2 critique the factors that have hindered the development of tourism studies as an academic field

3 explain why tourism is currently a field of study rather than an academic discipline

4 understand the differences between the multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and postdisciplinary approaches

5 identify the contributions of each the four 'platforms' to the evolution and maturation of tourism studies

6 explain why the growing number of refereed tourism journals is a core indicator of development in the field of tourism studies

7 compare and contrast the distinctive and mutually reinforcing roles of universities and vocational education and training providers in the provision of tourism education and training.

■ INTRODUCTION

Tourism is widespread and complex, and sophisticated management is required to realise its full potential as a sustainable economic, ecological, social and cultural force. Complicating this task is its vulnerability to uncertainty, which is demonstrated by contemporary concerns about the global economy and the role of tourism in both affecting and being affected by climate change. This textbook gives students an introductory exposure to tourism that provides a foundation for further informed engagement with the sector, first in the remainder of their tertiary studies and then in their capacity as decision makers. Four themes that inform this textbook under the overarching themes of sustainability and management are:

1 crisis management/resilience
2 technology and innovation
3 inclusivity and diversity
4 the **Asian Century**.

This opening chapter introduces the text. The following section defines tourism and emphasises its global and national economic importance. The section 'Tourism as an academic field of study' traces the development of tourism studies as an academic focus and considers the factors that have hindered its evolution as such, as well as current indications of its maturation. Finally, we present the themes, outline and structure of the book.

■ THE PHENOMENON OF TOURISM

This book is about tourism management, and it is therefore important to establish what is meant by the term **tourism**. Most people have an intuitive perception of tourism focused around an image of recreational travel. But how far from home

does one have to travel before they are considered to be tourists, and for how long? And what types of travel qualify? Most people would readily appreciate that a family holiday trip qualifies as a form of tourism while the arrival of a boat of asylum seekers does not. But what about academics attending a conference, a Hindu pilgrimage, a group of international students living on the Gold Coast, or participants at the Commonwealth Games? All qualify as 'tourists', but challenge our perceptions of what it means to be a tourist. We therefore need to establish definitional boundaries. The questions posed here are beyond the scope of this introductory chapter, but it should be apparent that the definition of tourism depends largely on how we define the **tourist**, the central actor in this phenomenon (see chapter 2).

■ DEFINITION OF TOURISM

There is no standard definition of tourism. Many definitions have been used over the years, some of which are universal and can be applied to any situation. Others fulfil a specific purpose. Local tourism organisations, for example, often devise definitions that satisfy their own circumstances. The universal definition that informs this text

builds on Goeldner and Ritchie (2012), who place tourism in a broad stakeholder context. Additions to the original, indicated by italics, further strengthen this holistic perspective:

> Tourism may be defined as the *sum of the* processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting, *transporting*, hosting *and management of tourists* and *other* visitors.

'Surrounding environments' include the governments in origin regions, tertiary educational institutions (universities and vocational education and training (VET) providers) and nongovernmental organisations (NGOs), all of which are important tourism stakeholders. Figure 1.1 depicts these stakeholders as components of an interconnected network, with possibilities for interaction among any combination of members. Also notable in the expanded definition is the extension of the tourism dynamic to include transportation as well as the management process.
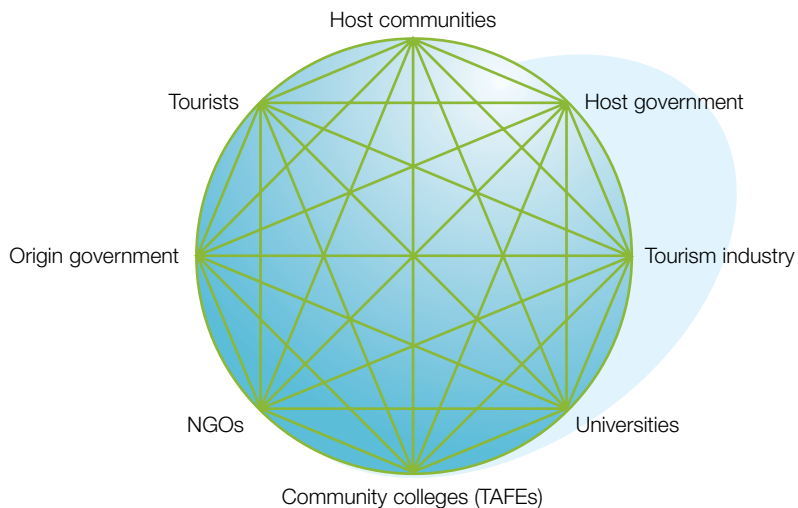
FIGURE 1.1 The tourism stakeholder system

The importance of tourism

The importance of tourism as an economic, environmental and sociocultural force will be detailed in later chapters, but it is useful at the outset to convey a sense of its economic significance. Tourism evolved during the latter half of the twentieth century from a marginal and locally significant activity to a ubiquitous economic giant. In 2014 it directly and indirectly accounted for more than 10 per cent of the global GDP, or approximately $7.0 trillion. This places tourism on the same global scale as agriculture or mining. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (www.wttc.org), the major organisation representing the global tourism industry, 255 million jobs were dependent on the 'tourism economy' in 2012. During that year, for the first time, more than one billion international tourist trips of at least one night were undertaken (UNWTO 2012). Many tourism experts, moreover, believe that the global incidence of domestic tourist travel is anywhere from four to six times this volume. Such

figures attest to the massive economic impact of tourism and its status as a primary agent of globalisation that involves billions of host–guest contacts and the incorporation of most of the world into an integrated global tourism network.

TOURISM AS AN ACADEMIC FIELD OF STUDY

Tourism has an enormous impact on host destinations as well as transit and origin regions. How much this impact is positive or negative, however, depends on whether tourism is appropriately managed. For a destination, management and planning imply deliberate efforts to control the development of tourism to help fulfil the long-term economic, social, cultural and environmental aspirations and strategic goals of the people living in that destination. This is the essence of the concept of sustainability. If, in contrast, tourism is allowed to develop without formal management, experience tells us that the likelihood of negative outcomes is greatly increased, as later chapters will illustrate. The tertiary education sector has much to contribute to the evolving science of tourism management and planning, and the ongoing evolution of tourism studies is an important development that has paralleled the expansion of tourism itself.

Obstacles to development

The emergence of tourism as a legitimate area of investigation by university academics is a recent development, and one that has encountered many obstacles. It can be argued that this field, like other non-traditional areas such as development studies and feminist studies, is still not given the respect and level of support that are provided to the more traditional disciplines. Several factors that help to account for this situation are outlined here.

Tourism perceived as trivial

Many academics and others in positions of authority have regarded tourism over the years as a nonessential and even frivolous activity involving pleasure-based motivations and activities. Hence, it is not always given the same attention, in terms of institutional commitment, as agriculture, manufacturing, mining or other more 'serious'

and 'essential' pursuits (Davidson 2005). Most tourism researchers can relate tales of repeated grant application rejections, isolation within 'mainstream' discipline departments and ribbing by colleagues who believe that a research trip to Bali or Phuket is little more than a publicly subsidised holiday. These misperceptions still occur, but there is now more awareness of the significant and complex role played by tourism in contemporary society, and the profound impacts that it can have on tourists, host communities and the natural environment. This growing awareness is contributing to a 'legitimisation' of tourism that is gradually giving tourism studies more credibility within the university system in Australia and elsewhere.

Large-scale tourism as a recent activity

Residual tendencies to downplay tourism are understandable given that large-scale tourism is a relatively recent phenomenon. In the 1950s, tourism was a globally marginal economic activity. By the 1970s, its significance was much more difficult to deny, but specialised bodies such as the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) were not yet large or well known enough to effectively spread awareness about the size and importance of the sector. The number, size and sophistication of these organisations have now increased greatly, but most people even today still do not appreciate the actual size or economic influence of tourism.

Bureaucratic inertia and echo effects

Even where there *is* respect for tourism and an appreciation of its magnitude, the administrative structures of tertiary institutions often make it difficult for new programs and research priorities to be introduced. Universities are bureaucratic institutions characterised by inertia and reluctance to change entrenched structures. When significant change does occur, it is as likely to be as much the consequence of government or legal pressure, interest from large donors, or the arrival of a new vice-chancellor wishing to make their own mark on the institution, as any well-considered examination of societal trends. This has resulted in an 'echo effect' whereby universities only started to offer specialised tourism programs in the 1980s, at least decades after its emergence as a major global industry. Even today, many universities are still trying to assess if, where and how tourism should be accommodated within their institutional structures.

Tourism perceived as a vocational field of study

To the degree that tourism in the past was accepted as a legitimate area of tertiary study, it was widely assumed to belong within the vocational education and training system. This reflected the simplistic view that tourism-related learning is only about applied vocational and technical skills training, and that relevant job opportunities are confined to customer service-oriented sectors such as hotels and restaurants. It has historically been easier therefore to incorporate emerging elements of tourism-related learning (such as managerial training) into existing and receptive VET structures than to 'sell' them to resistant or sceptical university administrators. Fortunately, TAFE (technical and further education) colleges and universities are now both widely recognised as important tertiary stakeholders in the tourism sector, each making distinctive but complementary contributions to its operation and management.

Lack of clear boundaries and reliable data

The development of tourism studies has been impeded by unclear terms of reference. Aside from the lack of consensus on the definition of tourism, the term is often used in conjunction or interchangeably with related concepts such as 'travel', 'leisure', 'recreation', 'holiday', 'visitation' and 'hospitality'. The focus of tourism and its place within a broader system of academic inquiry is therefore not very clear. A similar lack of precision is evident within tourism itself. It is only since the 1980s that the UNWTO has succeeded in aligning most countries to a standard set of international tourist definitions. Yet, serious inconsistencies persist in the international tourism data that are being reported by member states. Attempts to achieve standardisation and reliability among UNWTO member states with domestic tourism data are even more embryonic, making comparison between countries extremely difficult (UNWTO 2012).

Tourism-related industrial classification codes are also confusing. Finding data on the magnitude of the tourism industry in Australia and New Zealand, for example, is impeded by the lack of a single 'tourism' category within the **Standard Industrial Classification (SIC)** code used by these two countries (ABS 2006). Instead, tourism-related activities are subsumed under at least 15 industrial classes, many of which also include a significant amount of nontourism activity (see figure 1.2). This system, in turn, bears little resemblance to the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) used by the United States, Canada and Mexico, which subsumes tourism under more than 30 individual codes. The tourism 'industry', then, loses respect and influence because of official classification protocols that disguise or dilute the sector and divide its massive overall economic contribution into relatively small affiliated industries such as 'accommodation', 'travel agency services' and 'recreational parks and gardens'. Leiper (2008) acknowledges this dilution effect and recommends the use of the plural term **tourism industries**.

Division H
Accommodation, Cafés and Restaurants
5710   Accommodation
5720   Pubs, taverns and bars
5730   Cafés and restaurants
5740   Clubs (hospitality)

Division I
Transport and Storage
6121   Long distance bus transport
6401   Scheduled international air transport
6402   Scheduled domestic air transport
6403   Nonscheduled air and space transport
6641   Travel agency services

Division P
Cultural and Recreational Services
9220   Museums
9231   Zoological and botanical gardens
9239   Recreational park and gardens
9241   Music and theatre productions
9322   Casinos
9330   Other recreation services

FIGURE 1.2 Australian and New Zealand SIC classes related to tourism

Current status
Fragmentation and consolidation

For all the aforementioned reasons, tourism lacks a strong academic tradition. Before the creation of specialised programs and departments, tourism researchers were dispersed among a variety of traditional disciplines, and most notably in social sciences such as geography, anthropology, economics and sociology. Isolated from their tourism colleagues in other departments, tourism researchers could not easily collaborate and generate the synergy and critical mass necessary to stimulate academic progress. However, the gathering of tourism researchers in tourism studies schools or departments has not necessarily generated a more unified approach to the subject. Tourism academics still often pursue their research from the perspective of the mainstream

disciplines in which they received their education, rather than from a 'tourism studies' perspective. Tourism geographers, for example, emphasise spatial theories involving core/periphery, regional or gravitational models, while tourism economists utilise input/output models, income multiplier effects and other econometric theories. This **multidisciplinary approach** undoubtedly contributes to the advancement of knowledge as tourism researchers come together in tourism departments, but inhibits the development of tourism as a coherent **academic discipline** in its own right, with its own **indigenous theories** and methodologies. Such fragmentation, reminiscent of the situation described earlier with respect to tourism-related industrial codes, helps to account for the continued identification of tourism by most tourism academics as a field of study rather than a discipline (Tribe 2010).

Theory is essential to the development of an academic discipline because it provides coherent and unifying tentative explanations for diverse phenomena and processes that may otherwise appear disconnected or unrelated. In other words, it provides a basis for understanding, organising and predicting certain behaviours of the real world and is therefore central to the revelation and advancement of knowledge in any area. Theory often seems to be divorced from the real world, but a grasp of it is essential for those who intend to pursue tourism, or any other area of study, at the university level.

As depicted in figure 1.3, there are indications that the multidisciplinary approach is gradually giving way to a more consolidated **interdisciplinary approach** in which the perspectives of various disciplines are combined and synthesised into distinctive new 'tourism' perspectives. This dynamic is more likely to generate the indigenous theories and methodologies that will eventually warrant the description of tourism studies as an academic discipline in its own right. Others, however, argue that tourism should take a **postdisciplinary approach** that 'allows scholars to free themselves from the intellectual shackles applied by disciplinary policing' (Coles, Hall & Duval 2009, p. 87). By deliberately avoiding the disciplinary stage, researchers could focus on whatever frameworks, theories and methods best help to resolve tourism issues and problems in the real world, retaining only tourism itself as the object of unified and consolidated effort. In this case, it would be appropriate for tourism to continue as a field of study rather than a discipline.

Present

Unintegrated input of perspectives
from various disciplines

tourism =

| **1** | Multidisciplinary |
| **2** | A field of study |

Future?

| Fusion of perspectives
from various disciplines | Removal of
disciplinary contraints |
| tourism = | tourism = |

| **1** | Interdisciplinary | | **1** | Postdisciplinary |
| **2** | A discipline of its own | | **2** | A field of study |
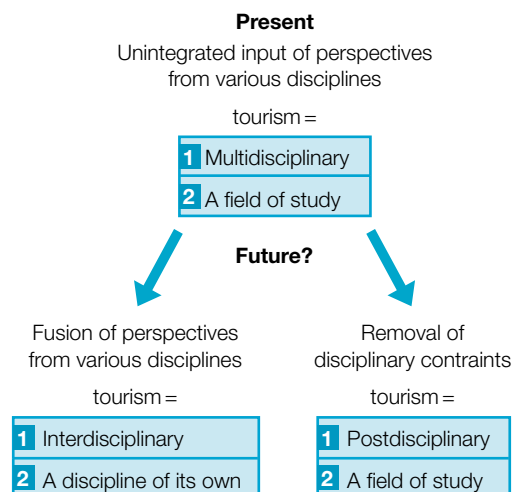
FIGURE 1.3 The evolution of tourism studies

Departments and programs

Regardless of the deliberations about theories and disciplinarity, the maturation of tourism studies is indicated by its visibility within university-level education and research in Australia and elsewhere. This is apparent in the large number of special-ised departments and programs within Australian and New Zealand universities. Many tourism academics are still based in traditional disciplines such as geography and economics, but an increasing proportion are located within more recently established tourism-related entities and programs. This is extremely significant, given its impact on the field's visibility and its effect of transforming tourism into a formally recognised and structured area of investigation within the university structure. This process has also played an important role in creating the critical mass of tourism specialists neces-sary to progress beyond the multidisciplinary stage.

Notably, in Australia it was the newer universities (e.g. Griffith University, La Trobe University), the satellite campuses of older universities (e.g. Gatton Agricultural Col-lege of the University of Queensland) and former polytechnic institutions (e.g. RMIT University, Curtin University of Technology), that played a leadership role in the devel-opment of such units, as they were less constrained by disciplinary constraints and greater structural rigour of some of the more established institutions. As of 2014, more than half of Australia's universities hosted departments or programs with a formal tourism component, most commonly within business or management faculties. This holds true for New Zealand's universities as well. Departments within these faculties that accommodate tourism also typically house complementary or related fields such as hotel management, sport and/or leisure, thus contributing even more to the aca-demic fragmentation and fuzzy boundaries of tourism studies.

Refereed journals

The evolution of tourism studies can also be gauged by the increase in the number of tourism-related **refereed academic journals**, which consolidate tourism research into a single location and sometimes encourage multidisciplinary or interdiscipli-nary discourse, depending on the scope of the publication. Because the articles they publish are subject to a normally rigorous procedure of **double-blind peer review**, refereed academic journals are widely considered to be the major showcase of a field or discipline and the best indicator of its intellectual development (Park et al. 2011). A 'double-blind' process means that the author does not know who the editor has approached to assess the submitted manuscript, while the reviewers (two or three are usually employed) do not know the identity of the author.

Disadvantages of refereed journals include:

• the likelihood that experts who are asked to referee a submission can identify the author(s) because of their familiarity with research activity in the field, thereby com-promising the objectivity of the double-blind review process

• the use of 'academic' terminology, vocabulary and methods that are not readily understood by the practitioners and destination residents who are most likely to benefit from an understanding of the material

• their location within (increasingly electronic) university library collections that cannot easily be accessed by practitioners and residents because of the 'firewalls' erected by for-profit publishers.

This latter issue is being resolved in some academic fields through the introduc-tion of open access (or 'no cost') journals, though this trend has not yet significantly affected tourism studies. Another problem of the past was the large interval (often

several years) between the time the research is submitted to the journal and the time of publication (by which time it may no longer be relevant). This is being at least partly addressed by publishers through the increasingly widespread practice of releasing online versions long before the publication of the printed copy. These digital versions are often available just two or three weeks after the final draft of a manuscript has been accepted. The internet also allows supplementary material such as completed questionnaires to be made available to the reader in non-paper formats.

In tourism, only four 'pioneer' English language journals existed prior to 1990, three of which (*Annals of Tourism Research, Journal of Travel Research* and *Tourism Management)* are interdisciplinary outlets widely regarded as the most prestigious in the field. As of 2014, there were about 60 refereed English-language tourism journals, some of which are combined with related fields (e.g. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Research*). As the amount of tourism-related research increased, many of these journals were established to accommodate specialised topics (e.g. *Tourism Economics*, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *Journal of Heritage Tourism*) and geographical foci (e.g. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, *Tourism in Marine Environments*). Broadly speaking, the topical journals tend to encourage the multidisciplinary approach, while the geographic journals, like the aforementioned pioneer journals, encourage interdisciplinary engagement. It should also be mentioned that there are several hundred refereed tourism journals published in languages other than English, very little content of which is cited in the English language journals.

A sequence of tourism platforms

As tourism has become increasingly visible within the university sector, the perspectives through which academics in the field of tourism studies view the world have also evolved. Jafari (2001) identified four **tourism platforms** that have sequentially and incrementally influenced and enriched the development of the field.

Advocacy platform

The early literature of the 1960s was characterised by a supportive and uncritical attitude towards tourism, which was almost universally regarded as an economic saviour for a wide variety of communities. Although this **advocacy platform** can be seen in retrospect as strongly biased and naïve, it must be interpreted in the context of the era in which it emerged. Europe and Asia were still recovering from the devastation of World War II, and the issue of global economic development was focused on the emergence of an impoverished 'Third World'. As a potential economic stimulant, tourism offered hope to these regions, especially as there were then few examples of unsustainable, large-scale tourism development to serve as a counterpoint.

The prevalent attitude, therefore, was that communities should do all they can to attract and promote tourism activity within a minimally constrained free market environment. The primary role of government, accordingly, is to facilitate tourism growth through pro-tourism legislation and by maintaining law and order. Notwithstanding such 'anti-regulation' or 'anti-management' sentiments, the
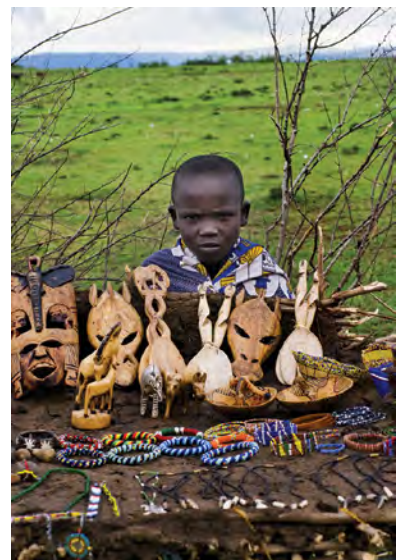
advocacy platform has made a valuable contribution to the tourism management field by raising awareness of the potential of tourism to serve as an agent of economic development, especially for poverty-stricken regions or places where there are few other viable alternatives.

Cautionary platform

The **cautionary platform** emerged in the late 1960s as an ideological challenge to the advocacy platform by the political left. Where the advocacy platform endorses free markets and is suspicious of 'big government', supporters of the cautionary platform endorse a high degree of public sector intervention and are suspicious of 'big business'. Tourism's rapid expansion into new environments, and the Third World in particular, produced numerous tangible examples of negative impact by the early 1970s that called into question the logic of unrestrained 'mass tourism' development. The contribution of the cautionary platform to tourism management, therefore, has been to emphasise the need for restraint and regulation. Only the most extreme proponents of this platform have called for the elimination of tourism from particular destinations. Classic and highly politicised works representing this platform include Finney and Watson (1975), who edited a book (*A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific*) which views tourism as an activity that perpetuates the inequalities of the colonial plantation era. Another is *The Golden Hordes: International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery* by Turner and Ash (1975), who compare mass tourists to a barbarian invasion (see chapter 4 for more discussion of the pleasure periphery).

Adaptancy platform

Supporters of the **adaptancy platform** are ideologically aligned with the cautionary platform; what sets them apart is their proposal of various modes of tourism that they allege to be better 'adapted' to the needs of local communities. Specifically, they introduced 'alternative tourism' in the early 1980s as a catchphrase to describe small-scale, locally controlled and highly regulated modes of tourism that provide a preferable alternative to mass tourism (see chapter 11). Holden's examination of alternative tourism options for Asia is a classic application of the adaptancy platform (Holden 1984).

Knowledge-based platform

According to Jafari's model, the academic study of tourism has moved towards a knowledge-based platform since the early 1990s, in response to at least three factors:

1 earlier perspectives are limited by their adherence to ideologies of the right or left, which provide only a narrow perspective on a complex issue such as tourism

2 they are further limited in their emphasis on impacts (advocacy and cautionary) or solutions (adaptancy)

3 the alternative tourism proposed by the adaptancy platform is a limited solution that is not feasible for the great number of destinations already embedded in mass tourism.

The **knowledge-based platform** addresses these limitations by shifting from the emotive, limited and ideologically driven perspectives of previous platforms to one that is more objective and aware that tourism of any type results in positive as well as negative impacts, and winners as well as losers. It also adopts a holistic view of tourism as an integrated and interdependent system in which large scale and small scale are *both* appropriate and potentially sustainable, depending on the circumstances of each particular destination. To use extreme examples, large-scale tourism is appropriate for

a major urban area such as Shanghai or Sydney, while small-scale tourism is logically more appropriate for Antarctica or south-western Tasmania.

Effective management decisions about such complex systems should be based not on emotion or ideology, but on sound knowledge obtained through the application of the scientific method (see chapter 12) and informed by relevant models and theory. It is through the adherence of tourism academics to the knowledge-based platform, which is strongly associated with the emergence of 'sustainable development' and 'sustainable tourism' in the early 1990s (see chapter 11), that the field of tourism studies is most likely to achieve interdisciplinarity. An emerging counterargument, however, is that the knowledge-based platform is overly technical and insufficiently informed by the ethics of human need. Accordingly, Macbeth (2005) has called for a new 'value-full' platform as the next logical progression in this sequence of perspectives.

Universities and VET providers

The emphasis in this chapter on the evolution of tourism studies within the university sector is in no way intended to imply an inferior role or status for TAFEs or their equivalent. Rather, it is worth reiterating that both play a necessary and complementary role within the broader tertiary network of educational and training institutions. TAFEs and similar institutions have had, and will likely continue to have, a dominant role in the provision of practical, high-quality training opportunities across a growing array of tourism-related occupations. These will increasingly involve not just entry-level training, but also staff development and enhancement.

Universities often provide or at least require similar training credentials (e.g. it is becoming increasingly common for students to earn an advanced diploma in tourism at a VET provider and then transfer to a university to complete a bachelor's degree in tourism), but their primary responsibilities are in the areas of education and research. Specific roles coherent with the knowledge-based platform include the following (no order of priority is intended):

- provide relevant and high-quality undergraduate and postgraduate education, directed especially at producing effective managers, planners, researchers, consultants, analysts and marketers for both the public and private sectors
- conduct scientific research into all aspects of tourism
- accumulate and disseminate a tourism-related knowledge base, especially through refereed journals, but also through reports and other avenues that are more accessible to practitioners
- apply and formulate theory, both indigenous and imported, to describe, explain and predict tourism-related phenomena
- critically analyse everything related to tourism
- position this analysis within a broad context of other sectors and processes, and within a framework of complexity, uncertainty and resilience
- contribute to policy formulation and improved planning and management within both the public and private sectors.

CHARACTERISTICS, OUTLINE AND STRUCTURE

This fifth edition, like previous editions, provides university students with an accessible but academically informed introduction to topics and issues relevant to tourism management in the Australasian region. It is not, strictly speaking, a guidebook on how to manage tourism; those skills will evolve through the course of the undergraduate program, especially if the tourism component is taken in conjunction with one or more generic management courses or as part of a management or business degree. No prior knowledge of the tourism sector is assumed or necessary.

Characteristics

This book maintains a strong academic focus and emphasises methodological rigour, objective research outcomes, theory, critical analysis, curiosity and healthy scepticism. This is evident in the use of scientific notation throughout the text to reference material obtained in large part from refereed journals and other academic sources. The inclusion of a chapter on research (chapter 12) further supports this focus. At the same time, however, this book is meant to have practical application to the sustainable management and resolution of real-world problems, which the authors believe should be the ultimate goal of any academic discourse.

Economics
e.g. Economic impacts of tourism, Economic forces underlying tourism

Geography
e.g. Spatial patterns of tourism, Tourism regions, Tourism resources

History
e.g. Evolution of tourism, Interpretation of historical attractions

Political science
e.g. Tourism policy, Geopolitics of tourism, Influence of politics on tourism

Law
e.g. Tourism laws, Tourism legislation

Agriculture
e.g. Rural and farm tourism

Tourism studies

Environmental sciences
e.g. Ecotourism, Environmental impacts

Marketing
e.g. Marketing of tourism products, Market segmentation

Sociology
e.g. Social impacts, Social forces underlying tourism

Anthropology
e.g. Cultural impacts of tourism, Interpretation of cultural attractions

Business management
e.g. Management of tourism, Tourism organisations

Psychology
e.g. Tourist motivations

FIGURE 1.4 Multidisciplinary linkages within tourism studies

Second, this book provides a 'state-of-the-art' introduction to a coherent field of tourism studies that is gradually moving away from a multidisciplinary towards an interdisciplinary or postdisciplinary focus. Either approach is compatible with figure 1.4, which recognises that an integrative and comprehensive understanding of tourism requires exposure to the theories and perspectives of other disciplines and fields (Holden 2005). Prominent among the disciplines that inform tourism studies are geography, business, economics, sociology, anthropology, law, psychology, history, political science, environmental science, leisure sciences, and marketing.

Third, the book is national in scope in that the primary geographical focus is on Australia, yet it is also international in the sense that the Australian situation is both influenced and informed by developments in other parts of the world, and especially the Asia–Pacific region.

Chapter outline

The 12 chapters in this book have been carefully arranged so that together they constitute a logical and sequential introductory tourism management subject that can be delivered over the course of a normal university semester. Chapter 2 builds on the introductory chapter by providing further relevant definitions and presenting tourism within a systems framework. Chapter 3 considers the historical evolution of tourism and the 'push' factors that have contributed to its post–World War II emergence as one of the world's largest industries. Tourist destinations are examined in chapter 4 with regard to the 'pull' factors that attract visitors. Global destination patterns, by region, are also described. Chapter 5 concentrates on the tourism product, including attractions and sectors within the broader tourism industry such as travel agencies, carriers and accommodations.

The emphasis shifts from the product (or supply) to the market (or demand) in the next two chapters. Chapter 6 considers the tourist market, examining the tourist's decision-making process as well as the division of this market into distinct segments. Chapter 7 extends this theme by focusing on tourism marketing, which includes the attempt to draw tourists to particular destinations and products. Subsequent chapters represent another major shift in focus toward the impacts of tourism. Chapters 8 and 9, respectively, consider the potential economic, sociocultural and environmental consequences of tourism, while chapter 10 examines the broader context of destination development. The concept of sustainable tourism, which is widely touted as the desired objective of management, and an appropriate framework for all engagement with tourism, is discussed in chapter 11. Chapter 12 concludes by focusing on the role of research in tourism studies. The textbook, through these 12 chapters, prepares the reader for further university-level pursuit of the topic.

Chapter structure

Chapters 2 to 12 are all structured in a similar manner. Each begins with a set of learning objectives that students should achieve at the completion of the chapter. This is followed by an introduction and subsequent text that is arranged by topic area into

major sections, major subsections, secondary subsections and minor subsections, as per figure 1.5. Four features that support the text through their management implications are dispersed throughout these sections, as appropriate:

- the 'Managing . . .' feature focuses on situations related to the chapter theme that have important ramifications for the management of the tourism sector
- the 'Contemporary issue' feature examines a broader current theme or trend relevant to the chapter
- the 'Breakthrough tourism' feature identifies new developments that could have important influences on tourism management that are not yet apparent
- the 'Technology . . .' feature considers the actual or potential role of technological innovations in shaping the tourism sector.

Learning objectives
MAJOR SECTION
Major subsection
Secondary subsection
Minor subsection

Features:
Managing . . .
Contemporary issue
Breakthrough tourism
Technology . . .

CHAPTER REVIEW
Summary of key terms
Questions
Exercises
Further reading
CASE STUDY
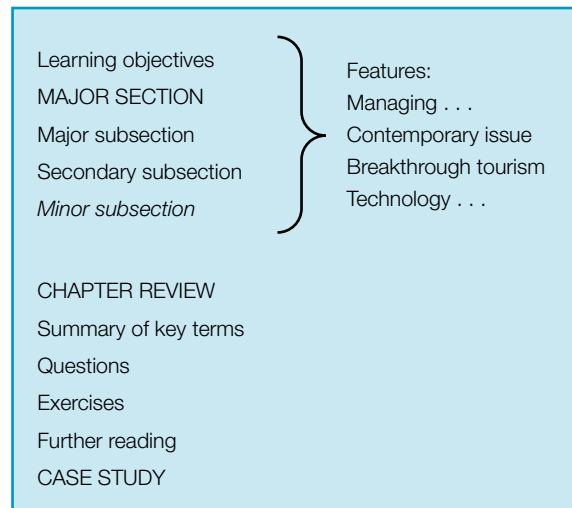
FIGURE 1.5 Chapter structure

Following a review of the content, each chapter concludes with a sequence of additional features. The 'Summary of key terms' defines important concepts and terms in bold type within the chapter. Relevant questions and exercises follow which allow the student to engage and discuss chapter content beyond the level of reiteration. An annotated 'Further reading' section suggests additional sources that allow the pursuit of specific topics in greater depth. Finally, each chapter ends with an expanded case study that incorporates multiple themes relevant to the chapter.

CHAPTER REVIEW

This chapter defines tourism and provides a preliminary indication of its status as a major global economic activity. The evolution of tourism studies as an emerging field of academic inquiry within the university system is also considered. It is seen that this development has long been hindered by the widespread perception of tourism as a trivial subject and the recent nature of large-scale tourism. Also important are the echo effects produced by the bureaucratic inertia of university administrative structures, the traditional association between tourism and vocational training, the lack of clear definitions and reliable databases, and the diffusion of tourism-related activities among numerous categories of the Standard Industrial Classification code.

Within the contemporary university system, tourism displays the fragmentation of the multidisciplinary approach, which has impeded the development of indigenous theories and methodologies. However, movement toward an interdisciplinary approach indicates greater consolidation, though it is questionable whether tourism will ever become a discipline in its own right. Concurrent with increased research output, tourism has been increasingly recognised in the formation of specialised departments and programs. More than half of Australian and New Zealand universities offer such opportunities, which tend to be newer and less tradition-bound institutions. This has been accompanied by a proliferation of refereed tourism journals, many of which are focused on specific topics or places.

Philosophically, the field of tourism studies has evolved through a sequence of dominant perspectives or 'platforms'. The advocacy platform of the 1960s contributed to the field by emphasising the role of tourism as an effective tool of economic development. Regarded by many as insufficiently critical, it gave rise to a cautionary platform in the 1970s that identified the potential negative impacts of uncontrolled mass tourism and argued for a high level of regulation. The adaptancy platform that followed in the 1980s proposed small-scale alternative tourism activities that are supposedly better adapted to local circumstances. The current knowledge-based platform arose from the sustainable tourism discourse that began in the early 1990s. It is alleged to be more scientific and objective than earlier perspectives, regarding tourism as an integrated system in which both large and small-scale tourism can be accommodated through management based on sound knowledge. This book provides an academically oriented introduction to tourism management that adheres to these aspirations of the knowledge-based platform.

◼ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Academic discipline a systematic field of study that is informed by a particular set of theories and methodologies in its attempt to reveal and expand relevant knowledge; e.g. psychology examines individual behaviour, while geography examines spatial patterns and relationships

Adaptancy platform a follow-up on the cautionary platform that argues for alternative forms of tourism deemed to be better adapted to local communities than mass tourism

Advocacy platform the view that tourism is an inherent benefit to communities that should be developed under free market principles

Asian Century the projected economic and cultural dominance of Asia during the twenty-first century, including its status as a major destination region and source of outbound tourists

Cautionary platform a reaction to the advocacy platform that stresses the negative impacts of tourism and the consequent need for strict regulation

Double-blind peer review a procedure that attempts to maintain objectivity in the manuscript refereeing process by ensuring that the author and reviewers do not know each other's identity

Indigenous theories theories that arise out of a particular field of study or discipline

Interdisciplinary approach involves the input of a variety of disciplines, with fusion and synthesis occurring among these different perspectives

Knowledge-based platform the most recent dominant perspective in tourism studies, arising from the sustainability discourse and emphasising ideological neutrality and the application of rigorous scientific methods to generate knowledge so that communities can decide whether large-or small-scale tourism is most appropriate

Multidisciplinary approach involves the input of a variety of disciplines, but without any significant interaction or synthesis of these different perspectives

Postdisciplinary approach advocates moving beyond the theoretical and methodological constraints of specific disciplines so that tourism studies are free to address critical issues in the most appropriate ways

Refereed academic journals publications that are considered to showcase a discipline by merit of the fact that they are subject to a rigorous process of double-blind peer review

Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) a system that uses standard alphanumeric codes to classify all types of economic activity. Tourism-related activities are distributed among at least 15 codes.

Theory a model or statement that describes, explains or predicts some phenomenon

Tourism the sum of the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting, transporting, hosting and management of tourists and other visitors

Tourism industries a term recommended by some over 'tourism industry', to reflect the distribution of tourism activity across a broad array of sectors

Tourism platforms perspectives that have dominated the emerging field of tourism studies at various stages of its evolution; they are both sequential and cumulative

Tourist a person who travels temporarily outside of his or her usual environment (usually defined by some distance threshold) for certain qualifying purposes

■ QUESTIONS

1 Lack of respect for tourism, or appreciation of its magnitude, are among the factors which have hindered the acceptance of tourism as a legitimate topic of academic inquiry.

(a) What is the best way of changing these perceptions of tourism?

(b) How could the improvement of these perceptions help to overcome the remaining obstacles discussed in the 'Obstacles to development' section?

2 What are the advantages and disadvantages, respectively, of a multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and postdisciplinary approach toward tourism studies?

3 (a) Why is theory so important to the development of an academic discipline?

(b) How can theory be made more interesting for students and practitioners?

4 (a) Why are refereed journals considered to be the main source of tourism-related research results?
(b) What are the weaknesses of refereed journals?
(c) What dangers accompany the recent proliferation of refereed journals?
5 What are the advantages and disadvantages, for students and the field, of incorporating tourism into the same departments as hotel management, sport and leisure studies?
6 (a) What is the most appropriate 'division of labour' between universities and VET providers in terms of the provision of tourism education and training?
(b) What are the advantages and disadvantages, respectively, of integrating or differentiating between the university and VET systems?

◼ EXERCISES

1 (a) Randomly select any three stakeholder groups as depicted in figure 1.1.
(b) Describe a tourism management scenario in which these three stakeholder groups would be required to work closely together to solve an important problem.
2 Prepare a 1000-word report in which you:
(a) Provide an example from your place of residence (country, state, town, etc.) of tourism-related activity (e.g. projects) or discourse (e.g. legislation, reports, letters to editor) that represents each of the four tourism platforms this chapter describes. Clearly show how each example represents its respective platform.
(b) Describe the strengths and weaknesses of each project or discourse with respect to their potential impact on your place of residence.
(c) Identify the stakeholders (e.g. developers, residents, interest groups, administrators) responsible for each of the identified projects or discourses, and speculate why they hold these views.

◼ FURTHER READING

Davidson, T. 2005. 'What are Travel and Tourism: Are They Really an Industry?' In Theobald, W. (Ed.) *Global Tourism*. Third Edition. Sydney: Elsevier, pp. 25–31. Davidson argues that not only is tourism not a single industry, but it is counterproductive to treat it as such when attempting to gain respect for the field.

Jafari, J. 2001. 'The Scientification of Tourism'. In Smith, V. L. & Brent, M. (Eds) *Hosts and Guest Revisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century*. New York: Cognizant, pp. 28–41. This article updates Jafari's analysis of tourism as having experienced four distinct philosophies or 'platforms' in the post-World War II period.

Leiper, N. 2008. 'Why "the Tourism Industry" is Misleading as a Generic Expression: The Case for the Plural Variation, "Tourism Industries"'. *Tourism Management* 29: 237–51. This offers another perspective on the status of tourism as a series of discrete industries.

Park, K., Phillips, W., Canter, D. & Abbott, J. 2011. 'Hospitality and Tourism Research Rankings by Author, University, and Country Using Six Major Journals: The First Decade of the New Millennium'. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 35: 381–416. The rankings of major universities and academics are discussed with respect to tourism research output in influential tourism journals.

Tribe, J. 2010. 'Tribes, Territories and Networks in the Tourism Academy'. *Annals of Tourism Research* 37: 7–33. Based on feedback from prominent tourism academics, this paper critically discusses the issue of fragmentation and disciplinarity in the contemporary field of tourism studies.

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Leiper, N. 2008. 'Why "the Tourism Industry" is Misleading as a Generic Expression: The Case for the Plural Variation, "Tourism Industries"'. *Tourism Management* 29: 237–51.

Macbeth, J. 2005. 'Towards an Ethics Platform for Tourism'. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32: 962–84.

Park, K., Phillips, W., Canter, D. & Abbott, J. 2011. 'Hospitality and Tourism Research Rankings by Author, University, and Country Using Six Major Journals: The First Decade of the New Millennium'. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 35: 381–416.

Tribe, J. 2010. 'Tribes, Territories and Networks in the Tourism Academy'. *Annals of Tourism Research* 37: 7–33.

Turner, L. & Ash, J. 1975. *The Golden Hordes: International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery*. London: Constable.

UNWTO 2012. '1 Billion Tourists 1 Billion Opportunities'. http://1billiontourists.unwto.org.

2

The tourism system

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1   describe the fundamental structure of a tourism system

2   assess the external forces that influence and are influenced by tourism systems

3   outline the three criteria that collectively define tourists

4   explain the various purposes for tourism-related travel, and the relative importance of each

5   identify the four major types of tourist and the criteria that apply to each

6   evaluate the importance of origin and transit regions within the tourism system

7   explain the role of destination regions and the tourism industry within the tourism system.

INTRODUCTION

The introductory chapter defined tourism and described the development of tourism as a widespread area of focus within the university system, despite lingering prejudices. This is indicated by the large number of tourism-related programs and refereed journals as well as the movement towards a more objective knowledge-based philosophy that recognises tourism as a complex system requiring scientific investigation.

Chapter 2 discusses the concept of the tourism system and introduces its key components, thereby establishing the basis for further analysis of tourism system dynamics in subsequent chapters. The following section outlines the systems-based approach and presents tourism within this context. The subsequent 'The tourist' section defines the various types of tourist, considers the travel purposes that qualify as tourism and discusses problems associated with these definitions and the associated data. The origin regions of tourists are considered in the 'Origin region' section, while transit and destination regions are discussed in 'Transit region' and 'Destination region' sections, respectively. The industry component of the tourism system is introduced in the final section.

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO TOURISM

A **system** is a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting elements that together form a single functional structure. Systems theory emerged in the 1930s to clarify and organise complex phenomena that are otherwise too difficult to describe or analyse (Leiper 2004). Systems tend to be hierarchical, in that they consist of subsystems and are themselves part of larger structures. For example, a human body comprises digestive, reproductive and other subsystems, while human beings themselves are members of broader social systems (e.g. families, clans, nations). Systems also involve flows and exchanges of energy which almost always involve interaction with external systems (e.g. a human fishing or hunting for food). Implicit in the definition of a system is the idea of interdependence, that is, that a change in a given component will affect other components of that system. To examine a phenomenon as a system, therefore, is to adopt an integrated or holistic approach to the subject matter that transcends any particular discipline — in essence, an interdisciplinary or postdisciplinary approach that complements the knowledge-based platform (see chapter 1).

The basic whole tourism system

Attempts have been made since the 1960s to analyse tourism from a systems approach, based on the realisation that tourism is a complex phenomenon that involves interdependencies, energy flows and interactions with other systems. Leiper's **basic whole tourism system** (Leiper 2004) places tourism within a framework that minimally requires five interdependent core elements:

1 at least one tourist
2 at least one tourist-generating region
3 at least one transit route region
4 at least one tourist destination
5 a travel and tourism industry that facilitates movement within the system (see figure 2.1).
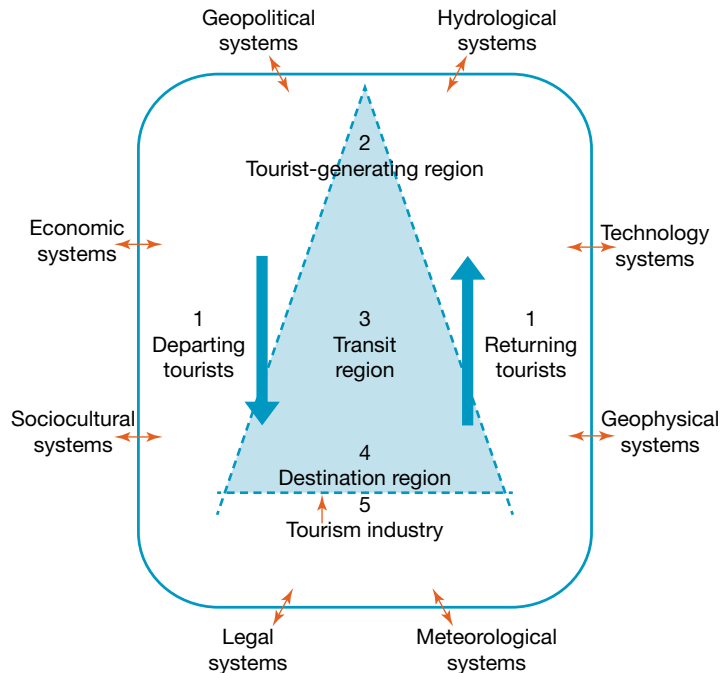
FIGURE 2.1 A basic whole tourism system

The movement of tourists between residence and a destination, by way of a transit region, and within the destination, comprises the primary flow of energy within this system. Other flows of energy include exchanges of goods (e.g. imported food to feed tourists) and information (e.g. tourism-related social media exchanges) that involve an array of interdependent external environments and systems in which the tourism system is embedded. The experience of the tourist, for example, is facilitated (or impeded) by the economic and geopolitical systems which, respectively, provide or do not provide sufficient discretionary income and accessibility to make the experience possible. Natural and cultural external factors can have dramatic and unpredictable effects on tourism systems, as illustrated by the Indian Ocean tsunami of 26 December 2004. This event killed an estimated 200 000 local residents and tourists, and devastated destinations throughout the Indian Ocean basin. Tourism businesses in heavily affected destinations — such as the popular Thai seaside resort province of Phuket — were forced to adjust, and some were able to demonstrate greater **resilience** than others (see the case study at the end of this chapter). Within Australia, various external (nontourism) factors during the early twenty-first century, including a high Australian dollar, the persistent global financial crisis, and increasing fuel costs, have combined to seriously harm the domestic and inbound tourism systems.

Tourism systems in turn influence these external environments, for example by stimulating a destination's economy (see chapter 8) or helping to improve relations between countries (see chapters 9 and 11). Following the 2004 tsunami, a high priority was placed by affected destination governments and international relief agencies on restoring international tourist intakes, on the premise that this was the most effective way of bringing about a broader and more rapid economic and

psychological recovery (Henderson 2007). Despite such critical two-way influences, there is a tendency in some tourism system configurations to ignore or gloss over the external environment, as if tourism were somehow a self-contained or closed system.

The internal structure of the tourism system is also far more complex than implied by figure 2.1, thereby presenting more challenges to the effective management of tourism. Many tourist flows are actually hierarchical in nature, in that they involve multiple, nested and overlapping destinations and transit regions (see figure 2.2). Take, for example, a Canadian from Vancouver who travels across the Pacific Ocean ('regional transit route') to visit Australia ('tourist destination region') and then spends time in Sydney, Uluru and the Whitsundays (i.e. three 'tourist destination places'), travelling between them along various 'internal transit routes'. Cumulatively, the global tourism system encompasses an immense number of individual experiences and bilateral or multilateral flows involving thousands of destinations at the international and domestic level. Regarding the stakeholders depicted in figure 1.1, the tourists and the tourism businesses (or tourism industry) are present throughout Leiper's tourism system (figure 2.1), as are nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) and educational institutions. However, tourism businesses are mostly concentrated in destination regions, with transit and origin regions respectively less well represented, as indicated by the triangle in figure 2.1. Host governments and communities are by definition located in the destination region, while origin governments are situated clearly in the tourist-generating region.

TGR	Tourist generating region
TDR	Tourist destination region
TDP	Tourist destination place
RTR	Regional transit route
ITR	Internal transit route
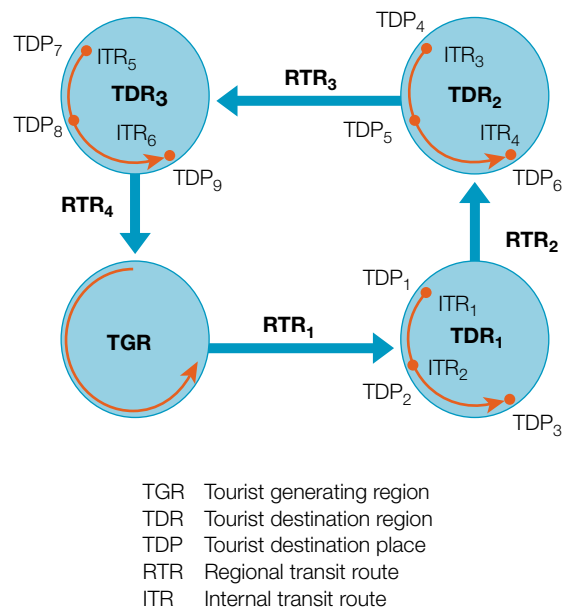
FIGURE 2.2 Tourism system with multiple transit and destination components

Source: Adapted from Leiper (2004)

Finally, the overall tourism system is a hyperdynamic structure that is in a constant state of flux. This is apparent not only in the constant travel of millions of tourists, but also in the continuous opening and closing of accommodation facilities

and transportation routes across the globe. This instability represents yet another challenge faced by tourism managers, who must realise that even the most up-to-date profile of the sector soon becomes obsolete. The only certainty in tourism systems is constant change.

THE TOURIST

As suggested in chapter 1, the definition of tourism is dependent on the definition of the tourist. It is therefore critical to address this issue in a satisfactory way before any further discussion of management-related issues can take place. Every tourist must simultaneously meet certain spatial, temporal and purposive criteria, as discussed below.

Spatial component

To become a tourist, a person must travel away from home. However, not all such travel qualifies as tourism. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and most national and subnational tourism bodies hold that the travel must occur beyond the individual's 'usual environment'. Since this is a highly subjective term that is open to interpretation, these bodies normally stipulate minimum distance thresholds, or other criteria such as state or municipal residency, which distinguish the 'usual environment' from a tourist destination (see the 'Data problems' section). The designation and use of such thresholds may appear arbitrary, but they serve the useful purpose, among others, of differentiating those who bring outside revenue into the local area (and thereby increase the potential for the generation of additional wealth) from those who circulate revenue internally and thereby do not create such an effect.

Domestic and international tourism

If qualifying travel occurs beyond a person's usual environment but within his or her usual country of residence, then that individual would be classified as a **domestic tourist**. If the experience occurs outside of the usual country of residence, then that person would be classified as an **international tourist**. The concept of 'usual environment' does not normally apply in international tourism. Residents of a border town, for example, become international tourists as soon as they cross the nearby international border (providing that the necessary temporal and purposive criteria are also met). An aspect of international tourism that is seldom recognised is the fact that such travel always involves some movement within the international tourist's own country — for example, the trip from home to the airport or international border. Although neglected as a subject of research, this component is nonetheless important, because of the infrastructure and services that are used and the economic activity that is generated. Vehicles queued for a kilometre or more waiting to cross from Singapore to Malaysia attest to this influence.

International tourism differs from domestic tourism in other crucial respects. First, despite the massive volume of international tourism (See Breakthrough tourism: Breaking the billion barrier), domestic tourists far outnumber international tourists on a global scale and within all but the poorest countries. In Australia, for example, Australian residents aged 15 or older accounted for 74.7 million trips within Australia between 1 October 2011 and 30 September 2012 (TRA 2012a), compared with 5.6 million trips by international tourists (TRA 2012b).

breakthrough tourism

BREAKING THE BILLION BARRIER

In 2012, for the first time, more than one billion international stayovers were recorded from the cumulative reports of the UNWTO member states. There was speculation in the late 1990s that this threshold would be reached much earlier, but the global financial crisis (GFC) of 2008 and onward effectively depressed global visitation growth. The number, in itself, is not especially significant in a practical sense, since the previous year's total of 980 million is not much smaller. However, the one billion threshold has great symbolic value in conveying to a largely unaware public the impressive magnitude of the global tourism system and its potential as a tool for development — or the potential for negative environmental and social impacts if not managed effectively. The UNWTO did not fail to capitalise on the attendant marketing opportunities, selecting a British tourist's arrival in Madrid on 13 December as the symbolic and much-publicised one billionth tourist. The popular online site CNN Travel provided strong coverage of this event and related developments, including a UNWTO infographic that summarised basic patterns of origin, destination and purpose (CNN 2012). The milestone was also leveraged in the UNWTO's 'One billion tourists: One billion opportunities' media campaign, which made the point that an environmental or social contribution from every tourist, however modest, produces an enormously positive cumulative effect. Specifically, based on the campaign website's public poll, 'buying local' was voted the most popular suggestion for action, followed by 'respecting local cultures', 'protecting heritage', 'saving energy' and 'using public transport'. Concurrently, a 'Faces of the one billion' campaign was launched in which tourists travelling internationally were invited to submit a photo of themselves in front of a favourite tourist attraction. These were then posted on the UNWTO Facebook page, thereby giving a sense of individuality and dynamism to the 'one billion' figure (UNWTO 2012a).

Second, relatively little is known about domestic tourists compared with their international counterparts, despite their numbers and economic importance. One reason is that most national governments do not consider domestic tourists to be as worthy of scrutiny, since they do not bring much-valued foreign exchange into the country but 'merely' redistribute wealth from one part of the country to another. It is often only when international tourist numbers are declining, for example in the aftermath of the Indian Ocean tsunami of 2004, that governments are prompted to support local tourism businesses by promoting their domestic tourism sector. Another reason for the relative neglect is that domestic tourists are usually more difficult to count than international tourists, since they are not subject, in democratic countries at least, to the formalities faced by most international tourists, such as having a passport scanned. However, where countries are moving towards political and economic integration, and hence more open borders, international tourist flows are becoming just as difficult to monitor as domestic flows. This is well illustrated at present by the 28 countries of the ever-enlarging European Union (see chapter 4).

Finally, there are some cases where the distinction between domestic and international tourism is not entirely clear. This occurs when the tourism system incorporates geopolitical entities that are not part of a fully fledged country. For example, should a Palestinian resident of the Israeli-controlled West Bank be considered an international or domestic tourist during travel to Israel? Travel between the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region and China is another ambiguous situation, as is travel between Taiwan and mainland China. Australians travelling to Norfolk Island are subject to full immigration controls, even though this destination is a self-governing external territory of Australia.

Outbound and inbound tourists

When referring specifically to international tourism, a distinction is made between **outbound tourists** (those leaving their usual country of residence) and **inbound tourists** (those arriving in a country different from their usual country of residence). Any international tourism trip has both outbound and inbound components, with the distinction being based on whether the classification is being made from the perspective of the country of origin or destination. Take, for example, a New Zealander who spends two weeks on holiday in Thailand. This person would be considered outbound from a New Zealand perspective (i.e. an 'outbound New Zealander') but inbound from the Thai perspective (i.e. an 'inbound New Zealander').

During any year, the cumulative number of inbound trips will always exceed the total number of outbound trips on a global scale, since one outbound trip must translate into at least, but possibly more than, one inbound trip. This is demonstrated by the hypothetical example of an Australian tourist who visits five countries during a trip to South-East Asia. From Australia's perspective, this trip equates to one outbound Australian tourist experience. However, each of the Asian countries will record that traveller as one inbound Australian tourist, resulting in five separate instances of inbound Australian tourism. Some origin governments require returning outbound tourists to report all visited destination countries, while others do not. Australia, for example, requires returning tourists to designate the one country where they spent most of their time abroad during that particular trip.

Long-haul and short-haul travel

A distinction can be made between **long-haul tourists** and **short-haul tourists**. There are no universal definitions for these terms, which are often defined according to the needs and purposes of different organisations, sectors or destinations. The UNWTO regards long-haul travel as trips outside the multi-country region in which the traveller lives (UNWTO 2011). Thus, a United Kingdom resident travelling to Germany (i.e. within Europe, the same region) is a short-haul tourist, while the same resident travelling to South Africa or Australia is a long-haul tourist. Airlines usually base the distinction on distance or time thresholds, 3000 miles (6600 kilometres) or five hours commonly being used as a basis for differentiation (Lo & Lam 2004). One implication is that long-haul routes require different types of aircraft and passenger management strategies. Diabetics travelling on long-haul flights, for example, are more likely than those on short-haul flights to experience diabetes-related problems while in flight, though the actual number of those having problems is small (Burnett 2006). From a destination perspective, long-haul tourists are often distinguished from short-haul tourists by expenditure patterns, length of stay and other critical parameters. They may as a result also warrant separate marketing and management strategies.

Temporal component

The length of time involved in the trip experience is the second basic factor that determines whether someone is a tourist and what type of tourist they are. Theoretically, while there is no minimum time that must be expended, most trips that meet domestic tourism distance thresholds will require at least a few hours. At the other end of the time spectrum, most countries adhere to a UNWTO threshold of one year as the maximum amount of time that an inbound tourist can remain in the visited country and still be considered a tourist. For domestic tourists such thresholds are less commonly applied or monitored. Once these upper thresholds are exceeded, the visitor is no longer classified as a tourist, and should be reassigned to a more appropriate category such as 'temporary resident' or 'migrant'.

Stayovers and excursionists

Within these time limits, the experience of an overnight stay is critical in defining the type of tourist. If the tourist (domestic or international) remains in the destination for at least one night, then that person is commonly classified as a **stayover**. If the trip does not incorporate at least one overnight stay, then the term **excursionist** is often used. The definition of an 'overnight stay' may pose a problem, as in the case of someone arriving at a destination at 2.00 am and departing at 4.00 am. However, ambiguous examples such as this one are rare, and the use of an overnight stay criterion is a significant improvement over the former standard of a minimum 24-hour stay, which proved both arbitrary and extremely difficult to apply, given that it would require painstaking monitoring of exact times of arrival and departure.

Excursion-based tourism is dominated by two main types of activity. Cruise ship excursionists are among the fastest growing segments of the tourist market, numbering 16.3 million in 2011 (CLIA 2012) but many more if quantified as inbound tourists from the cumulative perspective of each cruise ship destination country. Certain geographically suitable regions, such as the Caribbean and Mediterranean basins, are especially impacted by the cruise ship sector, which is expected to increase its capacity from 325 000 beds in 2011 to 361 000 beds in 2015 (CLIA 2012). The Australia/New Zealand/South Pacific region, by contrast, accounts for just 2.7 per cent of all 'bed days' due to its relatively small population and geographic isolation. Cross-border shoppers are the other major type of excursionist. This form of tourism is also spatially concentrated, with major flows being associated with adjacent and accessible countries with large concentrations of population along the border. Examples include Canada/United States, United States/Mexico, Singapore/Malaysia, Argentina/Uruguay and western Europe. However, this is a very unusual phenomenon for Australia because of its insularity and isolation.

As with domestic tourists and other domestic travellers, the distinction between stayovers and excursionists is more than a bureaucratic indulgence. Significant differences in the management of tourism systems are likely depending on whether the tourism sector is dominated by one or the other group. An important difference, for example, is the excursionists' lack of need for overnight accommodation in a destination.

Travel purpose

The third basic tourist criterion concerns the **travel purpose**, which should not be confused with motivation. Not all purposes for travelling qualify as tourism. According to the UNWTO, major exclusions include travel by active military personnel, daily routine trips, commuter traffic, migrant and guest worker flows, nomadic movements,

refugee arrivals and travel by diplomats and consular representatives. The latter exclusion is related to the fact that embassies and consulates are technically considered to be part of the sovereign territory of the country they represent. The purposes that do qualify as tourism are dominated by three major categories:

1 leisure and recreation
2 visiting friends and relatives
3 business.

Leisure and recreation

Leisure and recreation are just two components within a constellation of related purposes that also includes terms such as 'vacation', 'rest and relaxation', 'pleasure' and 'holiday'. This is the category that usually comes to mind when the stereotypical tourism experience is imagined. Leisure and recreation account for the largest single share of tourist activity at a global level. As depicted in table 2.1, this also pertains to Australia, where 'holiday' (the Australian version of the category) constitutes the main single purpose of visits for both domestic and inbound tourists.

Visiting friends and relatives (VFR)

The intent to visit friends and relatives (i.e. **VFR tourism**) is the second most important purpose for domestic and inbound tourists in Australia (table 2.1). Backer (2012), however, maintains that the actual magnitude of VFR is underestimated because many tourists staying with friends or family list 'holiday' as their purpose. An important management implication of VFR tourism is that, unlike pleasure travel, the destination decision is normally predetermined by the destination of residence of the person who is to be visited. Thus, while the tourism literature emphasises destination choice and the various factors that influence that choice (see chapter 6), the reality is that genuinely 'free' choice only exists for pleasure-oriented tourists. Another interesting observation is the affiliation of VFR-dominated tourism systems with migration systems. About one-half of all inbound visitors to Australia from the United Kingdom, for example, list VFR as their primary purpose (as opposed to about one-fifth of inbound tourists in total), and this over-representation is due largely to the continuing importance of the United Kingdom as a source of migrants.

TABLE 2.1 Main reason for trip by inbound and domestic visitors, Australia, 2011–12[1]

Purpose of trip	Domestic tourists		Inbound tourists	
	Number[2]	%	Number[2]	%
Holiday	7 045	40	2 458	44
Visiting friends and relatives	5 777	32	1 403	25
Business-related	3 866	22	908	16
Other purposes[3]	1 040	6	830	15
Total	17 728	100	5 599	100

Notes:
1 All visitors 15 years of age and older
2 In thousands
3 Other inbound purposes = education, employment

Source: TRA (2012a, 2012b)

Business

Business is roughly equal to VFR as a reason for tourism-related travel at a global level. Even more so than with the VFR category, business tourists are constrained in their travel decisions by the nature of the business that they are required to undertake. Assuming that the appropriate spatial and temporal criteria are met, business travel is

a form of tourism only if the traveller is not paid by a source based in the destination. For example, a consultant who travels from Sydney to Melbourne, and is paid by a company based in Melbourne, would not be considered a tourist. However, if payment is made by a Sydney-based company, then the consultant is classified as a tourist. This stipulation prevents longer commutes to work from being incorporated into tourism statistics, and once again reflects the principle that tourism involves the input of new money from external sources.

There are numerous subcategories associated with business tourism, including consulting, sales, operations, management and maintenance. However, the largest category involves meetings, incentive travel, conventions and exhibitions, all of which are combined in the acronym **MICE**. Most, but not all, of MICE tourism is related to business. Many meetings and conventions, for example, involve such non-business social activities as school and military reunions. Similarly, exhibitions can be divided into trade and consumer subtypes, with the latter involving participants who attend such events for pleasure/leisure purposes. Incentive tourists are travellers whose trips are paid for all or in part by their employer as a way of rewarding excellent employee performance. In the period from 1 November 2011 to 31 October 2012, 188 400 inbound visitors arrived in Australia to attend conferences or conventions, or about 4 per cent of the total intake (Business Events Australia 2012).

Sport

Several additional purposes that qualify a traveller as a tourist are less numerically important than the three largest categories outlined previously, though more important in certain destinations or regions. Sport-related tourism involves the travel and activities of athletes, trainers and others associated with competitions and training, as well as the tourist spectators attending sporting events and other sport-related venues. High-profile sporting mega-events such as the Olympic Games and the World Cup of football not only confer a large amount of visibility on the host destination and participating teams, but also involve many participants and generate substantial tourist expenditure and other 'spin-off' effects. Sporting competitions in some cases have also been used to promote cross-cultural understanding and peaceful relations between countries and cultures (see chapters 9 and 11).

Spirituality

Spiritual motivation includes travel for religious purposes. Pilgrimage activity constitutes by far the largest form of tourism travel in Saudi Arabia due to the annual pilgrimage or Hajj to Mecca by several million Muslims from around the world. Religious travel is also extremely important in India's domestic tourism sector, accounting for about 170 million visits per year or at least 70 per cent of all domestic tourism (Shinde 2010, 2012). One festival alone, the six-week Maha Kumbh Mela, drew an estimated 100 million Hindu pilgrims to the city of Allahabad in 2013. It is commonly regarded as the world's biggest event of any type.

More ambiguous is the **secular pilgrimage**, which blurs the boundary between the sacred and the profane (Digance 2003). The term has been applied to diverse tourist experiences, including commemorative ANZAC events at the Gallipoli battle site in Turkey (Hyde & Harman 2011), as well as visits to Olympic sites (Norman & Cusack, 2012). Secular pilgrimage is often associated with the New Age movement, which is variably described as a legitimate or pseudoreligious phenomenon. Digance (2003) describes how the central Australian Uluru monolith has become a contested sacred site, in part because of conflicts between Aboriginal and New Age pilgrims seeking privileged access to the site.

Health

Tourism for health purposes includes visits to spas, although such travel is often merged with pleasure/leisure motivations (see chapter 3). More explicitly health related is travel undertaken to receive medical treatment that is unavailable or too expensive in the participant's home country or region. Such travel is often described as **medical tourism** (Chambers & McIntosh 2008). Cuba, for example, has developed a specialty in providing low-cost surgery for foreign clients. In Australia, the Gold Coast of Queensland is building a reputation as a centre for cosmetic surgery and other elective medical procedures, in many cases for patients from the Middle East. Many Americans travel to Mexico to gain access to unconventional treatments that are unavailable in the United States.

Study

Study, and formal education more broadly, is a category that most people do not intuitively associate with tourism, even though it is a qualifying UNWTO criterion. Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States and the United Kingdom are especially active in attracting foreign students. Although participant numbers may not appear large in relation to the three main categories of purpose, students have a substantial relative impact on host countries because of the prolonged nature of their stay and the large expenditures (including tuition) that they make during these periods of study. For example, international students accounted for about 6 per cent of all inbound arrivals to Australia in 2011–12 but 25 per cent of all visitor-nights, due to an average length of stay of 142 nights. Accordingly, the average expenditure in Australia by international students was $16 027, compared with $3341 for inbound tourists overall (TRA 2012b). Foreign students also benefit Australia by attracting visitors from their home country during their period of study, spending money in regional cities such as Ballarat and Albury that otherwise attract few international tourists. They also often return to their country of study as leisure tourists or permanent migrants.

Multipurpose tourism

If every tourist had only a single reason for travelling, the classification of tourists by purpose would be a simple task. However, many if not most tourist trips involve **multipurpose travel**, which can be confusing for data classification and analysis. The current Australian situation illustrates the problem. Departing visitors are asked to state their subsidiary travel purposes as well as their primary purpose for travelling to Australia. It is on the basis of the primary purpose alone that table 2.1 is derived, and policy and management decisions subsequently made. These data, however, may not accurately reflect the actual experiences of the tourists.

Take, for example, a hypothetical inbound tourist who, at the conclusion of a two-week visit, states 'business' as the primary trip purpose, and pleasure/holiday and VFR as other purposes. The actual trip of that business tourist may have consisted of conference attendance in Sydney over a three-day period, a three-day visit with friends in the nearby town of Bathurst and the remaining eight days at a resort in Port Douglas. While the primary purpose was business, this is clearly not reflected in the amount of time (and probably expenditure) that the tourist spent on each category of purpose. Yet without the conference, the tourist probably would not have visited Australia at all. On the other hand, if the delegate had no friends in Australia, the country might not have been as attractive as a destination, and the tourist might have decided not to attend the conference in the first place. Thus, there is interplay among the various travel purposes, and it is difficult to establish a meaningful 'main' purpose. Backer (2012) argues that

there is a VFR component in 48 per cent of Australian domestic tourism if more broadly conceived, and by this same logic the 'holiday' percentage would be much higher again.

A further complication is that people in the same travel group may have different purposes for their trip. Our hypothetical conference delegate, for example, may be accompanied by a spouse who engages solely in pleasure/holiday activities. However, most surveys do not facilitate such multipurpose responses from different members of the same party. Rather, they assume that a single main purpose applies to all members of that group.

Major tourist categories

This chapter has earlier demonstrated that tourists can be either international or domestic, and also be either stayovers or excursionists. The combination of these spatial and temporal dimensions produces four major types of tourist (see figure 2.3) and these categories account for all tourist possibilities, assuming that the appropriate purposive criteria are also met.

1 **International stayovers** are tourists who remain in a destination outside their usual country of residence for at least one night (e.g. a Brisbane resident who spends a two-week adventure tour in New Zealand) but less than one year.

2 **International excursionists** stay in this destination without experiencing at least one overnight stay (e.g. a Brisbane resident on a cruise who spends six hours in Wellington).

3 **Domestic stayovers** stay for at least one night in a destination that is within their own usual country of residence, but outside of a 'usual environment' that is often defined by specific distance thresholds from the home site (e.g. a Brisbane resident who spends one week on holidays in Melbourne, travels to Perth for an overnight business trip or travels to the Gold Coast to spend a day at the beach).

4 **Domestic excursionists** undertake a similar trip, but without staying overnight (e.g. a Brisbane resident who flies to and from Melbourne on the same day to attend a rugby league match).
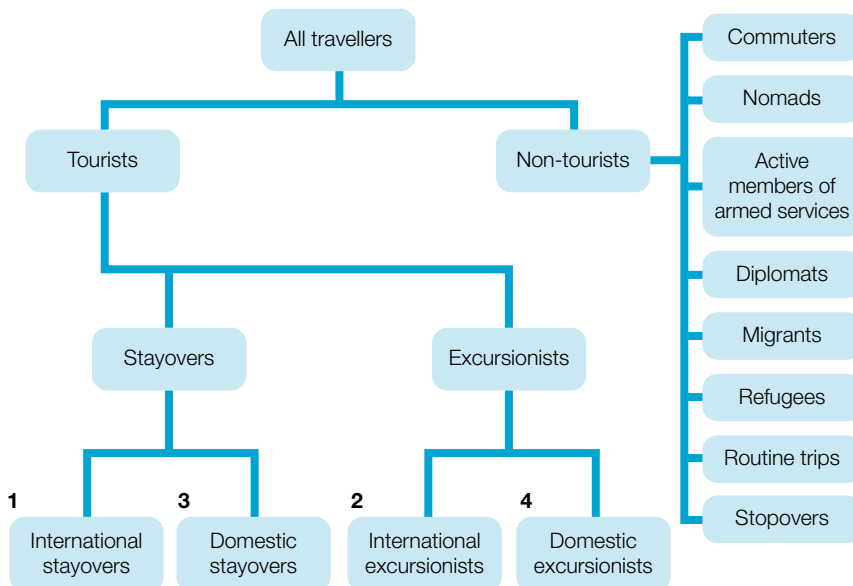
FIGURE 2.3 Four types of tourist within a broad travel context

UNWTO terminology

The aforementioned tourist terms, while commonly used in the literature, do not match the terms that are used by the UNWTO. As indicated in figure 2.4, the UNWTO refers to all tourists as 'visitors' and reserves the word 'tourist' for the specific category of stayovers. In addition, those who are described as excursionists in this text are classified as 'same-day visitors' by the UNWTO. We reject this terminology as being counter-intuitive. If interpreted literally, cruise ship excursionists and cross-border shoppers are excluded in any reference to the 'tourist'. They fall instead under the visitor sub-category of 'same-day visitor'. Nevertheless, students should be aware of the UNWTO terms, since they will be encountered in the many essential publications released by that organisation, and by governments and academics who adhere to their terminology.

Tourist terms used in this textbook		Tourist terms used by the WTO
■ Tourists	=	Visitors
■ Stayovers	=	Tourists
■ Excursionists	=	Same-day visitors

FIGURE 2.4 Textbook and UNWTO tourist terminology

Stopovers

Stopovers are tourists or other travellers temporarily staying in a location while in transit to or from a destination region. The main criterion in international tourism that distinguishes a stopover from an inbound stayover or excursionist is that they normally do not clear customs or undergo any other border formalities that signify their 'official' presence in that location. To illustrate the point, a person travelling by air from Sydney to Toronto normally changes flights in San Francisco or Los Angeles. Most passengers disembark from the aeroplane in these transit nodes and wait in the transit lobby of the airport for three or four hours until it is time to board the aircraft for the second and final leg of this long-haul journey. These transit passengers are all stopovers. If, however, someone chooses to clear customs and spend a few hours shopping in the stopover city, they would be classified as an international excursionist or stayover to the United States, depending on whether an 'overnight stay' was included.

The paradox is that most stopovers are indeed outbound tourists (unlike the other nontravelling categories), but are not classified as such from the perspective of the transit location. Several factors underlie this exclusion:
• there is the previously mentioned fact that such travellers do not clear border formalities and hence are not official visitors
• stopovers are not in the transit location by choice, although many may appreciate the opportunity to stretch their legs or make purchases
• the economic impact of stopovers is usually negligible, with expenditures being restricted to the purchase of a few drinks, some food or a local newspaper.

Changi Airport's Butterfly Garden

Most stopover traffic occurs in the international airports of transportation hubs such as Singapore, Bangkok, Dubai and Frankfurt. In contrast, Australia's location and size result in limited stopover traffic. Singapore, whose Changi Airport provides diverse services and attractions for stopovers including city tours (which converts them to excursionists and future stayovers), illustrates an innovative management approach toward deriving maximum economic benefit from transit passengers. These services and attractions also indicate blurring boundaries between transit and destination functions.

Data problems

Inbound tourist arrival statistics should be treated with caution, especially if they are being used to identify historical trends. This is in part because of the high margin of error that characterises older data in particular. For example, the UNWTO figure of 25 million international stayovers for 1950 (see table 3.1) is nothing more than a rough estimate, given that the data-collecting techniques of that era were primitive. At the scale of any individual country, this margin of error is amplified. More recent statistics have a smaller margin of error as a result of UNWTO initiatives to standardise definitions and data collection protocols. However, error still results from such things as inconsistencies from country to country in the collection and reporting of arrivals, expenditures and other tourism-related statistics. This is why UNWTO often adjusts country-level and aggregate arrival data from year to year and why only the statistics that are around five years old are stable.

Data-related problems are even more pronounced in domestic tourism statistics, largely because domestic tourist movements are difficult to monitor in most countries. Such statistics are often derived from the responses to surveys distributed at points of departure or solicited from a sample of households, from which broader national or state patterns are extrapolated. These surveys do not always employ appropriate survey design or sampling techniques (see chapter 12), though increasingly sophisticated computer-assisted techniques are being implemented by countries such as Australia and Canada that are committed to the effective development and management of their tourism industries. In Australia, compilation of the quarterly National Visitor Survey is facilitated by computer assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) systems that allow interviewers to read out by telephone the mostly multiple-choice questions that appear on the computer screen, efficiently key in responses which are then automatically coded into a database, and then rely on the computer to branch out to the next applicable question depending on what responses are given. The computer also assists with data verification and rescheduling uncompleted interviews, if required (TRA 2012a). At the subnational level, authorities sometimes still rely on extremely awkward and unreliable information sources such as sign-in books provided at welcome centres, visitor bureaus or attractions. Attempts to compare domestic tourism in different domestic jurisdictions are impeded by the proliferation of idiosyncratic definitions.

ORIGIN REGION

The **origin region**, as a component of the tourism system, has been neglected by researchers and managers. No tourism system could evolve but for the generation of demand within the origin region, and more tourism-related activity occurs there than is usually recognised. For discussion purposes, it is useful to distinguish between the origin community and the origin government.

Origin community

Research into origin regions has concentrated on market segmentation and marketing (see chapters 6 and 7). Almost no attention, in contrast, has been paid to the impacts of tourism on the **origin community** even though there are numerous ways in which these impacts can occur. For example, some major origin cities can resemble ghost towns during long weekends or summer vacation periods, when a substantial number of residents travel to nearby beaches or mountains for recreational purposes. Local businesses may suffer as a result, while the broader local economy may be adversely affected over a longer period by the associated outflow of revenue. Conversely, local suppliers of travel-related goods and services, such as travel agencies, may thrive as a result of this tourist activity.

Significant effects can also be felt at the sociocultural level, wherein returning tourists are influenced by the fashions, food and music of various destinations. Such external cultural influences, of course, may be equally or more attributable to immigration and mass media, so the identification of tourism's specific role in disseminating these influences needs to be clarified. Other tangible impacts include the unintended introduction of diseases (see Contemporary issue: Bringing more than good memories back to New Zealand). The formation of relationships between tourists and local residents also has potential consequences for origin communities. It is, for example, a common practice for male sex workers (i.e. 'beach boys') in Caribbean destinations such as the Dominican Republic to initiate romantic liaisons with inbound female tourists in the hope of migrating to a prosperous origin country like Canada or Italy (Herold, Garcia & DeMoya 2001). These examples demonstrate that at least some tourism management attention to origin regions is warranted, although another complicating variable is the extent to which the origin region also functions as a destination region, and is thus impacted by both returning and incoming tourists.

contemporary issue

BRINGING MORE THAN GOOD MEMORIES BACK TO NEW ZEALAND

Between 1997 and 2009, 22 cases (20 confirmed and two probable) of Ross River fever (RRF), a debilitating mosquito-borne alphavirus, were reported in New Zealand. Twenty of these cases involved New Zealanders who had recently travelled to Australia or Fiji, where the virus is endemic. While no deaths and just three hospitalisations were associated with these cases, they illustrate the potential for outbound tourists to act as vectors for the introduction and spread of exotic infectious diseases in their origin countries (Lau, Weinstein & Slaney 2012). This is especially so since many cases are asymptomatic and therefore go unreported and untreated. Because there are no mosquito-borne diseases within New Zealand, it is also problematic that diagnostic efficiency there tends to be low. Moreover, projections of increased climate change could mean that the mosquito populations carrying RRF could become established in a warmer New Zealand, and that more returning New Zealanders will carry the virus home as those mosquito populations spread into other parts of Australia. Exacerbating the potential problem is the tendency of New Zealanders to engage in outdoor activities within Australia that maximise their exposure to mosquito hosts. Health alerts for outbound New Zealand tourists to

affected countries are one way of reducing the risk of infection, so that appropriate measures such as the use of effective insect repellents and nets, and staying indoors during dawn and dusk, can be practised. New Zealand clinics and returning tourists also need to become more aware of RRF and its diagnostic characteristics, so that infected people can be more effectively identified and treated. RRF has the potential to become an emerging infectious disease in New Zealand, and returning outbound tourists are one of the most probable means through which this is likely to occur if sufficient precautions are not taken.

Origin government

The impacts of the **origin government** on the tourism system have also been largely ignored, in part because it is taken for granted in the more developed countries that citizens are free to travel wherever they wish (within reason). Yet this freedom is ultimately dependent on the willingness of origin national governments to tolerate a mobile citizenry. Even in democratic countries, some individuals have their passports seized to prevent them from travelling abroad. At a larger scale, prohibitions on the travel of US citizens to Cuba, imposed by successive US governments hostile to the regime of Fidel Castro, have effectively prevented the development of a major bilateral tourism system incorporating the two countries. In North Korea and other countries governed by totalitarian regimes, such restrictions are normal. An extremely important development in this regard has been the liberalisation of outbound tourist flows by the government of China, which in recent years has dramatically increased the number of countries with approved destination status (ADS) (Arita et al. 2011). Concurrently, the Chinese government exercises a high degree of control over domestic tourism, in particular through the designation of sanctioned holiday times (see Managing tourism: China's Golden Weeks — golden for whom?).

managing tourism

CHINA'S GOLDEN WEEKS — GOLDEN FOR WHOM?

In China, the central government plays a powerful role in providing tightly structured holiday periods for its increasingly affluent population. This is especially evident in the two **Golden Weeks** established during the Chinese New Year and National Day periods to increase domestic tourism demand and stimulate consumption. The National Day Golden Week in 2009 generated 228 million tourists and 14.1 billion yuan in revenue (Pearce & Chen 2012), while the peak day of 3 October 2012 resulted in more than six million visitors to 119 centrally monitored scenic sites (Xinhua English News 2012). Many problems arise from such concentrated and intensive periods of travel — among them the transportation and accommodation systems within China being pushed far beyond their intended carrying capacity. The results have been described as a nightmare that far exceeds the worst experienced during Christmas holidays in the West. Survey results confirm that Chinese tourists cite excessive crowding and congestion as the biggest problem of the Golden Weeks, even while praising the long holiday period as a major social benefit (Pearce & Chen 2012). The Chinese government is aware of these problems and has been

pressured by calls to cancel or reconfigure the holiday structure. One option is to encourage dispersal to more destinations, which would have the added benefit of stimulating regional development by distributing tourism employment and revenues more broadly. Others have called for more international travel, although nearby Hong Kong and Macau already experience an influx similar to that of the mainland. Regional countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand are starting to compete for a share of the market, citing their warm climates, accessibility and large Chinese minorities as attractions. As Golden Week participation continues to escalate, it may be expected that Western destinations such as Australia, New Zealand, the United States and the United Kingdom will join this competitive environment, emphasising their exotic appeal as high status destinations, encouraged by a strengthening Chinese currency and the greater ease of obtaining a visa.

In effect, the role of origin governments can be likened to a safety valve that ultimately determines the energy (i.e. tourist flow) that is allowed into the system (see chapter 3). Outbound flows are also influenced by the various services that origin governments offer to residents travelling or intending to travel abroad. In addition to consular services for citizens who have experienced trouble, these services largely involve advice to potential travellers about risk factors that are present in other countries. A good illustration is Australia's Smartraveller website (www.smartraveller.gov.au) which, among other services, offers information about security risks for every foreign country.

■ TRANSIT REGION

As with origin regions, few studies have explicitly recognised the importance of the **transit region** component of the tourism system. This neglect is due in part to its status as a 'non-discretionary' space that the tourist must cross to reach the location that they really want to visit. Reinforcing this negative connotation is the sense, common among tourists, that time spent on the journey to a destination is holiday time wasted. Transit passages, moreover, are often uncomfortable, as economy-class passengers on a long-haul flight will attest. Under more positive circumstances, however, the transit region can itself be a destination of sorts as illustrated by the Changi airport example in Singapore. This illustrates what McKercher and Tang (2004) describe as stopover-focused 'transit tourism'. This may also be the case, for example, if the journey involves a drive through spectacular scenery, or if the trip affords a level of comfort, novelty and/or activity that makes the transit experience comparable to that which is sought in a final destination.

As these examples illustrate, the distinction between transit and destination regions is not always clear (as in the use of the term 'touring'), given that the tourist's itinerary within a destination region will probably include multiple transit experiences (see figure 2.2). In many instances, a location can be important both as a transit and destination region. The Queensland city of Townsville, for instance, is an important transit stop on the road from Brisbane to Cairns, but it is also in itself an important emerging destination. The transit/destination distinction is even more ambiguous in cruise ship tourism, where the actual cruise is a major component of the travel experience and a 'destination' in its own right.

Management implications of transit regions

Once the status of a place as a transit node or region is determined, specific management implications become more apparent, such as the need to identify associated impacts. For airports, this frequently involves increased congestion from stopovers

that impedes the arrival and departure of stayovers. In highway transit situations, a major impact is the development of extensive motel (*motor hotel*) strips along primary roads on the outskirts of even relatively small urban centres. A related management consideration is the extent to which the transit region can and wishes to evolve as a destination in its own right, a scenario that can be assisted by the presence of accommodation or airports.

Managers of destination regions also need to take into consideration the transit component of tourism systems when managing their own tourism sectors. Pertinent issues include whether the destination is accessible through multiple or single transit routes and which modes of transportation provide access. Destinations that are accessible by only one route and mode (e.g. an isolated island served by a single airport and a single airline) are disadvantaged by being dependent on a single tourism 'lifeline'. However, this may be offset by the advantage of having all processing of visitors consolidated at a single location. A further consideration is the extent to which a transit link is fixed (as with a highway) and can be disrupted if associated infrastructure, such as a bridge, is put out of commission by a road accident or natural disaster. In contrast to road-based travel, air journeys do not depend on infrastructure during the actual flight, and have greater scope for rerouting if a troublesome situation is encountered (e.g. a war breaking out in a fly-over country or adverse weather conditions).

Destination managers also need to consider the possibility that one or more locations along a transit route could become destinations themselves, and thus serve as **intervening opportunities** that divert visitors from the original destination. Cuba, for example, is currently little more than an incidental transit location in the United States-to-Jamaica tourism system due to the above-mentioned hostility of the US government towards the Castro regime. However, if a major change in US foreign policy led to the re-opening of Cuba to US mass tourism, then the impact upon the Jamaican tourism sector could be devastating.

Effects of technology

Technological change has dramatically affected the character of transit regions. Faster aircraft and cars have reduced the amount of time required in the transit phase, thereby increasing the size of transit regions by making long-haul travel more feasible and comfortable. New aircraft models such as the Airbus A380 and the Boeing 787 Dreamliner promise to radically reshape the transit experience for travellers as well as airports, although their introduction has not been problem-free. Not all major airports have strong or long enough runways, or properly configured gates, to accommodate the giant Airbus A380. The option of lounges and extra personal space in all classes, moreover, means that fuel savings from increased efficiency may be largely offset by lower passenger capacity. Electrical and fuel leak problems, meanwhile, have plagued the introduction of the Dreamliner (*Mail Online* 2013).

Such aircraft also no longer require as many refuelling stops on long-haul flights, resulting in further reconfigurations to transit hubs and regions. Figure 2.5 shows that a flight from Sydney or Auckland to a North American port of entry prior to the 1980s required transit stops in Fiji (Nadi airport) and Hawaii (Honolulu). By the 1980s only one stopover landing was required — Hawaii on the flight to North America and Fiji on the return journey. By the mid-1990s such flights could be undertaken without any stopovers. The overall effect has been the marginalisation of many former stopover points, a process that in some cases has had negative implications for their development as final destinations.

A similar marginalisation effect has resulted from the construction of limited access expressways in countries such as the United States, Canada and Australia. By diverting traffic from the old main highways, these expressways have forced the closure of many roadside motels that depended on travellers in transit. In the place of the traditional motel strip, clusters of large motels, usually dominated by major chains (such as Holiday Inn, Motel 6 and Comfort Inn) have emerged at strategic intersections readily accessible to the expressway. These clusters contribute to suburban sprawl by attracting affiliated services such as petrol stations and fast-food outlets.
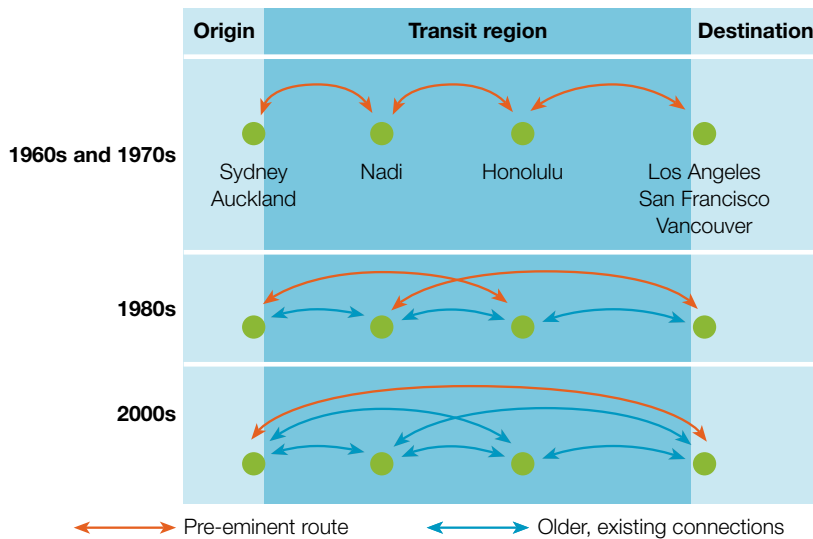
FIGURE 2.5 The evolution of the trans-Pacific travel system

In broad terms, the latter half of the twentieth century was the era in which the car and the aeroplane became pre-eminent, at the expense of the passenger ship and the passenger train (see chapter 3). Places that relied on the ship and the train, accordingly, have declined in importance as transit and destination regions (e.g. train stations and some ports), if they were unwilling or unable to compensate by developing their road or air access, or by catering to niche nostalgia-motivated markets. Contemporary concerns about climate change, however, may lead to renewed interest in ships and trains as transit carriers due to their lower greenhouse gas emissions (Becken & Hay 2012).

DESTINATION REGION

The **destination region** is the geographical component of the tourism system that has received by far the greatest scrutiny from researchers, planners and managers. During the era of the advocacy platform, this attention focused on the destination-based tourism industry. Researchers were at that time concerned largely with determining how the industry could effectively attract and satisfy a profit-generating clientele. During the period of the cautionary and adaptancy platforms, the research emphasis shifted towards the identification of host community impacts and strategies for ensuring that these were more positive than negative. More of a balance between industry and community is apparent in the present knowledge-based platform, based on a growing realisation that the interests of the two components are not mutually exclusive.

The distribution of destination regions changed dramatically during the latter half of the twentieth century, and is constantly being reconfigured, vertically as well as horizontally, through technological change and consumer interest. In the vertical reconfiguration, **space tourism** is now a reality since the American multimillionaire Dennis Tito went into space aboard a Russian Soyuz capsule in 2001 as a tourist (Reddy, Nica & Wilkes 2012). Relatively large numbers of space tourists have already signed up for or taken much less expensive 'parabolic flights' in which zero-gravity conditions are maintained briefly prior to descent (see Technology and tourism: Rocketing into space? Not so fast!). At the other end of the vertical spectrum, several underwater hotels have been proposed, though none had yet been constructed as of 2013.

technology and tourism

ROCKETING INTO SPACE? NOT SO FAST . . .

Technology often expands beyond the ability of humans to cope effectively with the impacts of its expansion, and this 'reality check' is currently being faced in the burgeoning field of space tourism. With the European Space Agency declaring 'cautious interest and informed support' for space tourism, and commercial opportunities becoming more viable, as many as 13 000 seats could become available once commercial space vehicles are operational. According to Grenon et al. (2012), tourists who take advantage of suborbital flights and other space tourism experiences face potential medical problems. For those with existing conditions, there are concerns about appropriate parameters of participation; for example, for someone with a recent knee replacement, how long should they wait before going on such a trip, and what should be the maximum time spent in a suborbital environment? Is there an optimal minimum and maximum age? The experience of astronauts and cosmonauts is not especially helpful since their screening ensures participation of only the extremely healthy and fit. Even for potential space travellers with no serious medical conditions, clinical research has revealed that such travel poses higher risks of kidney stones, heart arrhythmias, osteoporosis and muscle atrophy upon the return to earth, and even of some kinds of cancer due to increased exposure to radiation and immunosuppression (Grenon et al. 2012). Space tourists would also be vulnerable to other impacts common to air travel — for example, motion sickness, appetite loss, fatigue, insomnia, dehydration and back pain. This indicates the importance of risk management for providers as well as potential customers and healthcare practitioners. Likely outcomes include the disqualification of individuals with high-risk conditions, but also the development of medical technologies to lower these risks. A new organisation, the Center of Excellence for Commercial Space Transportation, is developing 'medical acceptance guidelines' for spaceflight participants (COE CST 2012). The ongoing articulation of such standards will be an important facilitator of future commercial and consumer entry into space tourism, thereby lowering the risks of litigation for all parties.

Change in the configuration of destination regions is the result of internal factors such as active promotional efforts and decisions to upgrade infrastructure, but also external factors associated with the broader tourism system and external environments. An example is the emergence of consumer demand for 3S (i.e. sea, sand, sun) tourism after World War II, which led to the large-scale tourism development of hitherto isolated tropical islands in the Caribbean, South Pacific and Indian Ocean (see chapter 4). Concurrently, the opening of these islands to mass tourism could not

have taken place without radical developments in aircraft technology. One implication of this external dependency, and of systems theory in general, is that destinations can effectively manage and control only a very small proportion of the forces and variables that affect their tourism sectors. Even effectively managed destinations and businesses can be severely impacted by the negative intervention of forces over which they have no control (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

Destination communities

Even under the advocacy platform, destination residents were recognised as an important component of the tourism system because of the labour they provide, and in some situations because of their status as cultural tourism attractions in their own right. However, only in rare situations when that platform was dominant was the **destination community** recognised as an influential stakeholder in its own right, on par with industry or government. The increasing recognition of host communities as such has arisen from greater awareness of at least three factors:

1 local residents usually have the most to lose or gain from tourism of any stakeholder group in the tourism system, and therefore have a strong ethical right to be empowered as decision makers

2 discontented local residents through their hostility to tourists can damage the tourism industry by fostering a negative destination image (see chapter 9)

3 local residents possess knowledge about their area that can assist the planning, management and marketing of tourism, as through interpretation of local historical and cultural attractions and the preparation of unique local foods.

For all these reasons, host communities are now often included as equal partners (at least in rhetoric) in the management of tourist destinations, and not seen as just a convenient source of labour or local colour, or a group whose interests are already represented by government.

Destination governments

If origin governments can be compared with a safety valve that releases energy into the tourism system, then the **destination government** can be likened to a safety valve that controls the amount of energy absorbed by the destination components of that system. This analogy is especially relevant at the international level, where national governments dictate the conditions under which inbound tourists are allowed entry (see chapter 4). To a greater or lesser extent, countries exert control over the number and type of tourist arrivals by requiring visas or passports from potential visitors, and by restricting the locations through which access to the country can be gained. Most countries, in principle and practice, encourage tourist arrivals because of the foreign exchange that they generate. Even Bhutan and North Korea, which traditionally discouraged inbound tourism, are becoming more receptive to the industry despite long-held respective concerns about the cultural and political risks of international tourism exposure.

In addition to this entry control function, destination governments also explicitly influence the development and management of their tourism products through support for tourism-related agencies. These include tourism ministries (either tourism by itself or as part of a multisectoral portfolio) that are concerned with overall policy and direction, and tourism boards, which focus on destination marketing. More unusual are agencies that focus on research, such as Tourism Research Australia. Many high-profile tourist destinations, such as the United States and Germany, have no federal high-level portfolio emphasising tourism. This reflects to some extent the residual negative perceptions of

tourism discussed in chapter 1, but also political systems that devolve responsibilities such as tourism to the state level. Thus, while tourism promotion in the US at the federal level is negligible, states such as Florida and Hawaii operate enormous tourism marketing entities. In Australia, well articulated federal structures are complemented by similarly sophisticated state bodies such as Tourism Queensland and Tourism Victoria.

THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The **tourism industry** (or tourism industries) may be defined as the sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption. Broad categories commonly associated with the tourism industry include accommodation, transportation, food and beverage, tour operations, travel agencies, commercial attractions and merchandising of souvenirs, duty-free products and other goods purchased mainly by tourists. These activities are discussed in chapter 5, but several preliminary observations are in order. First, the tourism industry permeates the tourism system more than any other component aside from the tourists themselves. However, as depicted in figure 2.6, segments of the industry vary considerably in their distribution within the three geographic components of tourism system. Not all spatial components of the system, moreover, accommodate an equal share of the industry. Destination regions account for most of the tourism industry, whereas origin regions are represented in significant terms only by travel agencies and some aspects of transportation and merchandising. The inclusion of industry into tourism management considerations is therefore particularly imperative at the destination level.

Categories	Origin regions	Transit regions	Destination regions
Travel agencies	■	◆	◆
Transportation	●	■	■
Accommodation	◆	■	■
Food and beverages	◆	■	■
Tour operators	●	●	■
Attractions	◆	◆	■
Merchandisers	●	◆	■
■ Major ● Minor ◆ Negligible			

FIGURE 2.6 Status of major tourism industry sectors within the tourism system

A confounding element in the above definition of the tourism industry is the extent to which various commercial goods and services are affiliated with tourism. At one extreme almost all activity associated with travel agencies and tour operators is tourism-related. Far more ambiguous is the transportation industry, much of which involves the movement of goods (some related to tourism) or commuters, migrants and other travellers who are not tourists. It proves especially difficult to isolate the tourism component in automobile-related transportation. Similar problems face the accommodation sector despite its clearer link to tourism, since many local residents purchase space at nearby hotels for wedding receptions, meetings and other functions. It is largely because of these complications that no Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) code is likely to be allocated to tourism (see figure 1.2).

CHAPTER REVIEW

The complexities of tourism can be organised for analytical and management purposes through a systems perspective. A basic whole systems approach to tourism incorporates several interdependent components, including origin, transit and destination regions, the tourists themselves and the tourism industry. This system, in turn, is influenced by and influences various physical, political, social and other external environments. The challenge of managing a destination is compounded by this complexity. The tourist component of the system is defined by spatial, temporal and purposive parameters, and these lead to the identification of four major tourist types: international and domestic stayovers, and international and domestic excursionists. Recreation and leisure are the single most important purposes for tourism travel, followed more or less equally by visits to friends and relatives, and business. There are also many qualifying minor purposes including education, sport, health and pilgrimage. Despite such definitional clarifications, serious problems are still encountered when defining tourists and collecting tourist-related data, especially at the domestic level. In terms of the geography of tourism systems, origin and transit regions are vital, but neglected, components of the tourism system in terms of the research that has been conducted. Much greater attention has been focused on the destination region and the tourism industry. Important preliminary observations with regard to the latter include its concentration within the destination region, and the difficulty in isolating the tourism component in many related industries such as transportation.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Basic whole tourism system an application of a systems approach to tourism, wherein tourism is seen as consisting of three geographical components (origin, transit and destination regions), tourists and a tourism industry, embedded within a modifying external environment that includes parallel political, social, physical and other systems

Destination community the residents of the destination region

Destination government the government of the destination region

Destination region the places to which the tourist is travelling

Domestic excursionists tourists who stay within their own country for less than one night

Domestic stayovers tourists who stay within their own country for at least one night

Domestic tourist a tourist whose itinerary is confined to their usual country of residence

Excursionist a tourist who spends less than one night in a destination region

Golden Weeks two one-week periods of annual holiday in China, focused around Chinese New Year and National Day, and characterised by extremely intensive domestic travel

Inbound tourists international tourists arriving from another country

International excursionists tourists who stay less than one night in another country

International stayovers tourists who stay at least one night in another country

International tourist a tourist who travels beyond their usual country of residence

Intervening opportunities places, often within transit regions, that develop as tourist destinations in their own right and subsequently have the potential to divert tourists from previously patronised destinations

Long-haul tourists variably defined as tourists taking trips outside of the world region where they reside, or beyond a given number of flying time hours

Medical tourism travel for the purpose of obtaining medical treatment that is unavailable or too expensive in the participant's region of origin

MICE an acronym combining meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions; a form of tourism largely associated with business purposes

Multipurpose travel travel undertaken for more than a single purpose

Origin community the residents of the origin region

Origin government the government of the origin region

Origin region the region (e.g. country, state, city) from which the tourist originates, also referred to as the market or generating region

Outbound tourists international tourists departing from their usual country of residence

Resilience a system's capacity to maintain and adjust its essential structure and functions in the face of a disturbance, especially with regard to major natural and human-induced disasters; its particular relevance to tourism derives from the industry's presence in vulnerable settings such as coastlines and mountains

Secular pilgrimage travel for spiritual purposes that are not linked to conventional religions

Short-haul tourists variably defined as tourists taking trips within the world region where they reside, or within a given number of flying time hours

Space tourism an emerging form of tourism that involves travel by and confinement within aircraft or spacecraft to high altitude locations where suborbital effects such as zero-gravity or earth curvature viewing can be experienced

Stayover a tourist who spends at least one night in a destination region

Stopovers travellers who stop in a location in transit to another destination; they normally do not clear customs and are not considered tourists from the transit location's perspective

System a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting elements that together form a single functional structure

Tourism industry the sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption

Transit region the places and regions that tourists pass through as they travel from origin to destination region

Travel purpose the reason why people travel; in tourism, these involve recreation and leisure, visits to friends and relatives (VFR), business, and less dominant purposes such as study, sport, religion and health

VFR tourism tourism based on visits to friends and relatives

■ QUESTIONS

1 (a) Why and how in practical terms is a systems approach useful in managing the tourism sector?

(b) How does this approach complement the knowledge-based platform?

2 (a) What are the main external natural and cultural environments that interact with the tourism system?

(b) What can destination managers do to minimise the negative impacts of these systems?

3 How could the breaking of the one billion threshold for international stayovers be leveraged by the global tourism industry to increase public and government awareness?

4 (a) Why is it important to make formal distinctions between the 'tourist' and other types of traveller?
   (b) What associated problems may be encountered when attempting to determine whether a particular traveller is a tourist or not?
5 (a) Why are domestic tourists relatively neglected by researchers and government in comparison to international tourists?
   (b) What can be done to reverse this neglect?
6 (a) To what extent are the three main travel purposes discretionary in nature?
   (b) What implications does this have for the management and marketing of a destination?
7 (a) How are origin regions influenced by returning outbound tourists?
   (b) How can origin regions reduce the negative impacts of returning outbound tourists?
8 Why is it important for destination managers to have a good understanding of the transit regions that convey tourists to their businesses and attractions?
9 What would be a realistic assessment of the potential market for a space tourism experience in the year 2020?

■ EXERCISES

1 Write a 1000-word report in which you:
   (a) describe the extent to which Singapore functions simultaneously as an origin region, transit region and destination region, and
   (b) discuss the potential synergies and conflicts that emerge from each of the three region combinations (e.g. origin/transit, origin/destination, transit/destination).
2 (a) Have each class member define their most recent experience as a tourist, in terms of which of the four categories in figure 2.3 it falls under, and also which purpose or purposes as outlined in 'Travel purpose' section.
   (b) Describe the overall patterns that emerge from this exercise.
   (c) Identify any difficulties that emerged in defining each of these tourist experiences.

■ FURTHER READING

Connell, J. 2013. 'Contemporary Medical Tourism: Conceptualisation, Culture and Commodification'. *Tourism Management* **34: 1–13.** An overview of medical tourism is provided, including issues of definition, motivations and magnitude.

Dowling, R. (Ed.) 2006. *Cruise Ship Tourism.* **Wallingford, UK: CABI.** This compilation of 38 chapters provides the most thorough academic investigation of the cruise ship industry to date, with sections devoted to demand and marketing, destinations and products, industry issues, and impacts.

Duval, D. 2007. *Tourism and Transport: Modes, Networks and Flows.* **Clevedon, UK: Channel View.** Duval's book provides an extensive and useful examination of the transportation and transit components of tourism systems.

Raj, R. & Morpeth, N. (Eds) 2007. *Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage Festivals Management.* **Wallingford, UK: CABI.** International case studies representing major world religions are featured in this compilation, which considers the management implications and issues associated with pilgrimages and other forms of religion-based tourism.

Reddy, M., Nica, M. & Wilkes, K. 2012. 'Space Tourism: Research Recommendations for the Future of the Industry and Perspectives of Potential Participants'. *Tourism Management* 33: 1093–102. This is the first paper to reflect on the overall structure, frameworks and issues associated with the emergent area of space tourism, and to propose a research agenda.

case study

POST-TSUNAMI ENTERPRISE RESILIENCE IN PHUKET, THAILAND

Tourism systems at the destination scale can be severely damaged by unexpected natural or human-induced disasters. Hence, as tourism spreads to ever more

places where such incidences are more common, resilience to their impacts will be an increasingly important consideration in destination planning and management. Originating in the ecological sciences, the concept of resilience can be defined as 'the ability of a system to maintain and adapt its essential structure and function in the face of disturbance while maintaining its identity' (Biggs, Hall & Stoeckl 2012, p. 646). Very few researchers have attempted to analyse tourism systems within a resilience framework, perhaps because of the exceptional complexity that arises from the interaction of numerous natural and social systems.

One of the few empirical attempts to investigate resilience in tourism systems is Biggs, Hall and Stoeckl (2012) who applied it specifically to businesses operating on the coral reefs off the iconic Thai resort island of Phuket. They wanted to know how these businesses responded to the 2004 tsunami that caused huge damage to Thailand's Indian Ocean coastline in the aftermath of a major earthquake off nearby Sumatra, Indonesia (Cohen 2008). In Phuket, international tourist arrivals dropped by two-thirds in the six months of 2005 that followed the tsunami (Henderson 2007). The researchers were interested in contextualising the idea of social resilience within a type of tourism that relies heavily on coral reefs, an ecosystem that is especially vulnerable to short-term (e.g. tsunami) or long-term (e.g. seawater warming) disturbances. These businesses operate boats that transport and service individuals who want to dive or otherwise interact with reefs. A resilient reef tourism enterprise is therefore one that 'is able to maintain or grow its existing level of employment and income and stay operating in reef tourism in the face of one or more shocks or crises' (p. 647). Of 85 reef businesses on Phuket at the time of the 2004 tsunami, seven were permanently shut down and 16 were drastically downsized (Main & Dearden 2007).

An innovative aspect of this research was the comparison between formal and informal businesses. Unlike their formal counterparts, informal businesses tend to be small, family owned, relatively easy to move in and out of the market, labour (as opposed to capital) intensive, and relatively free from formal regulation and taxation. They constitute a major part of industry in most developing countries,

though this is difficult to quantify because of their unofficial nature. The sampled 46 formal businesses in Phuket had an average of 17.4 employees, operated 4.36 boats and accommodated 36.4 customers per day, whereas the 57 informal ones studied had 2 employees, 1.13 boats and served 8.5 customers daily (pp. 653–4). All the informal businesses were entirely Thai owned and operated, compared with only 39 per cent of the formal businesses. When asked to identify their primary response to the tsunami, 54 per cent of the latter cited cost-cutting, while 15 per cent strengthened their marketing, and 13 per cent downsized or closed temporarily. The informal businesses, by contrast, responded by downsizing or temporarily closing (39 per cent), relying temporarily on an alternative job for subsistence livelihood (30 per cent), and obtaining additional funding support through the government, including loans (17 per cent) (p. 654). Participants were also asked to name the most important factor for surviving the tsunami. For the formal businesses, these factors included commitment and hard work to maintain the business (32 per cent), availability of past savings (12 per cent) and capacity to cut costs (12 per cent). For their informal counterparts, it was also dominantly the commitment factor (58 per cent), but also government or NGO support (13 per cent) and ability to rely on a second 'back-up' livelihood (10 per cent) (p. 654).

The results inform a discussion of the relative merits of formal and informal status for facilitating resilience in the face of major disturbances. The evidence in this case favours the informal businesses. One major advantage is their ability to move in and out of the market with relative ease, there being no paperwork to fill out, hardly any employees to lay off, and almost no capital to lie dormant that would incur fixed costs such as loan repayments or electricity bills. Second, alternative livelihoods such as a small farm in one's home village provide a temporary 'safe haven' to survive until circumstances improve in the reef tourism business. Unlike the formal businesses, which were characterised by a high level of foreign ownership and management, moving in and out of these alternatives is made easier in the informal sector by robust social capital (e.g. networks of family, friends and other contacts) underscored by the solidly Thai structure of ownership. Third, perceptions of a supportive government may owe to the fact that even a small loan can make a big difference to a small company. Accordingly, it is not surprising that the owners of informal businesses were more optimistic about the future, had more intrinsic motivations from their work, and had more perceived resilience. The formal owners, in contrast, felt that life was getting harder and more bureaucratic. One big disadvantage for the informal businesses was the lack of international marketing connections and the subsequent need to rely on walk-in tourists, decreased in number due to negative media coverage (the tsunami is far more newsworthy than the gradual recovery).

The recommendations of these findings were for easier exit from and entrance to reef tourism to facilitate temporary movement in and out of the system during times of disaster, even for formal businesses. Complementary livelihoods were also encouraged, and more aid in general from government to be provided in crisis circumstances. Stronger destination-level marketing was recommended to increase walk-in traffic by increasing the number of tourists who travel to Phuket. Additional strategies, arguably, are necessary to cope with disturbances that are longer term and more subtle, such as climate change and acidification associated with increased greenhouse gas emissions. Ironically, it is the weakening caused by such forces that makes coral less resilient in the face of tsunamis, cyclones

and other natural disasters (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2007). Given the importance of coral to tourism in such destinations as Thailand, Queensland and Bali, interventions in external systems will be necessary to reduce localised stress from overfishing and excessive nutrient-rich agricultural run-off.

QUESTIONS

1 It is likely that future tsunamis will impact Phuket. Therefore:
   (a) suggest five strategies that could be pursued by the local tourism industry, both formal and informal, to maximise the resilience of the local tourism system in order to reduce the damage from such events.
   (b) assess the advantages and disadvantages of each of these strategies.
   (c) based on (b), identify two of the strategies that should be given priority in the local tourism long-term plan and explain why these are more important.

2 Imagine that the coral reefs of Australia have been destroyed by an unprecedented increase in seawater temperature. Write a 1000-word report that considers how this destruction would alter the Australian tourism system, taking into account the inbound, outbound and domestic components of that system.

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3

The evolution and growth of tourism

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 describe the main characteristics and types of premodern tourism

2 explain the basic distinctions and similarities between premodern and modern tourism

3 identify the role of Thomas Cook and the Industrial Revolution in facilitating the modern era of tourism

4 outline the growth trend of international tourism arrivals since 1950

5 discuss the primary factors that have stimulated the historical and contemporary demand for tourism

6 associate evolving patterns of tourism demand with different stages of economic development

7 identify the social, demographic, technological and political forces that also influence tourism demand.

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter considered tourism from a systems approach and described the spatial, temporal and purposive criteria that distinguish international and domestic tourists from other travellers and from each other. Management-related observations were also made about the origin, transit and destination components of the tourism system. Chapter 3 focuses on the historical development of tourism and describes the 'push' factors that have stimulated the demand for tourism, especially since the mid-twentieth century.

The following section outlines **premodern tourism**, which is defined for the purposes of this textbook as the period prior to approximately AD 1500 (figure 3.1). Its purpose is to show that while premodern tourism had its own distinctive character, there are also many similarities with modern tourism. Recognition of these timeless impulses and characteristics is valuable to the tourism manager, as they are factors that must be taken into consideration in any contemporary or future situation involving tourism. Moreover, modern tourism would not have been possible without the precedents of Mesopotamia, the Nile and Indus valleys, China, ancient Greece and Rome, the Dark Ages and the Middle Ages. The 'Early modern tourism (1500–1950)' section considers the early modern era, which links the premodern to the contemporary period through the influence of the Renaissance and the Industrial Revolution. The 'Contemporary tourism (1950 onwards)' section introduces contemporary mass tourism, while the section that follows describes the major economic, social, demographic, technological and political factors that have stimulated the demand for tourism during this era. Australian tourism participation trends are then considered briefly, as well as the future growth prospects of global tourism based on the factors discussed in this chapter.

PREMODERN TOURISM	MODERN TOURISM	
	Early modern tourism	Contemporary tourism
c. BC 3000	AD 1500 AD 1950	21st century

(axis not to scale)
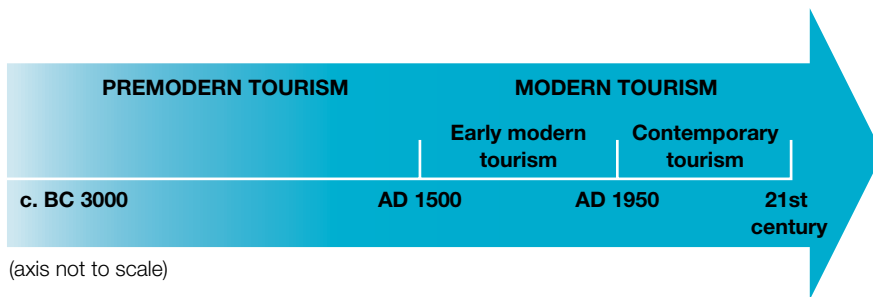
FIGURE 3.1 Tourism timelines

PREMODERN TOURISM
Mesopotamia, Egypt and the Indus Valley

Mesopotamia, or the 'land between the rivers' (situated approximately in modern-day Iraq), is known as the 'Cradle of Civilisation' and perhaps the first place to experience tourism. The factors that gave rise to civilisation, and hence to emergent tourism systems, include the availability of a permanent water supply (the Tigris and Euphrates rivers), rich alluvial soils (deposited during the annual flooding of these waterways), a warm climate and a central location between Asia, Africa and Europe, all of which contributed to the development of agriculture. Hunting and gathering societies were replaced by permanent settlements cultivating the same plots of land year after year.

Surplus food production was a critical outcome of this process, as it fostered the formation of wealth and the emergence of a small **leisure class** of priests, warriors and others that did not have to worry continually about its day-to-day survival.

The availability of sufficient **discretionary time** and **discretionary income** was the most important factor that enabled members of this leisured elite to engage in tourism. Moreover, Mesopotamia was the birthplace of many fundamental inventions and innovations that heralded both the demand and ability to travel for tourism-related purposes. These included the wheel, the wagon, money, the alphabet, domesticated animals such as the horse, and roads. Early cities (another Mesopotamian creation) such as Ur and Nippur were apparently overcrowded and uncomfortable at the best of times, and tourism allowed the elite to escape them whenever possible. Also critical was the imposition of government structure and civil order over the surrounding countryside, which provided a foundation for the development of destination and transit regions (Casson 1994).

Egypt

Mesopotamian civilisation gradually spread to the Nile Valley (in modern-day Egypt) and eastward to the Indus Valley (in modern-day Pakistan), where similar physical environments and factors enabled additional tourism travel. Ancient Egypt provides some of the earliest and most enduring evidence of pleasure tourism. An inscription, carved into the side of one of the lesser known pyramids and dated 1244 BC, is among the earliest examples of tourist graffiti (Casson 1994) and such sites remain foundational to Egypt's contemporary tourism industry (see Managing tourism: Are Egypt's pyramids forever?).

managing tourism

ARE EGYPT'S PYRAMIDS FOREVER?

Survival of some of the world's oldest and continuously visited tourist attractions is threatened by the realities of contemporary tourism development and the external systems that support and affect this development. The pyramid complex of the Giza Plateau is one of the most culturally significant and recognisable heritage places in the world, and an iconic pillar of the Egyptian tourism industry. High levels of visitation, however, are having negative direct and indirect effects on these antiquities. Most directly relevant has been the deterioration of interior pyramid sites through exposure to chemicals in the sweat and breath of tourists. In many cases, this has required closures and expensive restoration efforts. Indirect tourism effects include the development of adjacent squatter settlements housing tourism workers and their families, which contribute to air pollution that causes chemical decomposition of exteriors (especially of the Sphinx), rising and heavily contaminated ground water that threatens the foundations of major structures, and aesthetic intrusions on the grandeur of the complex (Shetawy & El Khateeb 2009). Proposed strategies to cope with tourism-related stresses have included a ring-road around the plateau to limit direct exposure to vehicles and their emissions, the banning of horses and camels within the core pyramid area, and the construction of visitor centres and picnic areas to divert visitors and locals away from that core. A much bigger issue, however, is relentless

urban sprawl from the adjacent city of Cairo, home to over 15 million residents in 2014. The air pollution, industrial development and water contamination associated with this sprawl threatens to overwhelm the plateau regardless of the measures taken to control tourism (Vaz, Caetano & Nijkamp 2011). That no comprehensive management plan has yet been implemented is partly explained by the ongoing Arab Spring revolution, which has focused attention on the national political situation. Ironically, it has also reduced stress from tourism due to decreased visitor numbers.

China

Impulses of civilisation emerged in China around the same time as they did in Mesopotamia. Whether this was coincidental or influenced by the latter region is unclear. Regardless, it is known that tourism-related travel was well established by 2000 BC and that four distinct groups were dominant throughout the premodern era (Guo, Turner & King 2002). The first group consisted of royalty, their security and their entourages. One reason for travel was to demonstrate government authority and learn more about conditions in different parts of the empire. Another reason was to shift the seat of the royal residence between cooler summer and warmer winter locations. Given the massive number of individuals involved in such transfers, the royal residences became **resorts** of a sort and centres for leisure pursuits such as hunting and horseback riding. The second group involved scholars, students and artists, reflecting a long Chinese Confucian tradition of respect for education, learning and self-improvement. Various scenic and inspiring locations in the mountains and elsewhere became popular destinations, and the writings, poems and paintings produced by visitors may be seen as an early form of travel literature and destination promotion. Buddhist pilgrims and monks comprised a third major group, and their travel to numerous sacred sites within China was complemented by travel to Buddhist sites in India — some of the earliest indications of outbound tourism. Finally, premodern China was characterised by extensive business travel by traders, though the links here to tourism *per se* are perhaps more tenuous.

The sophisticated civilisation of premodern China was a great facilitator of tourism activity, although there were also extensive periods of instability that dissuaded travel. As early as fifth century BC, the Grand Canal accommodated travel between north and south China for all four groups, while the Silk Road network of routes connected China with Persia, India and the Middle East. During the Tang Dynasty (c. AD 600–900), China was arguably the centre of world tourism. The capital city of Xi'an had a population of at least two million (Terrill 2003) and at any time hosted a large population of foreign students and other visitors.

Ancient Greece and Rome

Tourism in ancient Greece is mostly associated with national festivals such as the **Olympic Games**, where residents of the Greek city–states gathered every four years to hold religious ceremonies and compete in athletic events and artistic performances. The participants and spectators at this festival, estimated to number in the tens of thousands, would have had little difficulty in meeting the modern criteria for international stayovers. Accordingly, the game site at Olympia can be considered as one of the oldest specialised, though periodic, tourist resorts, and one that like the Egyptian pyramids still attracts the attention of tourists (see Technology and tourism: New ways to see old Olympia). The Games themselves are one of the first recorded examples of sport and event tourism and the precursor to the modern Olympics (Toohey & Veal 2007).

The transit process in ancient Greece was not pleasant or easy. Although a sacred truce was called during the major festivals, tourists were often targeted by highway robbers or pirates, depending on their mode of travel. Roads were primitive and accommodation, if available, was rudimentary, unsanitary and often dangerous. It is useful to point out that the word 'travel' is derived from the French noun *travail*, which translates into English as 'hard work'. As with the Mesopotamians, Egyptians and Chinese, the proportion of ancient Greeks who could and did travel as tourists was effectively restricted to a small elite. However, the propensity to engage in tourism was socially sanctioned by the prevalent philosophy of the culture (applicable at least to the elite), who valued leisure time for its own sake as an opportunity to engage in artistic, intellectual and athletic pursuits (Lynch & Veal 2006).

technology and tourism

NEW WAYS TO SEE OLD OLYMPIA

The site of the ancient Olympic Games in Greece remains an enduring cultural icon of the Western world despite consisting only of ruins. Numerous tourists continue to visit the site, but people now have the opportunity to better appreciate the original qualities of Olympia through the use of **virtual reality (VR)** technology. In Athens, several immersive VR exhibits have been developed for visitors to the Foundation of the Hellenic World (www.fhw.gr/fhw/), an institute dedicated to preserving and disseminating ancient Greek history and culture. Applications of new information technologies are central to its mission. One of the exhibits in the Foundation's Cultural Centre is *A Walk through Ancient Olympia*, which depicts the site as historians believe it to have appeared at the end of the second century BC. Featured attractions include the Temple of Zeus, the stadium and various ancient rituals. This and other productions can be viewed in several venues including the Tholos, which is a VR theatre that resembles a planetarium and accommodates 130 viewers. Special glasses are worn to create a 3D effect, which is amplified by wrap-around screens, and a sole viewer can navigate the virtual site via hand controllers. The main advantage of VR is the opportunity to experience the semblance of an original site that no longer exists. In some venues, viewers can create their own individualised tours, while researchers can enhance the authenticity of these tours by using VR simulators to test theories such as whether a certain ruined structure originally supported a particular kind of roof. Some argue that VR experiences provide a surrogate for an actual site visit, thereby reducing environmental impacts from excessive visitation. Others, however, suggest that high-quality VR exposure might inspire viewers to visit the site to obtain another perspective, thereby increasing the environmental stress (Guttentag 2010).

Rome

With its impressive technological, economic and political achievements, ancient Rome (which peaked between 200 BC and AD 200) was able to sustain unprecedented levels of tourism activity that would not be reached again for another 1500 years. An underlying factor was the large population of the Roman Empire. While the elite class was only a fraction of the 200 million-strong population, it constituted a

large absolute number of potential tourists. These travellers had a large selection of destination choices, given the size of the Empire, the high level of stability and safety achieved during the *Pax Romana* (Roman Peace) of its peak period, and the remarkably sophisticated network of Roman military roads (many of which are still used today) and associated rest stops. By AD 100 the Roman road network extended over 80 000 kilometres (Casson 1994).

The Roman tourism experience is surprisingly modern in its resonance. Fuelled by ample discretionary time and wealth, the propensity of the Roman elite to travel on pleasure holidays gave rise to an 'industry' of sorts that supplied souvenirs, guidebooks, transport, guides and accommodation. The number of specialised tourism sites and destinations also increased substantially. Famous Roman resorts included the town of Pompeii (destroyed by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in AD 79), the spas of the appropriately named town of Bath (in Britain), and the beach resort of Tiberius, on the Sea of Galilee. Second homes, or *villas*, were an important mode of retreat in the rural hinterlands of Rome and other major cities. Wealthy Romans often owned villas in a seaside location as well as the interior, to escape the winter cold and summer heat, respectively, of the cities. Villas were clustered thickly around the Bay of Naples during the first century AD, and those Romans wealthy enough to travel a long distance were especially attracted to the historical sites of the Greeks, Trojans and Egyptians.

The Dark Ages and Middle Ages

The decline and collapse of the Roman Empire during the fifth century AD severely eroded the factors that facilitated the development of tourism during the Roman era. Travel infrastructure deteriorated, the size of the elite classes and urban areas declined dramatically, and the relatively safe and open Europe of the Romans was replaced by a proliferation of warring semi-states and lawless frontiers as barbarian tribes occupied what was left of the Roman Empire. Justifiably, this period (c. 500–1100) is commonly referred to as the **Dark Ages**. The insularity to which Europe descended during this period is evident in contemporary world maps that feature wildly distorted cartographic images dominated by theological themes (e.g. Jerusalem at the centre of the map) and oversized town views that reveal no practical information for the would-be traveller. Travel was no doubt dissuaded by the grotesque creatures that were believed to inhabit remote regions (see figure 3.2).

The social, economic and political situation in Europe recovered sufficiently by the end of the eleventh century that historians distinguish the emergence of the **Middle Ages** around this time (c. 1100–1500). Associated tourism phenomena include the Christian **pilgrimage**, stimulated by the construction of the great cathedrals and the consolidation of the Roman Catholic Church as a dominant power base and social influence in Europe. The pilgrimages of the Middle Ages (popularised in the writings of English author Geoffrey Chaucer) are interesting to tourism researchers for several reasons:

FIGURE 3.2 Popular medieval monsters

- Even the poorest people were participants, motivated as they were by the perceived spiritual benefits of the experience.

- Because of these perceived spiritual benefits, many pilgrims were willing to accept (and even welcomed) a high level of risk and suffering.
- At the same time, the opportunity to go on a pilgrimage was welcomed by many for the break it provided from the drudgery of daily life.

Another major form of travel, the **Crusades** (1095–1291), also contributed to the development of the premodern travel industry, even though the Crusaders themselves were not tourists, but soldiers who wanted to free the Holy Land from Muslim control. Religiously inspired like the pilgrims, the Crusaders unwittingly exposed Europe once again to the outside world, while occasionally engaging in tourist-like behaviour (e.g. souvenir collecting, sightseeing) during their journeys.

EARLY MODERN TOURISM (1500–1950)

Europe began to emerge from the Middle Ages in the late 1300s, assisted by the experience of the Crusades and later by the impact of the great explorations. By 1500 the **Renaissance** (literally, the 'rebirth') of Europe was well under way, and the world balance of power was beginning to shift to that continent, marking the modern era and the period of **early modern tourism**. Ironically, tourism in China after 1500 experienced a five-century period of decline as Ming Dynasty and successive rulers became more China-focused and xenophobic.

The Grand Tour

The **Grand Tour** is a major link between the Middle Ages and contemporary tourism. The term describes the extended travel of young men from the aristocratic classes of the United Kingdom and other parts of northern Europe to 'classical' Europe for educational and cultural purposes (Towner 1996). A prevailing 'culture of travel' encouraged such journeys and spawned a distinctive literature as the literate young participants usually kept diaries of their experiences. It is therefore possible to reconstruct this era in detail. We know, for example, that the classical Grand Tours first became popular during the mid-sixteenth century, and persisted (with modification) until the mid-nineteenth century (Withey 1997).

While there was no single circuit or timeframe that defined the Grand Tour, certain destinations feature prominently in written accounts. Paris was usually the first major destination of the *Tour*ists (authors' italics), followed by a year or more of visits to major Italian cities such as Florence, Rome, Naples and Venice (Towner 1996). Though the political and economic power of the Italian peninsula was in decline by the early 1600s, these centres were still admired for their Renaissance and Roman attractions, which continued to set the cultural standards for Europe. A visit to these cultural centres was vital for anyone aspiring to join the ranks of the elite in their home countries. The journey back to northern Europe usually took the traveller across the Swiss Alps, through Germany and into the Low Countries (Flanders, The Netherlands) where the Renaissance flowered during the mid-1600s.

According to Towner (1996) about 15 000–20 000 members of the British elite were abroad on the Grand Tour at any time during the mid-1700s. Wealthier participants might be accompanied by an entourage of servants, guides, tutors and other retainers. Towards the end of the era, the emphasis in the Grand Tour shifted from the aristocracy to the more affluent middle classes, resulting in a shorter stay within fewer destinations. Other destinations, such as Germany and the Alps, also became more

popular. The classes from which the Grand Tour participants were drawn accounted for between 7 and 9 per cent of the United Kingdom's population in the eighteenth century.

Motives also shifted throughout this era. The initial emphasis on education, designed to confer the traveller with full membership into the aristocratic power structure and to make important social connections on the continent, gradually gave way to more stress on simple sightseeing, suggesting continuity between the classical Grand Tour and the backpacker of the modern era. Whether as an educational or sight-seeing phenomenon, however, the Grand Tour had a profound impact on the United Kingdom, as cultural and social trends there were largely shaped by the ideas and goods brought back by the Grand Tourists. These impacts were also felt at least economically in the destination regions through the appearance of the souvenir trade and tour guiding within major destination cities. Further indication of tourism's timeless tendency to foster business opportunity was the first appearance in the 1820s of the practical travel guide, directed toward would-be Grand Tourists (Withey 1997).

Spa resorts

The use of hot water springs for therapeutic purposes, and hence medical tourism, dates back at least to the ancient Greeks and Romans (e.g. the spas at Bath in the United Kingdom) (Casson 1994). Established in the Middle Ages by the Ottoman Empire within its European possessions, several hundred inland **spas** served wealthy visitors in continental Europe and the United Kingdom by the middle of the nineteenth century. Many, however, were small and did not survive as destinations. Others, such as Karlsbad (in the modern-day Czech Republic), Vichy (in France) and Baden-Baden (in Germany), were extensive and are still functioning as spas (Towner 1996). The availability of accessible and suitable water was the most important factor in influencing the establishment, character and size of spas, though proximity to transportation, urban areas and related amenities and services were also influential. In contemporary times, larger hotels are increasingly likely to offer spa-type facilities as a form of product diversification that provides a lucrative supplementary revenue stream (Mandelbaum & Lerner 2008).

Seaside resorts

By the early 1800s tourism opportunities were becoming more accessible to the lower classes of the United Kingdom and parts of western Europe. This was a result of the **Industrial Revolution**, which transformed the region (beginning in England during the mid-1700s) from an agrarian society to one that was dominantly urban and industrial. Crowded cities and harsh working conditions created a demand for recreational opportunities that would take the workers, at least temporarily, into more pleasant and relaxing environments. Domestic **seaside resorts** emerged in England to fulfil this demand, facilitated by the location of all large population centres within 160 kilometres of the English coast. Interestingly, many seaside resorts began as small and exclusive communities that catered, like the inland spas, only to the upper classes.

A stimulus for travelling to the coast was the belief, gaining in popularity by the mid-eighteenth century, that sea bathing, combined with the drinking of sea water, was an effective treatment for certain illnesses. The early seaside resorts therefore demonstrate continuity between the classic spa era described earlier and modern hedonistic mass tourism at beach locations. Seaside resorts such as Brighton and Scarborough

soon rivalled inland spa towns such as Bath as tourist attractions, with the added advantage that the target resource (sea water) was effectively unlimited, and the opportunities for spatial expansion along the coast were numerous.

A primary factor that made the seaside resorts accessible to the working classes was the construction of railways connecting these settlements to nearby large industrial cities. During the 1830s and 1840s, this had the effect of transforming small English coastal towns into sizeable urban areas, illustrating how changes in a transit region can produce fundamental change in a destination region. As the Industrial Revolution spread to the European mainland and overseas to North America and Australia, the same demands were created and the same processes repeated. The well-known American seaside resort of Atlantic City traces its origins as a working-class seaside resort to the construction of a rail link with Philadelphia in the 1850s, and subsequent expansion to the novelty effect of impressively large and comfortable hotel facilities (Stansfield 2005). In Australia, seaside resorts such as Manly, Glenelg and St Kilda were established in the late nineteenth century to serve, respectively, the growing urban areas of Sydney, Adelaide and Melbourne.

The progression of the Industrial Revolution in England and Wales coincided with the diffusion of seaside resorts to meet the growing demand for coastal holidays. Figure 3.3 depicts their expansion from seven in 1750 to about 145 by 1911, at which time most sections of the coastline had at least one resort (Towner 1996). This pattern of diffusion, like the growth of individual resorts, was largely a haphazard process unassisted by any formal management or planning considerations. Many British seaside resorts today, in part because of this poorly regulated pattern of expansion, are stagnant or declining destinations that need to innovate in order to revitalise their tourism product (see chapter 10).
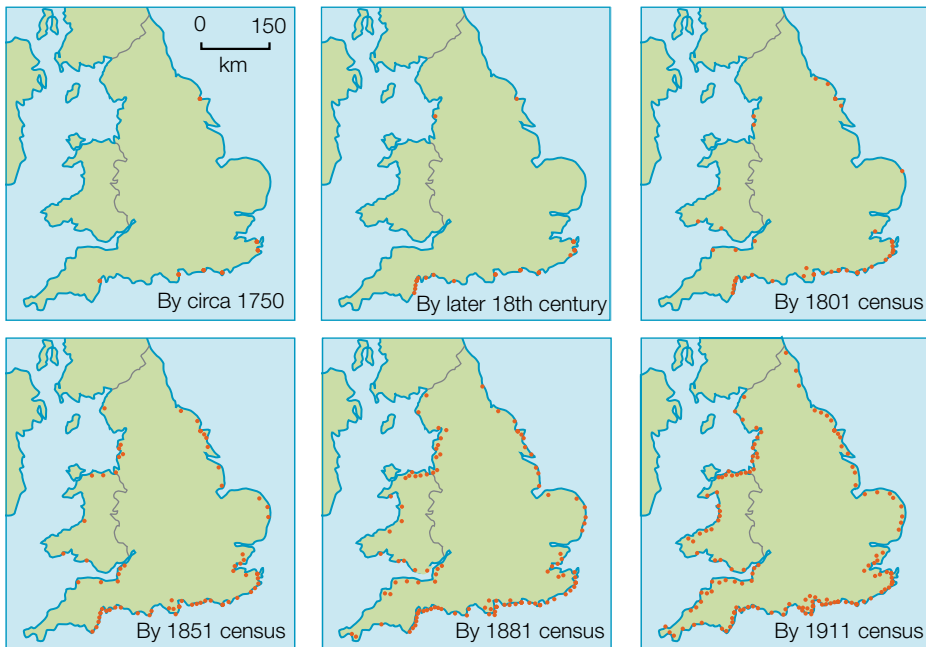
FIGURE 3.3 Pattern of seaside resort diffusion in England and Wales, 1750–1911

Thomas Cook

Along with several contemporaries from the mainland of Europe, **Thomas Cook** is associated with the emergence of tourism as a modern, large-scale industry, even though it would take another 150 years for mass tourism to be realised on a global scale. As a Baptist preacher concerned with the 'declining morals' of the English working class, Cook conceived the idea of chartering trains at cheap fares to take workers to temperance (i.e. anti-alcohol) meetings and bible camps in the countryside. The first of these excursions, provided as a day trip from Leicester to Loughborough on 5 July 1841, is sometimes described as the symbolic beginning of the contemporary era of tourism. Gradually, these excursions expanded in the number of participants and the variety of destinations offered. At the same time, the reasons for taking excursions shifted rapidly from spiritual purposes to sightseeing and pleasure. By 1845 Cook (who had by then formed the famous travel business Thomas Cook & Son) was offering regular tours between Leicester and London. In 1863 the first international excursion was undertaken (to the Swiss Alps), and in 1872 the first round-the-world excursion was organised with an itinerary that included Australia and New Zealand. The Cook excursions can be considered the beginning of international tourism in the latter two countries, although such trips remained the prerogative of the wealthy. By the late 1870s, Thomas Cook & Son operated 60 offices throughout the world (Withey 1997).

Arrangements for the Great Exhibition of 1851, held in London, illustrate the innovations that Thomas Cook & Son introduced into the tourism sector. The 160 000 clients who purchased his company's services (accounting for 3 per cent of all visitors to the Exhibition) were provided with:

- an inclusive, prepaid, one-fee structure that covered transportation, accommodation, guides, food and other goods and services
- organised itineraries based on rigid time schedules
- uniform products of high quality
- affordable prices, made possible by the economies of scale created through large customer volumes.

The genius of Thomas Cook & Son, essentially, was to apply the production principles and techniques of the Industrial Revolution to tourism. Standardised, precisely timed, commercialised and high-volume tour packages heralded the 'industrialisation' of the sector and the reduction of many of its inherent risks. Thus, while the development of the seaside resorts was a mainly unplanned phenomenon, Thomas Cook can be described as an effective entrepreneurial pioneer of the industry who fostered and accommodated the *demand* for these and other tourism products. The actual connection between supply and demand, however, was only made possible by communication and transportation innovations of the Industrial Revolution such as the railway, the steamship and the telegraph, which the entrepreneur Cook used to his advantage. As a result of such innovative applications, Thomas Cook & Son exposed an unprecedented pool of potential travellers (i.e. an increased *demand*) to an unprecedented number of destinations (i.e. an increased *supply*). Today, the **package tour** is still one of the fundamental, taken-for-granted symbols of the contemporary large-scale tourism industry.

The post-Cook period (1880–1950)

Due to the widespread adaptation of Industrial Revolution technologies and principles to the travel industry, tourism expanded significantly from the 1870s onwards. Much of this growth was initially concentrated in the domestic sector of the more industrialised regions such as the United States, western Europe and Australia. The American

west, for example, experienced a period of rapid tourism growth associated first with the closing of the frontier in the 1890s and then with the increase in car ownership (Gunn 2004). Domestic tourism also flourished in the United Kingdom, and by 1911 it was estimated that 55 per cent of the English population were making day excursions to the seaside, while 20 per cent travelled there as stayovers (Burton 1995).

International tourism growth in the **post-Cook period** of the early modern era was less robust than in the domestic tourism sector. This was due in part to outbound travel for the middle and working classes only being feasible where countries shared an accessible common border, as between Canada and the United States, and between France and Belgium. Switzerland, for example, which shared frontiers with several major countries, received about one million tourists annually by 1880 (Withey 1997). In addition, the period between 1880 and 1950 was characterised by four events that drastically curtailed international tourism. The first of these was the global depression of the 1890s, and this was followed two decades later by World War I (1914–18). Resumed tourism growth in the 1920s was subsequently curtailed by the Great Depression of the 1930s and World War II (1939–45). No wars or economic downturns of comparable magnitude, however, have thus far interrupted the expansion of the tourism industry since the end of World War II.

■ CONTEMPORARY TOURISM (1950 ONWARDS)

The rapid growth of tourism during the contemporary era of **modern mass tourism** is reflected in the global trend of inbound tourist arrival and associated revenues (see table 3.1). The statistics from the 1950s and 1960s are speculative due to the irregular nature of data collection at that time (see chapter 1). But even allowing for a substantial margin of error, an exponential pattern of growth is readily evident, with inbound stayovers increasing 40-fold between 1950 and 2012, from an estimated 25 million to about one billion. International tourism receipts have grown even more dramatically over the same period, from US$2 billion to over US$ one trillion. An aspect of table 3.1 that is worth noting is the consistent pattern of growth, interrupted only by the economic recession of the early 1980s, the terrorist attacks of 2001, the combined effects of the Iraq War and the SARS epidemic in 2003, and the global financial crisis of 2008 and beyond.

TABLE 3.1 International stayover arrivals, 1950–2012

	Arrivals of tourists from abroad (excursionists excluded)		Receipts from international tourism (international transport excluded)	
Year	Total (million)	Per cent change over previous year	Total (US$ billion)	Per cent change over previous year
1950	25	—	2	—
1960	69	—	7	—
1965	113	—	12	—
1970	166	—	18	—
1975	222	—	41	—
1980	278	—	104	—
1981	279	0.2	106	2.0

(continued)

TABLE 3.1 (*continued*)

Year	Arrivals of tourists from abroad (excursionists excluded)		Receipts from international tourism (international transport excluded)	
	Total (million)	Per cent change over previous year	Total (US$ billion)	Per cent change over previous year
1982	277	−0.7	100	−5.7
1983	282	1.8	103	3.0
1984	307	8.9	112	8.7
1985	320	4.2	119	6.3
1986	330	3.1	145	21.8
1987	360	9.1	179	23.4
1988	385	6.9	208	16.2
1989	410	6.5	266	27.9
1990	440	7.3	270	1.5
1991	443	0.7	283	4.8
1992	480	8.4	327	15.5
1993	496	3.3	333	1.8
1994	520	4.8	362	8.7
1995	528	1.5	403	11.3
1996	560	6.1	437	8.4
1997	586	4.6	436	−0.1
1998	602	2.7	443	1.6
1999	624	3.7	457	3.2
2000	673	7.9	475	3.9
2001	673	0.0	466	−1.9
2002	692	2.8	485	4.1
2003	684	−1.2	533	9.9
2004	754	10.2	634	18.9
2005	799	6.0	679	7.1
2006	844	5.6	744	9.6
2007	899	6.5	859	15.5
2008	918	2.1	942	9.7
2009	882	−3.9	853	−9.4
2010	939	6.4	928	8.8
2011	982	4.6	1030	11.0
2012	1035	5.3	1075	4.4

Source: UNWTO (2006a, 2006b, 2012c, 2013)

The world's biggest industry?

Interest groups such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) maintain that tourism is the world's single largest industry, accounting directly and indirectly in 2012 for approximately one of every ten jobs and 10 per cent of all economic activity as noted in chapter 1. Whether this does indeed constitute the world's biggest industry, however, depends on how it is classified and quantified, what it is compared against, and indeed whether it can legitimately be regarded as a single industry (see chapter 1).

■ FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH INCREASED TOURISM DEMAND

Many of the generic factors that influence the growth of tourism have been introduced briefly in the earlier sections on the evolution of tourism. This section focuses specifically on those factors that have stimulated the demand for tourism (or **push factors**), especially since 1950. Although outlined under the following five separate headings, the factors are interdependent and should not be considered in isolation.

Economic factors

Affluence is the most important economic factor associated with increased tourism demand. Normally, the distribution and volume of tourism increases as a society becomes more economically developed and greater discretionary household income subsequently becomes available. Discretionary household income is the money available to a household after 'basic needs' such as food, clothing, transportation, education and housing have been met. Such funds might be saved, invested or used to purchase luxury goods and services (such as a foreign holiday or expensive restaurant meal), at the 'discretion' of the household decision makers. Average economic wealth is commonly, if imperfectly, measured by per capita gross national product (GNP), or the total value of all goods and services produced by a country in a given year, divided by the total resident population. It is also important, however, to consider how equitably this wealth is distributed. A per capita GNP of $10 000 could indicate that everyone each makes $10 000 or that each member of just a small elite makes much more than this while most people remain in poverty. The latter scenario greatly constrains the number of potential tourists, and is essentially the structure that prevailed in the premodern era.

In the early stages of the development process, regular tourism participation (and pleasure tourism in particular) is feasible only for the elite, as demonstrated by the history of tourism prior to Thomas Cook. In all subsequent stages, every society possesses a small elite that continues to travel extensively compared with other residents. As of the early 2000s, there were only a few societies that still demonstrated a level of economic development comparable to Europe before the Industrial Revolution. In her **tourism participation sequence**, Burton (1995) refers to these pre-industrial, mainly agricultural and subsistence-based situations as *Phase One* (table 3.2).

In *Phase Two,* the generation of wealth increases and spreads to a wider segment of the population as a consequence of accelerating industrialisation and related processes such as urbanisation. This happened first in the United Kingdom, and then elsewhere, during the Industrial Revolution. At present, China is roughly at the same stage of development as that which England passed through during the first half of the twentieth century and is similarly experiencing an explosion in demand for domestic tourism that is fuelling the development of seaside resorts and other tourism facilities. From

being almost non-existent in the early 1970s, domestic tourism in China expanded to an estimated 639 million domestic tourist arrivals in 1996 to 870 million in 2003 and 3.13 billion in 2012 (Chinatraveltrends.com 2012). Concurrently, an ever-increasing number of *nouveau riche,* or newly rich individuals, are visiting an expanding array of foreign destinations.

TABLE 3.2 Burton's four phases of tourism participation		
Phase	**Context**	**Tourism participation (in all stages, small elite travels extensively)**
Phase One: Pre-industrial	• Rural, agrarian, subsistence-based • Large gap between poor masses and small elite	• No mass participation in tourism
Phase Two: Industrialising	• Rapid growth of urban areas • Growing middle class	• Widespread participation in domestic tourism
Phase Three: Industrialised	• Population mostly urban • Middle class becoming dominant	• Mass participation in domestic tourism and growing participation in short-haul international tourism
Phase Four: Post-industrial	• 'High tech' orientation • Mostly urban • High levels of affluence	• Mass participation in domestic and international (long-haul and short-haul) tourism

By *Phase Three,* the bulk of the population in the industrialised society is relatively affluent, leading to further increases in mass domestic travel as well as mass international tourism to nearby countries. This began to occur in the United Kingdom in the early 1960s, and will likely characterise China within the next 10–20 years. In 2012, 82 million Chinese travelled abroad (a 100 per cent increase over 2007), an impressive figure suggesting Phase Three dynamics until one realises that this represents only about 6 per cent of the population and overwhelmingly involves travel to the adjacent Chinese-controlled territories of Hong Kong and Macau (Chinatraveltrends.com 2012).

Finally, *Phase Four* represents a fully developed post-industrial country with widespread affluence, and a subsequent pattern of ubiquitous participation in domestic tourism as well as mass international tourism to a diverse array of short- and long-haul destinations. The major regions and countries included in this category are western Europe (including the United Kingdom), the United States and Canada, Japan, Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, Israel, Australia and New Zealand. These origin regions have a combined population of approximately 850 million, or 12 per cent of the world's population, but account for roughly 80 per cent of all outbound tourist traffic. The so-called **BRICS countries** (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) are expected to attain Phase Four dynamics within the next two or three decades, and this will have significant social, cultural, environmental and economic implications for the world (BRICS forum 2013).

Increasing income and expenditure in Australia

The emergence of a prosperous Australian population during the past century mirrors Australia's transition from Phase Two to Phase Four status. Consumption expenditures are a good if partial indicator of living standards, as they show to what extent individuals are able to meet their material needs and wants through the purchase of attendant goods and services. Per capita consumption expenditures in Australia were

stable or declined slightly until the late 1930s, due in part to the effects of World War I and the Great Depression. Large increases occurred after World War II, and by 2003–04, these expenditures were about three times higher than the 1938–39 levels (and also the 1900 levels) in 'real' terms — that is, after controlling for inflation. Significantly from a tourism perspective, expenditures on 'travel' increased in similar proportion from 3.6 per cent of the total in 1900 to 11.6 per cent in 2003–04 (Haig & Anderssen 2007). As depicted in figure 3.4, household consumption expenditures in Australia continued to rise steadily in real terms during the early 2000s, increasing by 15.2 per cent between 2003 and 2011. This was largely the consequence of revenues earned from providing minerals and other raw materials to the booming Chinese economy. Such growth, however, also needs to be qualified by rising levels of household debt.

Year	Percentage growth	Per capita expenditure ($)
2003	2.17	13 518
2004	4.37	14 108
2005	3.09	14 544
2006	1.34	14 739
2007	2.48	15 104
2008	2.65	15 504
2009	−1.84	15 219
2010	0.53	15 300
2011	1.83	15 580
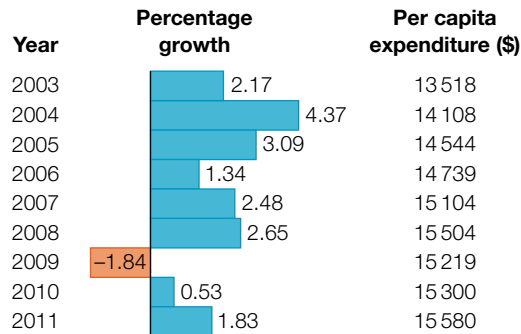
FIGURE 3.4 Australian household consumption expenditure 2003–11

Source: Index mundi 2012a, 2012b

Social factors

Major social trends that have influenced participation in tourism include the increase in discretionary time, its changing distribution, and shifts in the way that society perceives this use of time. During Phase One, the rhythm of life is largely dictated by necessity, the seasons and the weather. Formal clock time has little or no meaning as nature imposes its own discipline on human activity. People in this phase are 'task oriented' rather than 'time oriented', and no fine lines are drawn between notions of 'work', 'rest' or 'play'.

The effect of industrialisation is to introduce a formalised rigour into this equation. Phase Two societies are characterised by an increasingly orchestrated system wherein discrete notions of work, leisure and rest are structured into rigorous segments of clock time, and the life rhythm is regulated by the factory whistle and the alarm clock rather than the rising or setting of the sun. Young (usually male at first) adults are expected to enter the labour force after a short period of rote education, and then to retire after a specified period of formal workplace participation. The structure that most symbolises this industrial regime is the division of the day into roughly equal portions of work, rest and leisure activity, with the latter constituting the discretionary time component (Lynch & Veal 2006). Leisure and rest time are not generally seen as important in their own right, but as a necessary interruption to the work schedule to maintain the labourer's efficiency. The Phase Two industrialising era can therefore be said to be dominated by a **'play in order to work' philosophy**.

Ironically, the early stages of industrialisation often produce a substantial increase in the amount of time spent at work. For example, the average European industrial labourer by the mid-1800s worked a 70-hour week (or 4000 hours per year), with

the weekly work routine interrupted only by the Sunday day of rest. Since then, the situation has improved dramatically in conjunction with the transition to Phases Three and Four. The average working week for the European labour force declined to 46 hours by 1965 and 39 hours by the 1980s. Australia, however, was the first country to institute a standard eight-hour working day (Lynch & Veal 2006). The difference in available discretionary time in Australia between the beginning and end of the twentieth century is illustrated by the observation that 44 per cent of time for an average Australian male adult born in 1988 is discretionary, compared with 33 per cent for one born in 1888. As of November 2012, the average time actually worked in any given week was 33.8 hours (ABS 2013).

While the reduction in the amount of working time has clear positive implications for the pursuit of leisure activities in general, the changing distribution of this time is also important to tourism. One of the first major changes was the introduction of the two-day weekend, which was instrumental in making stayover tourism possible to nearby (usually domestic) locations. Before this, tourism for most workers was limited to day-time Sunday excursions. A second major change was the introduction of the annual holiday entitlement. Again, Australia was a pioneer, being one of the first countries to enact legislation to create a four-week holiday standard. The pressure for such reform, surprisingly, came not only from the labour movement, but also from corporations aware that the labour force required more discretionary time to purchase and consume the goods and services they were producing (Lynch & Veal 2006). It can be said therefore that the transition to the more mature phases of economic development is accompanied by the increasing importance of consumption over production in terms of time allocation. In any event, the growing holiday portion of the reduced working year has made longer domestic and international holidays accessible to most of the population.

Flexitime and earned time

More recently, the movement of the highly developed Phase Four countries into a technology- and information-oriented post-industrial era has resulted in innovative work options that are eroding the rigid nine-to-five type work schedules and uniform itineraries of industrial society. The best known of these options is **flexitime**, which allows workers, within reason, to distribute their working hours in a manner that best suits their individual lifestyles. Common flexitime possibilities include three 12-hour days per week followed by a four-day weekend, or a series of 40-hour working weeks followed by a two-month vacation.

Earned time options are production rather than time-based. They usually involve the right to go on vacation leave once a given production quota is met. If, for example, a worker meets an annual personal production target of 1000 units by 10 August, then the remainder of the year is vacation time, unless the individual decides (and is given the option) to work overtime to earn additional income. Such time management innovations have important implications for tourism, in that lengthy vacation time blocks are conducive to extended long-haul trips and increased tourism participation in general.

Changing attitudes

Social attitudes towards leisure time are also changing in the late industrial, early post-industrial period. As in ancient Greece, leisure is generally seen not just as a time to rest between work shifts, but as an end in itself and a time to undertake activities such as foreign travel, which are highly meaningful to some individuals. This change in perception is consistent with the increasing emphasis on consumption over production. In contrast to the industrial era, a **'work in order to play' philosophy** (i.e. working

to obtain the necessary funds to undertake worthwhile leisure pursuits) is emerging to provide a powerful social sanctioning of most types of tourism activity.

Beyond sanctioning, tourism is also increasingly perceived as a basic human right. Article 7 of the 1999 World Tourism Organization Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, for example, affirms the right to tourism and emphasises that 'obstacles should not be placed in its way', since 'the prospect of direct and personal access to the discovery and enjoyment of the planet's resources constitutes a right equally open to all the world's inhabitants' (see Breakthrough tourism: Getting a break through social tourism). A related issue, however, is the tendency of many individuals to spend a growing portion of their discretionary time in additional work activity to maintain a particular lifestyle or to repay debts, thereby constraining their opportunities for engaging in tourism or other leisure activities. Similarly, employees in Australia and other economically developed countries are notorious for stockpiling their recreational leave time (see Contemporary issue: No Leave, No Life).

breakthrough tourism

GETTING A BREAK THROUGH SOCIAL TOURISM

The idea that leisure travel is an important aspect of personal and collective wellbeing, and also a basic human right, is gaining traction through government-sponsored programs that help members of disadvantaged population groups to take a holiday. Current examples from Europe, which dominate this phenomenon of **social tourism**, include the Flanders region of Belgium, where over 100 000 families have been given holiday discounts by travel industry partners. In Spain, the government offered a free seaside holiday to over one million elderly citizens during the 2008–09 tourism season (Simpson 2012a). The European Commission's Calypso program, trialled from 2009–11, allowed persons with disabilities, youth (aged 18–30), lower-income families and seniors to have a holiday experience by facilitating connections between participants and providers. Notably, this program not only tried to increase participant wellbeing, but also sought to promote economic development by restricting these holidays to the low season, and to build geopolitical stability within the European Union by focusing on intercultural contacts through cross-border travel (European Commission 2012). According to some claims, each euro invested by government in social tourism can yield four euros in taxes, expenditures and other benefits (Minnaert, Maitland & Miller 2011). In most cases, the target groups are offered the same basic experience as other tourists, but some initiatives are more specialised. For example, the UK social charity Break maintains four holiday centres where specialist staff and facilities are available to cater for children with learning and other disabilities (Minnaert, Maitland & Miller 2011). In all cases, social tourism raises the moral issue of whether tourism is a right or a privilege. Influential bodies such as the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) argue that it is a right for all people, yet concurrently designate it as a discretionary activity. Social tourism also raises the question as to what obligations the more privileged segments of society have to the less privileged segments, and whether some disadvantaged persons (e.g. those laid off from employment) are more deserving of support than others (e.g. those who refuse to look for employment).

contemporary issue

NO LEAVE, NO LIFE

Overworked Australians not only compromise their own physical and mental wellbeing; they create major financial liability issues for companies (126 million days of stockpiled annual leave as of late 2012) and contribute to an underperforming domestic tourism sector. In response, Tourism Australia, the peak national destination marketing body, introduced the long-term No Leave, No Life campaign (www. noleavenolife.com) to encourage holiday taking. Aimed mainly at businesses, the campaign provides web-based tools that help the employer to profile typical **stockpiler** employees (characteristically accounting for one in four employees), understand and address underlying reasons for stockpiling, encourage (rather than force) employees to take accrued leave, and ultimately change corporate culture to make it more leave-friendly. Frequent short breaks are encouraged, not just because of their more positive workplace implications, but also because they are more conducive to domestic than outbound tourism. Executives are encouraged to lead by example. Beeton (2012) contends that this marketing campaign, unusual in its focus on 'push' rather than 'pull' factors to stimulate domestic tourism in Australia, has a high probability of succeeding if it can change the salient workplace beliefs of stockpilers. Common reasons for not taking leave, for example, include the normative perceptions that it is a sign of weakness, causes more work for others and is inconsistent with the internal work culture. Personal attitudes of stockpilers include the belief that leave is an impediment to moving up the corporate ladder. Also notable are preferences to keep working, a desire to stockpile time for a really big future trip and/or fears of being bored during leave time. Such attitudes can be challenged by pointing out the correlation between taking leave and higher productivity, allocating leave in between projects or during slower business periods, and removing perceived penalties for being absent from work. It is also recommended that 4 weeks of leave be factored into business-planning processes so that it becomes normative, and that objectives be set based on a 48-week work plan.

Demographic factors

The later stages of the development process (i.e. Phases Three and Four) are associated with distinctive demographic transformations, at least four of which appear to increase the propensity of the population to engage in tourism-related activities.

Reduced family size

Because of the costs of raising children, small family size is equated with increased discretionary time and household income. If the per capita GNP and fertility rates of the world's countries are examined, a strong inverse relationship between the two can be readily identified. That is, total fertility rates (TFR = the average number of children that a woman can expect to give birth to) tend to decline as the affluence of society increases. This was the case for Australia during most of the twentieth century (table 3.3), the post–World War II period of increased fertility (i.e. the 'baby boom')

being the primary exception. The overall trend of declining fertility is reflected in the size of the average Australian household, which declined from 4.5 persons in 1911 to 2.6 persons in 2006. It is expected to decline further to between 2.4 and 2.5 persons per household by 2031 (ABS 2012a).

One factor that accounts for this trend is the decline in infant mortality rates. As the vast majority of children in a Phase Four society will survive into adulthood, there is no practical need for couples to produce a large number of children to ensure that at least one or two will survive into adulthood to care for their aged parents and carry on the family name. Also critical is the entry of women into the workforce, the elimination of children as a significant source of labour and the desire of households to attain a high level of material wellbeing (which is more difficult when resources have to be allocated to the raising of children).

However, rather than culminating in a stable situation where couples basically replace themselves with two children, these and other factors have combined in many Phase Four countries to yield a total fertility rate well below the replacement level of 2.1 (it is slightly higher than 2.0 to take into account child mortality and adults who do not have children). While the resulting 'baby bust' may in the short term further enable adults to travel, the long-term effects on tourism if this pattern of low fertility persists are more uncertain. One consideration is a reduced tourist market as the population ages and eventually declines, if the natural population decrease is not compensated for by appropriate increases in immigration. Another is the shrinkage of the labour force, which could reduce the amount of pension income that can be used for discretionary purposes such as travel, while forcing longer working hours and a higher retirement age to avoid future pension liabilities.

TABLE 3.3 Australian demographic trends, 1901–2011				
Year	Population (000s)	Per cent urban	Total fertility rate	Life expectancy (m/f)	Per cent population over 64
1901	3 826	n/a	n/a	55/59	4.0
1911	4 574	57.8	n/a	n/a	4.3
1921	5 511	62.1	3.0	58/62	4.4
1931	6 553	63.5	2.2	63/67	6.5
1941	7 144	65.0	2.5	n/a	7.2
1947	7 579	68.7	3.0	66/71	8.0
1954	8 987	78.7	3.2	67/73	8.3
1961	10 508	81.7	3.3	68/74	8.5
1971	12 937	85.6	2.7	68/75	8.4
1981	14 923	85.7	1.9	71/78	9.8
1991	17 336	85.3	1.9	74/80	11.3
2001	19 413	n/a	1.7	77/82	12.8
2011	21 767	n/a	1.9	79/84	13.6

Source: ABS (1998, 2001, 2003, 2012), Lattimore & Pobke (2008)

Population increase

All things being equal, a larger population base equates with a larger overall incidence of tourism activity. Because of a process described by the **demographic transition model (DTM)** (see figure 3.5), Burton's Phase Four societies tend to have relatively large and stable populations. During Stage One (which more or less corresponds to Burton's Phase One), populations are maintained at a stable but low level over the long term due to the balance between high crude birth and death rates. In Stage Two (corresponding to Burton's Phase Two), dramatic declines in mortality are brought about by the introduction of basic health care. However, couples continue to have large families for cultural reasons and for the contributions that offspring make to the household labour force. Rapid population growth is the usual consequence of the resulting gap between the birth and death rates.

As the population becomes more educated and urbanised, the labour advantage from large families is gradually lost and more resources have to be invested in children. Subsequently, the economic and social factors described in the previous subsections begin to take effect, resulting in a rapidly declining birth rate and a slowing in the rate of net population growth during Stage Three (roughly corresponding to Burton's Phase Three). This is occurring currently in heavily populated countries such as India, Brazil, Indonesia and China and is accompanied by the stabilisation of mortality rates (and in China by an official 'one child per couple' policy for most families). The conventional demographic transition is completed by Stage Four (Burton's Phase Four), wherein a balance between low birth rates and low death rates is attained.

The confounding factor not taken into account in the traditional demographic transition model, however, is the pattern of collapsing fertility and eventual population decline. If this persists and becomes more prevalent, it may indicate a new, fifth stage of the model (see figure 3.5). The experience of Australia does not yet indicate whether very low fertility is an aberration or not, since total fertility rates have been increasing since 2001 but remain below the replacement level of 2.1 (see table 3.3). In such a scenario, only sustained large-scale immigration is sufficient to sustain even a limited pattern of net population increase.
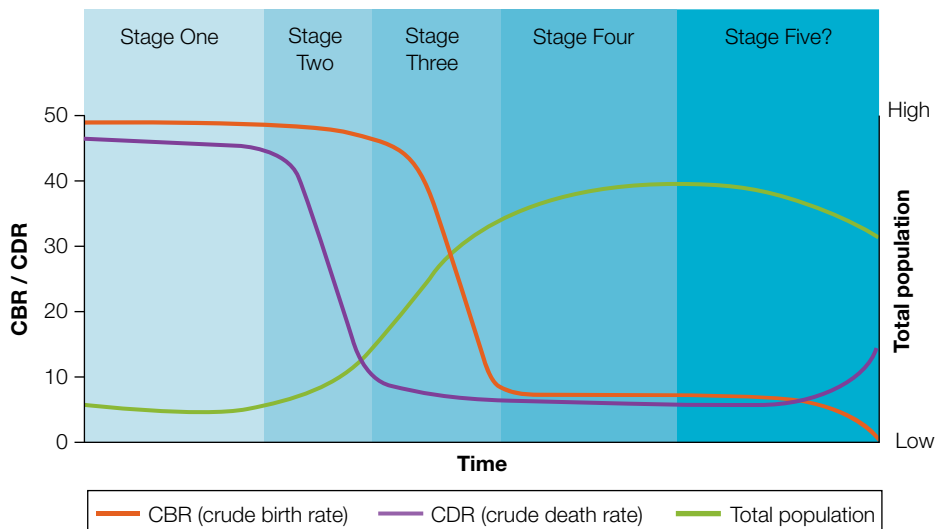
FIGURE 3.5 The demographic transition model

The demographic transition model basically describes the natural growth of the Australian population during the past 150 years, although the overall pattern of population increase was also critically influenced by high immigration levels as in the United States, Canada, New Zealand and western Europe. From a population of less than four million at the time of Federation, Australia's population increased almost sixfold by 2011 (see table 3.3). Similar patterns have been experienced in all of the other Phase Four countries, culminating in the 850 million Phase Four consumers mentioned earlier.

Urbanisation

As happened in Ur and Rome, the concentration of population within large urban areas increases the desire and tendency to engage in certain types of escapist tourism. In part, this is because of urban congestion and crowding, but cities are also associated with higher levels of discretionary income and education, and lower family size. Australia differs from most other Phase Four countries in its exceptionally high level of urban population, and in its concentration within a small number of major metropolitan areas. By 2012, almost two-thirds of Australians lived in the five largest metropolitan areas (Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth and Adelaide). The 'urban' population in total peaked at about 85 per cent in the early 1970s and has remained at this level.

Increased life expectancy

Increased life expectancies have resulted from the technological advances of the industrial and post-industrial eras. In 1901, Australian men and women could expect a lifespan of just 55 and 59 years, respectively (see table 3.3). This meant that the average male worker survived for only approximately five years after retirement. By 2011 the respective life expectancies had increased to 79 and 84 years, indicating 15 to 20 years of survival after leaving the workforce. This higher life expectancy, combined with reduced working time means that the Phase Four Australian male born in 1988 can look forward to 298 000 hours of discretionary time during his life, compared with 153 000 hours for his Phase Two counterpart born in 1888 (ABS). However, favouring tourism even more is the provision of pension-based income, and improvements in health that allow older adults to pursue an unprecedented variety of leisure-time activities, assuming this pension income remains sufficient to accommodate such discretionary expenditure.

Because of increased life expectancies and falling total fertility rates, Australia's population is steadily ageing, as revealed in the country's 1960 and 2010 population pyramids (see figure 3.6). From just 4 per cent of the population in 1901, the 65 and older cohort accounted for almost 14 per cent in 2011 (see table 3.3). It is conceivable that within the next two decades Australia's population profile will resemble that of present-day Germany or Scandinavia, where 18–20 per cent of the population is 65 or older. As suggested earlier, however, elevated levels of international in-migration could at least partially offset this ageing trend.

Contributing to this process is the ageing of the so-called **Baby Boomers**, those born during the aforementioned era of relatively high fertility that prevailed in the two decades following World War II. The baby boom can be identified in the population pyramid by the bulge in the 45- to 64-year-old age groups. The retirement of this influential cohort, which commenced around 2008, will have significant implications for Australia's economy and social structure, as well as its tourism industry,

particularly to the extent that the attitudes and behaviour of Boomers contrasts with emerging tourism consumers born after 1980 (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

Age group (years)

(a) The 85+ age group includes all ages 85 years and over and is not directly comparable with the other age groups.
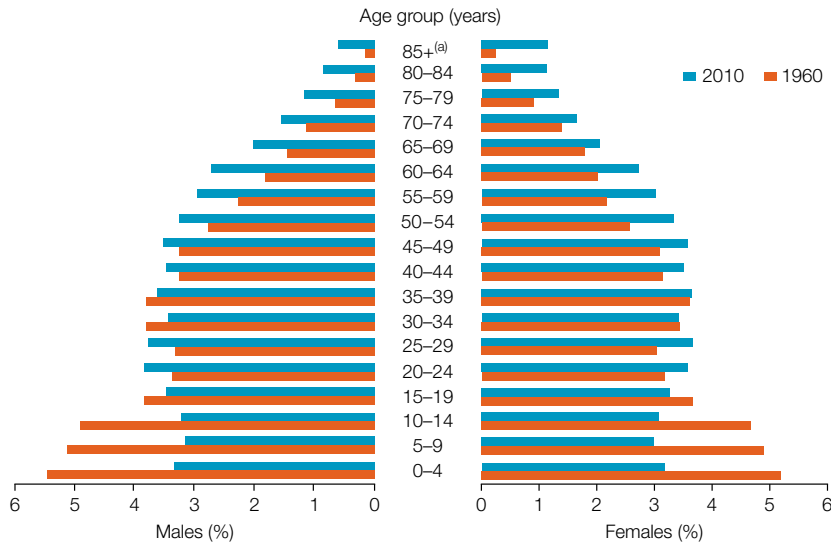
FIGURE 3.6 Australia's population pyramid, 1960 and 2010, by five-year age cohort

Source: ABS 2012b

Transportation technology factors

The crucial role of transportation in the diffusion of tourism is demonstrated by the influence of the railway on the development of seaside resorts and by the steamship on incipient long-haul tourism during the late 1800s. However, these pale in comparison to the impact of aircraft and the car. Figure 3.7 illustrates the evolution of the aviation industry. An interesting characteristic is the absence of milestone developments in aircraft technology between the 1976 debut of the Concorde (which has now been decommissioned) and the introduction of new long-haul aircraft such as the A380 and 787 Dreamliner in the early 2000s. Nevertheless, the world's airline industry now accounts for more than 2.4 billion passengers per year (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012), and is a primary factor underlying the spatial diffusion of tourist destinations.

The development of the automotive industry has paralleled aviation in its rapid technical evolution and growth. The effect has been profound in both the domestic and international tourism sectors. Road transport (including buses, etc.) accounted for about 77 per cent of all international arrivals and an even higher portion of domestic travel by the mid-1990s (Burton 1995). Unable to compete against the dual impact of the aeroplane and the car, passenger trains and ships have been increasingly marginalised, in many cases functioning more as a nostalgic attraction than a mass passenger carrier. A notable Australian example of a 'heritage' railway-related attraction is Puffing Billy, a steam train from the early 1900s that transports tourists along a 24.5 kilometre route through the Dandenong Ranges of Victoria, which was originally built to facilitate the settlement of the area.
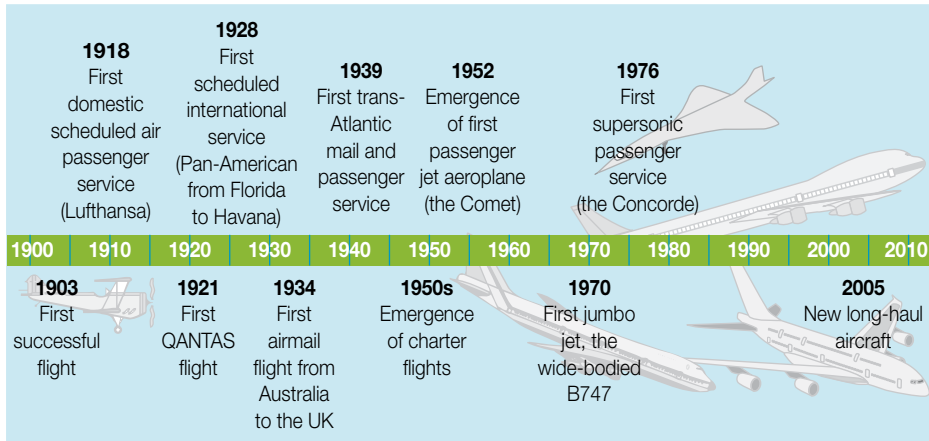
FIGURE 3.7 Milestones in air travel

Political factors

Tourism is dependent on the freedom of people to travel both internationally and domestically (see chapter 2). Often restricted for political and economic reasons in the earlier development stages, freedom of mobility is seldom an issue in Phase Four countries, where restrictions are usually limited to sensitive domestic military sites and certain prohibited countries (e.g. Cuba relative to the United States). The collapse of the Soviet Union and its socialist client states in the early 1990s has meant that an additional 400 million people now have greater freedom — and, increasingly, the discretionary income — to travel. More deliberate has been the Chinese government's incremental moves to allow its 1.3 billion people increased access to foreign travel. Chinese leisure travel groups can only visit a foreign country that has successfully negotiated Approved Destination Status (ADS) with the Chinese government. In theory this assures that Chinese tourists receive a well-regulated, quality visitor experience. As of 2011, at least 140 countries (including Australia and New Zealand) were ADS-conferred (ChinaContact 2013). A critical factor influencing whether this high level of global mobility is maintained will be concerns over the movement of terrorists and illegal migrants.

AUSTRALIAN TOURISM PARTICIPATION

The economic, social, demographic, technological and political factors described above have all contributed to increased tourism activity by residents of Phase Four countries in the post-World War II era. Australia is no exception, although trends since 2000 indicate both a dramatic growth in outbound travel (see table 3.4) and a concomitant stagnation in domestic overnight tourism trips (see table 3.5), a pattern largely attributable to the high relative value of the Australian dollar.

TABLE 3.4 Outbound resident departures from Australia, 1965–2006

Year	Number of departures	Growth (%)	Year	Number of departures	Growth (%)
1965	161 700	—	1999	3 209 990	1.5
1970	352 500	—	2000	3 498 200	—

TABLE 3.4 (continued)					
Year	Number of departures	Growth (%)	Year	Number of departures	Growth (%)
1975	911 800	—	2001	3 442 600	−1.6
1980	1 203 600	—	2002	3 461 000	0.5
1985	1 512 000	—	2003	3 388 000	−2.1
1990	2 169 900	—	2004	4 369 000	28.9
1991	2 099 400	−3.2	2005	4 754 000	8.8
1992	2 276 260	8.4	2006	4 941 000	3.9
1993	2 267 080	−0.4	2007	5 462 300	10.6
1994	2 354 310	3.8	2008	5 808 000	6.3
1995	2 518 620	7.0	2009	6 284 900	8.2
1996	2 731 970	8.5	2010	7 111 400	13.2
1997	2 932 760	7.3	2011	7 795 100	9.6
1998	3 161 060	7.8			

Source: ABS (2001), TRA (2012)

TABLE 3.5 Domestic overnight tourism trips in Australia, 2001 to 2011		
Year	Number (000s)	Growth (%)
2001	74 585	1.1
2002	75 339	1.0
2003	73 621	−2.3
2004	74 301	0.9
2005	69 924	−5.9
2006	73 564	5.2
2007	74 464	1.2
2008	72 009	−3.3
2009	67 670	−6.0
2010	69 297	2.4
2011	71 895	3.7

Source: TRA (2012)

FUTURE GROWTH PROSPECTS

Given the rapid change that is affecting all facets of contemporary life, any attempt to make medium- or long-term predictions about the tourism sector is very risky. It can be confidently predicted that technology will continue to revolutionise the tourism industry, pose new challenges to tourism managers and restructure tourism systems at all levels. However, the nature and timing of radical future innovations, or their implications, cannot be identified with any precision. In terms of demand, the number of persons living in Phase Four countries is likely to increase dramatically over the next

two or three decades as a consequence of the **condensed development sequence** and the nature of the countries currently in Phases Two and Three. The former term refers to the fact that societies today are undergoing the transition towards full economic development (i.e. a Phase Four state) in a reduced amount of time compared to their counterparts in the past. The timeframe for the United Kingdom, for example, was about 200 years (roughly 1750–1950). Japan, however, was able to make the transition within about 80 years (1860–1940) while the timeframe for South Korea was only about 40 years (1950–90).

One reason for this acceleration is the ability of the transitional societies to use technologies introduced by countries at a higher state of development. Therefore, although England had the great advantage of access to the resources and markets of its colonies, it also had to invent the technology of industrialisation. Today, less developed countries such as India can facilitate their economic and social development through already available technologies. It is possible that China, in particular, with its extremely rapid pace of economic growth, will emerge as a Phase Four society by the year 2020. If this is achieved, then tourism managers will have to allow for 1 billion or more additions to the global market for international tourism. However, there are also the countervailing risks of a major economic depression, further spectacular acts of terrorism, health epidemics, cataclysmic natural disasters, and regional or global war involving nuclear, chemical or biological weapons. It will be the tourism systems with high resilience that will be best positioned to recover effectively from such disruptions.

CHAPTER REVIEW

Tourism is an ancient phenomenon that was evident in classical Egypt, China, Greece and Rome, as well as in the Middle Ages. Distinctive characteristics of tourism in this premodern stage include its limited accessibility, the importance of religious as well as educational and health motivations, and the lack of a well-defined tourism 'industry'. Other features include the risky, uncomfortable and time-consuming nature of travel, its restriction to relatively few well-defined land and sea routes, and the limited, localised and unplanned spatial impact of tourism upon the landscape. Premodern tourism is similar to modern tourism in the essential role of discretionary time and income in facilitating travel, and the desire to escape congested urban conditions. Other commonalities include curiosity about the past and other cultures, the desire to avoid risk and the proclivity to purchase souvenirs and to leave behind graffiti as a reminder of one's presence in a destination region.

The emergence of Europe from the Middle Ages marked the transition towards the early modern era of tourism, during which spas, seaside resorts and the Grand Tour were important elements. Concurrently, this marked the beginning of a period of tourism decline in China. The transition towards modern mass tourism was closely associated with the Industrial Revolution, and especially with Thomas Cook & Son's application of its principles and innovations to the travel sector by way of the package tour and related innovations. Mass tourism emerged from the convergence of reduced travel costs and rising middle and working class wages.

The post-Cook era was characterised by the rapid expansion of domestic tourism within the newly industrialised countries. However, large-scale international tourism was delayed by primitive long-haul transportation technology, and by the appearance of two major economic recessions and two world wars between 1880 and 1945. It was not until the 1950s that international tourism began to display an exponential pattern of growth, stimulated by five interrelated 'push' factors that increased the demand for tourism in the economically developed Phase Three and Four countries. Economic growth provided more discretionary income and time for the masses. Concurrently, society perceived leisure time in a more positive way, moving towards a 'work in order to play' philosophy. Demographic changes such as population growth, urbanisation, smaller family size and rising life expectancies increased the propensity of the population to engage in tourism. Technological developments such as the aeroplane and car provided effective and relatively cheap means of transport, while overall political stability facilitated travel between countries. The experience of Australia is typical, with large-scale increases in outbound and domestic tourism in the post-World War II period. The global pattern of growth is likely to continue largely on the strength of a condensed development sequence that is rapidly propelling countries such as China and India into the ranks of the Phase Three and Four societies.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Baby Boomers people born during the post–World War II period of high TFRs (roughly 1946 to 1964), who constitute a noticeable bulge within the population pyramid of Australia and other Phase Four countries

BRICS countries Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa, which account for 40 per cent of the world's population and are expected to achieve Burton's Phase Four status within two decades

Condensed development sequence the process whereby societies undergo the transition to a Phase Four state within an increasingly reduced period of time

Crusades a series of campaigns to 'liberate' Jerusalem and the Holy Land from Muslim control. While not a form of tourism as such, the Crusades helped to re-open Europe to the outside world and spawn an incipient travel industry.

Dark Ages the period from about AD 500 to 1100, characterised by a serious deterioration in social, economic and political conditions within Europe

Demographic transition model (DTM) an idealised depiction of the process whereby societies evolve from a high fertility/high mortality structure to a low fertility/low mortality structure. This evolution usually parallels the development of a society from a Phase One to a Phase Four profile, as occurred during the Industrial Revolution. A fifth stage may now be emerging, characterised by extremely low birth rates and resultant net population loss.

Discretionary income the amount of income that remains after household necessities such as food, housing, clothing, education and transportation have been purchased

Discretionary time normally defined as time not spent at work, or in normal rest and bodily maintenance

Early modern tourism the transitional era between premodern tourism (about AD 1500) and modern mass tourism (since 1950)

Earned time a time management option in which an individual is no longer obligated to work once a particular quota is attained over a defined period of time (often monthly or annual)

Flexitime a time management option in which workers have some flexibility in distributing a required number of working hours (usually weekly) in a manner that suits the lifestyle and productivity of the individual worker

Generation Y also known as Gen Y or the Millennials; the population cohort following Generation X that was born between the early 1980s and early 2000s

Grand Tour a form of early modern tourism that involved a lengthy trip to the major cities of France and Italy by young adults of the leisure class, for purposes of education and culture

Industrial Revolution a process that occurred in England from the mid-1700s to the mid-1900s (and spread outwards to other countries), in which society was transformed from an agrarian to an industrial base, thereby spawning conditions that were conducive to the growth of tourism-related activity

Leisure class in premodern tourism, that small portion of the population that had sufficient discretionary time and income to engage in leisure pursuits such as tourism

Mesopotamia the region approximately occupied by present-day Iraq, where the earliest impulses of civilisation first emerged, presumably along with the first tourism activity

Middle Ages the period from about AD 1100 to the Renaissance (about AD 1500), characterised by an improvement in the social, economic and political situation, in comparison with the Dark Ages

Modern mass tourism (Contemporary tourism) the period from 1950 to the present day, characterised by the rapid expansion of international and domestic tourism

Olympic Games the most important of the ancient Greek art and athletics festivals, held every four years at Olympia. The ancient Olympic Games are one of the most important examples of premodern tourism.

Package tour a pre-paid travel package that usually includes transportation, accommodation, food and other services

Pilgrimage generic term for travel undertaken for religious purpose. Pilgrimages have declined in importance during the modern era compared with recreational, business and social tourism.

'Play in order to work' philosophy an industrial-era ethic, which holds that leisure time and activities are necessary in order to make workers more productive, thereby reinforcing the work-focused nature of society

Post-Cook period the time from about 1880 to 1950, characterised by the rapid growth of domestic tourism within the wealthier countries, but less rapid expansion in international tourism

Premodern tourism describes the era of tourism activity from the beginning of civilisation to the end of the Middle Ages

Push factors economic, social, demographic, technological and political forces that stimulate a demand for tourism activity by 'pushing' consumers away from their usual place of residence

Renaissance the 'rebirth' of Europe following the Dark Ages, commencing in Italy during the mid-1400s and spreading to Germany and the 'low countries' by the early 1600s

Resorts facilities or urban areas that are specialised in the provision of recreational tourism opportunities

Seaside resorts a type of resort located on coastlines to take advantage of sea bathing for health and, later, recreational purposes; many of these were established during the Industrial Revolution for both the leisure and working classes

Social tourism tourism that enables socially disadvantaged groups such as the poor, young, old, unemployed and those with a physical or intellectual disability to participate in holiday travel as a basic human right

Spas a type of resort centred on the use of geothermal waters for health purposes

Stockpiler an employee who accumulates excessive leave time, thereby contributing to the financial liability of employers and underperformance of domestic tourism; estimated to account for about one-quarter of the Australian workforce

Thomas Cook the entrepreneur whose company Thomas Cook & Son applied the principles of the Industrial Revolution to the tourism sector through such innovations as the package tour

Tourism participation sequence according to Burton, the tendency for a society to participate in tourism increases through a set of four phases that relate to the concurrent process of increased economic development

Phase One (pre-industrial): mainly agricultural and subsistence-based economies where tourism participation is restricted to a small leisure class

Phase Two (industrialising): the generation of wealth increases and tends to spread to a wider segment of the population as a consequence of industrialisation and related processes such as urbanisation. This leads to increases in the demand for domestic tourism among the middle classes.

Phase Three (industrialised): the bulk of the population is urban and increasingly affluent, leading to the emergence of mass domestic travel, as well as extensive international tourism to nearby countries.

Phase Four (post-industrial): represents a technology- and information-oriented country with almost universal affluence, and a subsequent pattern of mass international tourism to an increasingly diverse array of short- and long-haul

destinations. Almost all residents engage in a comprehensive variety of domestic tourism experiences.

Virtual reality (VR) the wide-field presentation of computer-generated, multisensory information that allows the user to experience a virtual world

'Work in order to play' philosophy a post-industrial ethic derived from ancient Greek philosophy that holds that leisure and leisure-time activities such as tourism are important in their own right and that we work to be able to afford to engage in leisure pursuits

■ QUESTIONS

1 Why is it useful to understand the major forms and types of tourism that occurred in the premodern era?

2 (a) To what extent are virtual reality technologies likely to help or hinder participation in tourism to ancient sites such as Olympia?
   (b) What will be the likely environmental and economic impacts on such sites of this new participation?

3 (a) Why is Thomas Cook referred to as the father of modern mass tourism?
   (b) Why did it take more than a century for Cook's innovations to translate into a pattern of mass global tourism activity?

4 To what extent can destination managers extrapolate the global visitation and revenue data in table 3.1 to predict the future performance of their own specific country or city?

5 (a) Is your household more or less time-stressed than it was ten years ago?
   (b) How has this affected the tourism activity of your household?

6 (a) Do you believe that people have a basic human right to travel?
   (b) If so, how far should these rights extend?
   (c) What are the implications for destinations?

7 What technological innovation(s) is most likely to constitute the next major breakthrough in air transportation, as per the future in figure 3.7?

8 To what degree should post-industrial countries like Australia and New Zealand be focusing on the emerging BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) as target tourist markets?

■ EXERCISES

1 Using table 3.1, write a 1000-word report in which you identify:
   (a) all years since 1980 in which international stayover numbers and/or receipts grew by at least 5 per cent over the previous period
   (b) the pull factors that help to account for these years or periods of high growth
   (c) factors that might help to account for discrepancies between the stayover and receipts growth rates in particular years or over particular periods.

2 Write a 1000-word report in which you describe:
   (a) how typical Australian and Chinese households in 2014 differ from their 1964 counterparts with respect to their stage in Burton's model as well as demographic, economic and social characteristics
   (b) the patterns of tourism activity that might be expected from Australian and Chinese households over one-year periods in both 1964 and 2014
   (c) the points where the household profiles in both countries are likely to converge, and the implications this has for Australian outbound tourism to China and Chinese outbound tourism to Australia.

■ FURTHER READING

Guo, W., Turner, L. & King, B. 2002. 'The Emerging Golden Age of Chinese Tourism and its Historical Antecedents'. *Tourism, Culture & Communication* **3: 131–46.** One of the best and most succinct English-language discussions of the early characteristics of Chinese tourism, a phenomenon that has been largely ignored by Western scholars.

Lynch, R. & Veal, A. 2006. *Australian Leisure.* **Third Edition. Sydney: Longman.** This book provides an Australia-specific account of historical and modern leisure trends, and effectively places these in the broad global context.

Minnaert, L., Maitland, R. & Miller, G. 2011. 'What is Social Tourism?' *Current Issues in Tourism* **14: 403–15.** This paper describes and discusses the concept of social tourism, and examines different manifestations and relevant issues.

Towner, J. 1996. *An Historical Geography of Recreation and Tourism in the Western World 1540–1940.* **Chichester, UK: Wiley.** Major topic areas within this well-researched, academically-oriented classic text include the Grand Tour and spas and seaside resorts, within both Europe and North America.

Withey, L. 1997. *Grand Tours and Cook's Tours.* **New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc.** Two critical eras in the historical development of tourism are covered in a thorough and well-written manner by Withey.

case study

MANAGING WITH GENERATION Y

Generational change is associated, among other things, with shifting attitudes. Much press and research, for example, has been dedicated to understanding the values, attitudes and behaviour of the large and economically powerful Baby Boomer cohort born between 1945 and 1965. Increased attention is also being paid to the so-called '**Generation Y**' (also known as Gen Y), broadly defined as including those born between the early 1980s and the early 2000s (the Australian Bureau of Statistics, for example, uses the birth period from 1983 to 2000).

A useful way of contextualising the role of Gen Y in society is to think of the Baby Boomers, in their 'elderhood', as playing leadership roles and transferring values, while Generation X (born mid 1960s to late 1970s), in their midlife, are playing management roles and asserting their values. Gen Y members, in their young adulthood, are testing their values, but will gradually move into management and leadership roles as they grow older (Pendergast 2010).

Because of the technology revolution, it can be argued that the generation gap between Gen Y and its predecessors is larger than usual. Howe (2006) ascribes seven typical core characteristics to this cohort, including a sense of being *special* because of their technical capabilities and membership in small family units.

This trait is sometimes extended to include a sense of narcissism and entitlement. Gen Y are also *sheltered*, growing up in an era of ubiquitous safety concerns and oversight by their 'helicopter' parents. Nevertheless, they are *confident*, being used to uncertainty and to positive reinforcement rather than punishment. Growing up in a teaching environment that also privileges group work and cooperation, Gen Y can be characterised as *team-oriented*. They are also *conventional* in aspiring to a healthy work–life balance that eschews the rat race. Finally, they are *pressured* because of highly-regulated work and play schedules, but also *achieving* in that they have very high levels of education and are used to participating in many diverse experiences. Others have described Gen Y as tolerant but also competitive, impatient and demanding (Martin & Tulgan 2001).

The implications of Gen Y attitudes and behaviour are amplified by their numbers, estimated globally at 1.8 billion, or at several hundreds of millions in the developed Western countries where their defining characteristics are thought to be most prevalent. Of interest to the tourism industry are Gen Y's core values of lifestyle and fun that foster a tendency to travel often, and to visit a greater number of destinations as part of their ongoing self-discovery, and doing more activities within a given destination. They tend to spend a higher proportion of their income on travel than earlier generations and will sustain this practice on credit if necessary, with less likelihood of displaying brand loyalty when purchasing. Travel is usually undertaken in small groups, with related decisions made by consensus. They will make greater efforts to search for information about destination options, and will do so using the internet and other information technologies — Gen Y is the first generation to grow up with a computer in the home, and many members are immersed in social media (Pendergast 2010).

This interesting set of characteristics is generating new tourism issues. For example, confidence, together with the experiential tendencies associated with self-discovery, translates into increased participation in adventure and 'extreme' sporting activities in remote locations; concurrently, being sheltered has fostered a high concern with personal safety. While management of the consequent risks is being achieved through intensive information searches and use of digital technologies, members of a generation who have largely been denied the simple experience of walking home from school by themselves may not have the life-experience or street skills to successfully negotiate these kinds of experiences without assistance (Wilks & Pendergast 2010). Empirical research in the wine tourism sector in Australia and New Zealand has revealed that Gen Y visitors want a total experience that goes beyond tasting wine to encompass a 'good time' with friends in simple and intimate surroundings. They also desire interaction with cellar-door staff, who are expected to show interest in their visitors and treat them with respect; poor or indifferent service is taken very personally. Learning is also an important motivation, though this may have something to do with their status as wine novices in comparison with their Gen X or Boomer counterparts (Fountain & Charters 2010).

Efforts to cope with the growing number of Gen Y tourists should account for the fact that they are not all the same, despite the common label. Some researchers even differentiate between three distinct sub-groups, that is, 'Generation Why' (born 1982–1985) which shares characteristics with Gen X, 'Millennials' (or MilGens) (1985–99), and the 'iGeneration' (1999–2002). Of the three, the Millennials are the most representative of Generation Y, and the term is therefore

often applied to the entire cohort (Pendergast 2010). It is also probable, for example, that an American Gen Y person is different from their Australian or UK counterparts. Less is known about the prevalence of Gen Y values in non-Western countries, although there may be parallels drawn with the attribute of being special in China, where most individuals of that age are the only children in their immediate family, and information technology has also been pervasive. In South Korea, those born between 1977 and 1997 are described as the N (for 'Net') Generation and they display similarities to Gen Y. Regarded as even more dramatically different from their parents than Gen Ys are to the Boomers, the N Generation are fanatically devoted to social media and other information technologies, and place happiness and lifestyle above career ambition. Strong focus on individuality and self, moreover, are in stark contrast to Korean traditions of uniformity, filial piety and collective action. Not surprisingly, they tend to purchase travel products online, and remaining connected to friends and families and online communities is an important travel priority, creating a powerful 'real time' agency for shaping destination images in the origin region (Park et al. 2010). Such differences pose new challenges for tourism managers catering to the global Generation Y.

QUESTIONS

1 Prepare a 1000-word report in which you:
    (a) design a two-hour itinerary for a cultural or heritage tourism experience that would appeal to Gen Y visitors
    (b) explain why you believe this itinerary would be attractive
    (c) describe how the itinerary should be marketed to achieve maximum effect.

2 (a) Approach a Gen Y member and ask them to describe to you what their ideal tourism experience would look like. You should obtain from them five main characteristics about this experience.
    (b) Prepare a 500-word report in which you discuss how these characteristics conform (or do not conform) to Howe's seven Gen Y characteristics.
    (c) What can you conclude from this analysis about the Gen Y stereotype?

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4

Destinations

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 describe and explain the relative status of the advanced economies and emerging economies as tourist destination regions

2 identify the major generic factors that attract or 'pull' visitors to tourist destinations

3 discuss the extent to which destination managers and other tourism stakeholders can influence these pull factors

4 describe and explain the status of tourism in each of the world's major regions, and assess the pull factors that have contributed to these patterns

5 account for the tendency of tourism at all scales to develop in a spatially uneven pattern and discuss the implications of this tendency

6 identify and account for the basic pattern of inbound and domestic tourism within Australia.

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 described the remarkable growth of contemporary international and domestic tourism from a demand perspective, without reference to the destinations that are the focus of this growth. This chapter addresses the supply perspective by considering the spatial variations in the growth and distribution of tourism among and within the world's major regions, and the factors that underlie these patterns. The following section examines these variations at the most basic level by describing the **global inequality in tourism** that exists between advanced and emerging economies. The major factors that have stimulated or hindered the development of tourism in each of these two 'macro-regions' are also discussed in this section, but the 'Pull factors influencing a destination' section considers the generic factors that draw tourists to destinations in general. The 'Regional destination patterns' section describes the tourism situation in each of the world's major geographical regions and examines the pull factors (or lack thereof) that apply in each case. The spatial characteristics of tourism within individual countries are outlined in the final section.

GLOBAL DESTINATION PATTERNS: ADVANCED AND EMERGING ECONOMIES

The world is roughly divided into two 'macro-regions' based on relative levels of economic development and associated sociodemographic characteristics such as social structure and fertility rates. The **advanced economies** (collectively constituting the 'more developed world') correspond with Burton's late Phase Three and Phase Four countries (see chapter 3). Classified as such by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), they include Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, Israel, Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan, Singapore and Western European countries. Several Eastern European countries (e.g. Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovakia and Slovenia) are also included because of their rapid economic growth since the collapse of the Soviet Union and its orbit of client states.

The **emerging economies** (or cumulatively the 'less developed world') are synonymous with those still situated in Burton's Phase Two and early Phase Three. The major less developed regions are Latin America and the Caribbean, most of Asia (including China), Africa and the islands of the Pacific and Indian oceans. Wealthy Middle Eastern oil-producing states, including Libya, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, are included in this category despite their high per capita incomes. This is in part because of highly skewed economies (i.e. fossil fuels account for almost all export earnings) and social indicators (such as higher fertility and infant mortality rates) that suggest residual Phase Two dynamics. The designation of countries into either category, by convention and perception, remained remarkably stable during the latter half of the twentieth century except for Eastern Europe and the 'tiger' economies of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore and South Korea. Any such country-wide designations, however, should be qualified by the presence of emerging spaces within advanced economies (e.g. Indigenous reserves in Australia) and vice versa.

Tourism market share and growth

Table 4.1 depicts the status of the advanced and emerging economies as recipients of inbound tourism for selected years in the period between 1990 and 2012. As of 2012, the advanced economies accounted for a bare majority of international stayover arrivals, having experienced continuous erosion of such arrivals since 1990. By comparison, the

share of this region prior to 1970 was approximately 90 per cent. What will probably arrest this decline in coming decades is the anticipated transformation of countries such as China, Turkey and Brazil from emerging to advanced status.

TABLE 4.1 International stayover arrivals by advanced and emerging economies, 1990–2012				
Year	Advanced economies[1] (million)	Share (%)	Emerging economies (million)	Share (%)	Global total (million)
1990	296	68.0	139	32.0	435
1995	334	63.3	193	36.7	528
2000	417	62.0	256	38.0	673
2005	455	56.9	344	43.1	799
2012	550	53.1	485	46.9	1035

Note:
1 Includes United States, Canada, Western Europe, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Estonia, Israel, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Australia and New Zealand

Source: UNWTO (2012a)

Reasons for the proliferation of the emerging economies as destinations

Many factors have combined to elevate the emerging economies into the position of an increasingly prominent destination macro-region. However, particularly important are changing consumer preferences in the major international tourist markets, and economic growth within the emerging economies themselves.

Demand for 3S tourism: the emergence of the pleasure periphery

Seaside resorts were already established as tourist destinations in the era of the Roman Empire, but became especially important within Europe, North America and Australia in conjunction with the Industrial Revolution (see chapter 3). Nineteenth-century limitations in technology as well as discretionary income and time restricted the development of these resorts to domestic coastal locations close to expanding urban markets. However, dramatic twentieth-century advances in air transportation technology have combined with the overall development process and changing social perceptions to greatly extend the distribution, scale, and market range of seaside resorts. This modern phase of expansion in **3S tourism** (i.e. sea, sand and sun) initially affected the warmer coastal regions of the more developed countries. Among the destination regions spawned by this trend were the French, Italian and Spanish Rivieras, the east coast of Florida (and the American **sunbelt** in general), the southern coast of Brazil, Australia's Gold Coast and Japan's Okinawa Island. Tourism development subsequently spread into adjacent parts of the Mediterranean, Caribbean, Atlantic, South Pacific and Indian Ocean basins.

The expansion of 3S tourism occurred at such a rate and extent that it was possible by the mid-1970s to discern the emergence of a pan-global **pleasure periphery** (Turner & Ash 1975). 'Pleasure' captures the hedonistic nature of the 3S product, while 'periphery' alludes to the marginal geographic and economic status of its constituent subregions, which straddle the advanced and emerging economies (figure 4.1). The Mediterranean basin is the oldest and largest (in terms of visitation) subcomponent, followed by the Caribbean basin. Less geographically coherent is a band of more recently developed 3S destinations extending from the South Pacific through

South-East Asia, coastal Australia and the Indian Ocean basin. Notable among these are the southern Chinese island-province of Hainan and the south-western Indian state of Kerala, where 3S tourism development is progressing rapidly but primarily in response to the explosive growth in the domestic rather than inbound tourism market. Domestic dynamics are also driving the rapid development of Brazil's coastal pleasure periphery (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

FIGURE 4.1 The pleasure periphery

Market preferences for 3S tourism in the advanced economies have led to the disproportionate importance of **small island states or dependencies (SISODs)**, such as Fiji, Barbados and the Seychelles, as pleasure periphery destinations (Carlsen & Butler 2011). Specifically, the world's 67 SISODs account for only 0.3 per cent of the global population and a miniscule percentage of the world's land area, but around 5 per cent of total international stayover arrivals.

Although best known for its 3S opportunities, the pleasure periphery has expanded to incorporate other types of tourism product. Skiing and other alpine-based winter sporting activities are now widespread in the North American Rockies, European Alps and the southern Andes, while wildlife-based activities are becoming increasingly important in destinations such as Kenya, Australia, New Zealand, Thailand and Costa Rica (see chapter 11).

Growth of emerging economies

Inbound tourist traffic into the emerging economies, and into the pleasure periphery in particular, traditionally occurred as a **north–south flow** involving North American, European and Japanese travellers. For Australians and New Zealanders the direction of flow is reversed, although the labels are still valid to the extent that the advanced economies together are sometimes symbolically referred to as the 'North'. This pattern, however, is now eroding due to accelerated economic growth within the emerging economies, which is generating a significant outbound tourist market among its emergent middle and upper classes, and creating greater complexity in the global tourism system. As noted in

chapter 3, the middle classes in Phase Three societies tend to visit nearby countries but begin to extend their visits to more prestigious long-haul destinations, often within the more developed world. The net result is that much of the inbound tourism growth in the emerging economies is accounted for by arrivals from other (usually nearby) emerging economies. In effect, the stereotype of the Australian tourist in Bali, or the Japanese tourist in Thailand is being challenged by the Brazilian tourist in Argentina, the Indian tourist in Dubai, the Chinese tourist in Malaysia and the Zambian tourist in Mozambique.

This movement of international tourists within the less developed world may be characterised as the third geographical stage of international tourism in the contemporary era. The stages are as follows:

- The first stage, involving the movement of international tourists within the more developed world, emerged in the post–World War II period and still accounts for perhaps half of all traffic (i.e. the 52 per cent share indicated in table 4.1 minus the approximately 2 per cent who are residents of emerging economies travelling to advanced economies — see figure 4.2).
- The second stage, largely associated with the emergence of the pleasure periphery after the late 1960s, involves movements of people from advanced economies to emerging economies. Approximately 25 per cent of international stayover traffic presently falls into this category.
- The third stage, involving traffic from one emerging economy to another, accounts for perhaps 20 per cent of all tourism but has the greatest growth potential. The realisation of this potential, however, will mean that many of these countries will have been reclassified as advanced economies.
- An emergent fourth stage, accounting for about 2 per cent of international tourism flows, involves residents of emerging economies visiting the advanced economies. Examples include the rapidly increasing growth in Chinese visitors to Australia and New Zealand.

Stage 1 Advanced economies to advanced economies
Stage 2 Advanced economies to emerging economies
Stage 3 Emerging economies to emerging economies
Stage 4 Emerging economies to advanced economies
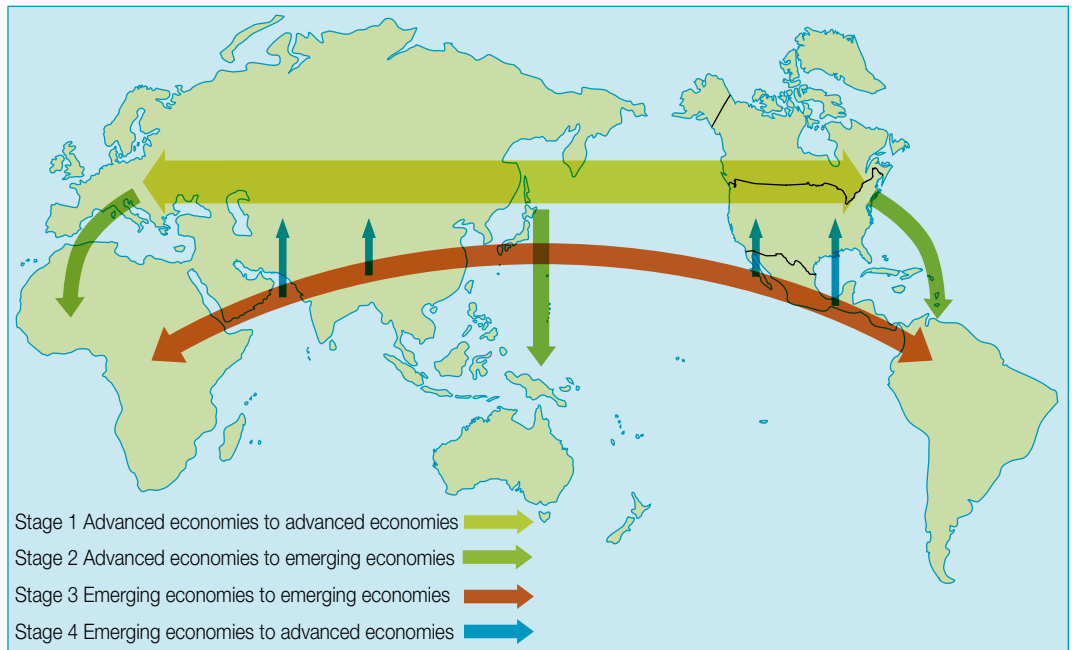
FIGURE 4.2 Four stages of contemporary international tourist flows

▪ PULL FACTORS INFLUENCING A DESTINATION

Two of the major forces (i.e. the fashionability of 3S tourism, and internal economic development) that have stimulated growth in the less developed world's share of the inbound tourist market have been explored. Consideration will now be given to the general factors that can potentially encourage or discourage tourist traffic to any particular destination. These **pull factors** differ from the push factors outlined in chapter 3 in being focused on the supply side of tourism (i.e. product or destination-based forces) rather than on tourist demand (i.e. market or origin-based forces). As with the *push factors*, the use of the term 'pull' is metaphorical rather than literal.

One important implication of this geographical differentiation between supply and demand is that destinations are better positioned to exert influence over the pull factors than they are over the push factors. For example, a destination does not normally influence whether another country evolves into a significant tourist-generating market, but it can take tangible measures to develop its supply of attractions and create a welcoming environment to attract potential visitors from that market. This issue of control will be considered in the discussion of each individual factor. No priority is intended in the order that these factors are presented, since the combination and relative importance of individual factors will vary between destinations.

Geographical proximity to markets

Controlling for all other factors, an inverse relationship is likely to exist between the volume of traffic flowing from an origin region to a destination region and the distance separating the two. That is, the number of visitors from origin X to destination Y will decrease as distance increases between X and Y, owing to higher transportation costs and longer travel times. This is known as a **distance–decay** effect (Lee et al. 2012). The volume of traffic will also be proportional to the size and prosperity of the origin region market, with large and wealthy markets from advanced economies generating larger potential flows (see Managing tourism: Visiting the neighbours).

managing tourism

VISITING THE NEIGHBOURS

Enthusiasm about the burgeoning Chinese outbound market in countries such as Australia is warranted, but should be tempered by the consideration that most such tourists remain very close to home. In 2011, 28.3 million visits were made from China to Hong Kong and 19.8 million to Macau, together accounting for 68 per cent of all outbound trips from China. South Korea was a distant third with 2.37 million visits, a 3.4 per cent share (COTRI 2012). Attractive because of their proximity and Chinese cultural affinities, Hong Kong and Macau were the first 'foreign' destinations to be opened to Chinese

tour groups in the early 1980s, and the first to have the Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) introduced in 2003, which allows visits from free and independent travellers (FITs). For both Hong Kong and Macau, the Chinese outbound market accounts for two-thirds or more of all arrivals, indicating a very high level of dependency. Visitation to Taiwan, however, is more embryonic since although it is also close by and Chinese in culture, matters are complicated by political tensions with a mainland government that regards it as a renegade province. Nevertheless, geopolitical pragmatism on the part of both governments led to Taiwan's emergence in 2011 as the fourth largest destination, with 1.85 million visits and a 2.5 per cent share of the market (TravelChinaGuide.com 2012). For the mainland Chinese government, mass contact between the two peoples represents a normalisation of relations that will facilitate eventual reunion. For the Taiwanese, Chinese tourism is a lucrative source of revenue and provides an opportunity to showcase the prosperity and independence of their island. Many mainland Chinese, for example, visit the mausoleum of Chiang Kai-Shek, the founder of the renegade Taiwan state, and are encouraged to show respect (Mishkin 2012). At popular tourist hotspots such as Sun Moon Lake, Chinese tourists are greeted by protesters waving the flag of independent Tibet — a criminal act on the mainland. China will continue to encourage visits to Taiwan, however, as long as it is perceived as a force for domestic stability and eventual reunification.

These basic relationships are discernible throughout the world. The Caribbean, Mediterranean and South-East Asian subregions of the pleasure periphery, for example, have traditionally been dominated respectively by American, European and Japanese outbound tourists. A distance–decay relationship is evident as well in the pattern of Australian outbound travel, with eight of the top ten destinations in both 2007 and 2011 being located in Oceania or Asia (figures 4.3 and 4.4). The changes in the rankings during this five-year interval also attest to the volatility of such patterns, as evidenced by the removal of Japan from the top ten in 2011, the addition of Fiji and the climbing rank of Indonesia. Although not apparent in either figure, the distance–decay effect also influences Australian outbound travel to the United States, where most visits are concentrated in the Pacific and western states of Hawaii, California and Nevada (the state where Las Vegas is located). Destination managers cannot alter the location of their city or country relative to the market, but distance can serve as an incentive (or disincentive if the distance is short) to pursue strategies such as more aggressive marketing that will help to compensate for this effect. These strategies may include attempts to reduce the psychological distance between the destination and target origin regions. Geographical proximity, however, is likely to become an increasingly important pull factor if energy costs continue to increase.

Accessibility to markets

The effects of distance can also be reduced by initiatives that make destinations more accessible to origin regions. **Structural accessibility** refers to the availability and quality of transportation linkages such as air routes, highways and ferry links within transit regions, and of gateway facilities such as seaports and airports within the destination and origin regions. The level of structural accessibility in a destination depends on many factors, including the availability of funds, physical barriers (including distance itself) and cooperation with other destinations as well as intervening jurisdictions in the transit region to establish effective air, land and/or water linkages.
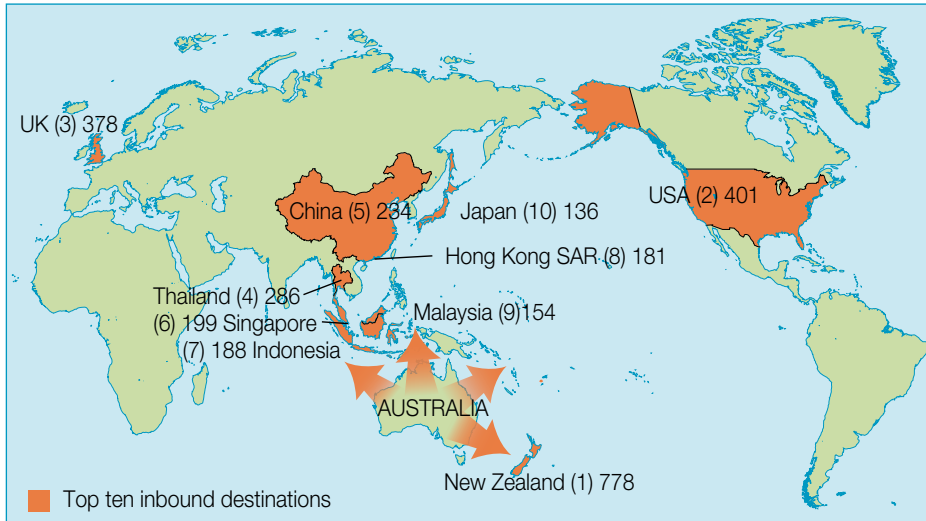
FIGURE 4.3 Main destinations for Australian outbound tourists, 2007 (year ending March)

Notes:
1 Rank of countries in parentheses.
2 Number beside country equals number of Australian outbound tourists received (in thousands).

Source: Data derived from TRA 2007a
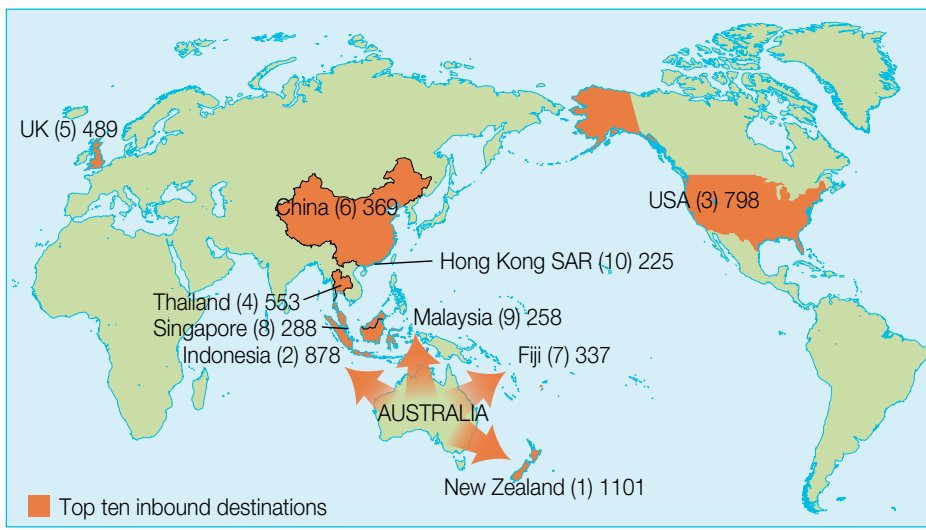
FIGURE 4.4 Main destinations for Australian outbound tourists, 2011

Notes:
1 Rank of countries in parentheses.
2 Number beside country equals number of Australian outbound tourists received (in thousands).

Source: Data derived from TRA 2012

Political accessibility refers to the conditions under which visitors are allowed entry into a destination. Except in totalitarian states such as North Korea, where severe restrictions on internal travel are imposed, political access is not a significant issue in domestic tourism. However, it is critical in international tourism. The right to allow or deny entry to potential arrivals from other countries is a basic sovereign prerogative

of all states, as discussed in chapter 2. In some cases this right has been eroded or conceded altogether through bilateral or multilateral treaties. Citizens and permanent residents of Australia and New Zealand, for example, share a reciprocal right to reside in each other's country for an indefinite period of time, conditional upon good behaviour. On a larger scale, the opening of boundaries between the countries of the European Union has meant that travel between Sweden and Finland or the United Kingdom and France is no longer mediated by any border formalities, and is therefore equivalent in effect to domestic tourism (Prokkola 2010). Such initiatives in border liberalisation, however, became subject to new scrutiny and criticism following the New York terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, given their effect of expediting the movements of individuals involved with terrorism. There is now a greater possibility, for example, that a 'Fortress Europe' will emerge wherein internal border liberalisation will be accompanied by the tightening of borders with adjacent countries in Eastern Europe and North Africa. Borders, therefore, remain a potentially formidable barrier to international tourist movements, and political access remains one of the pull factors over which destination countries (though not subnational destinations) can exercise a high level of control (Timothy 2012).

Government and the tourism industry often differ in their perceptions of the degree to which borders should be opened to inbound tourism. The immigration and security arms of national governments tend to favour stricter border controls (especially since September 2001), on the assumption that some international visitors may attempt to gain illegal entry or constitute a potential threat to the state in terrorism-related or other ways. In contrast, the business sector views tourists as potential customers, and is therefore supportive of more open borders and an internationally recognised right to travel. This view is usually shared by government departments responsible for the development and promotion of the tourism sector, if such bodies exist within that state. Most destination countries compromise between completely closed and completely open borders by requiring visitors to produce passports or visas and, in some cases, evidence of a local address and return fare.

Availability of services

The availability of hotels, restaurants, visitor bureaus and other specialised services and facilities is a type of structural accessibility, though sufficiently distinct from transportation-related phenomena to warrant separate consideration. Most tourists will avoid attractions if affiliated services are unavailable, overpriced or of poor quality. At a broader destination level, the presence of basic services non-specific to tourism — such as policing and medical facilities — is also essential. The private sector usually provides the tourism-related elements (except for visitor bureaus), while general services are provided by local governments (e.g. policing) or the private sector (e.g. banks). In general, the advanced economies are able to offer a superior level of general service provision because of their greater wealth and higher level of physical development.

Availability of attractions

A detailed discussion of tourist attractions is provided in chapter 5, but several introductory comments are appropriate here in relation to their pull effect and the question of control. There is widespread agreement among tourism researchers that attractions, because of their crucial role in drawing tourists, are the most important component of the tourism system, and a major factor around which the development of a destination will depend (Goeldner & Ritchie 2012). Attractions include specific features such as

theme parks and battlefields, and generic or non-specific features such as scenery and climate that cover a much larger territory. The presence of friends and relatives as well as business opportunities, which foster VFR (visits to friends and relatives) and business-related tourist flows respectively, are not normally included in the scope of 'attractions' although in a literal sense they do attract certain types of tourist, and facilitate inter-action with other attractions (e.g. friends taking a visitor to a local theme park). The ability of attractions to draw visitors depends among other factors on their quality, quantity, diversity, uniqueness, carrying capacity, market image and accessibility (see chapter 5).

Pre-existing and created attractions

With regard to the issue of the control that a destination has over its tourism assets, attractions range from those that are 'pre-existing' to those that are entirely 'created'. Examples of the former include climate and spectacular topographical or hydrological features (e.g. Uluru or Niagara Falls), or significant historical sites (e.g. the Hastings or Waterloo battlefields). Such features already exist independent of any tourism context, and it is really only a question of the extent to which tourism managers and planners exploit the available opportunities that they present. On the other hand, destinations usually possess a great deal of latitude for creating attractions to induce a tourist flow or augment the pre-existing attractions. Examples of augmentation can be found on the Gold Coast, where outstanding inherent natural attractions are supplemented by theme parks, shopping opportunities and other 'built' attractions that contribute to experience diversity. In some cases a locality with no significant inherent attractions may emerge as a major destination through the effective introduction of such 'built' opportunities. High profile examples from the United States include Disney World, established in the midst of a nondescript scrub pine and pasture landscape in central Florida, and Las Vegas, the well-known gambling, convention and entertainment venue in the Nevada desert. On a much smaller scale, certain Australian towns and cities have become known among tourists for their larger-than-life models of local symbols, including the Big Banana at Coffs Harbour, Nambour's Big Pineapple and Ballina's Big Prawn. Com-munities also have considerable scope for establishing events and festivals, usually on an annual basis, that may or may not focus on the local culture, economy or climate.

A final point to be made here about attractions is their susceptibility to fashion and social change, suggesting again that the ability of a destination to attract tourists is always subject to demand-side factors beyond its control. For instance, the emergence of the pleasure periphery was in large part a consequence of the high value assigned to sun exposure by Western societies during the latter half of the twentieth century, which converted beaches and warm climates into tourism resources. Throughout most of human history, the idea of lying on a beach to gain a suntan would have been considered ludicrous. Should sun exposure once again become unpopular due to con-cerns over its relationship to skin cancer and accelerated skin ageing, then the impli-cations for 3S destinations such as the Gold Coast, and Australia in general, could be ominous as tourism managers are forced to reinvent or abandon their product base. This might, for example, require 3S destinations to place more emphasis on contrived cultural attractions or wildlife-based tourism (see chapter 11).

Cultural and spiritual links

A desire to seek out exotic and unfamiliar venues has been an important motivating force for tourism throughout history. However, similarities in culture, language and religion also exert a powerful 'pull' influence in some types of tourism. This is partly

because of the increased likelihood that people will migrate to culturally familiar countries (e.g. Finnish people to Sweden, British people to Australia) and subsequently foster VFR tourist flows between their old and new countries. Close cultural links are the main factor underlying the status of the distant United Kingdom as an important destination for outbound Australian tourists (figures 4.3 and 4.4).

Immigration aside, religious links have generated significant spiritually motivated tourist flows, as illustrated by robust movements of American Jews to Israel, Muslim pilgrims to Saudi Arabia, Iranian Shi'ite visitors to Iraq, and Roman Catholics to Rome and Vatican City. In addition, the tendency of destinations to attract culturally similar markets attests to the importance of the convenience and risk-minimisation factors in tourism. Simply put, many tourists feel insecure or inconvenienced by having to cope with unfamiliar languages and social norms, and therefore prefer destinations similar to their own origin areas (see chapter 6). Every tourist, in effect, has to negotiate their own individual middle ground between the acceptance and avoidance of risk.

Affordability

All other factors being equal, reductions in cost generate increased tourist traffic to a destination, as demonstrated by the effect of distance on transportation costs. The cost of living in a destination region relative to an origin area is one important component, since a high proportion of total trip costs are normally incurred within the destination through food and accommodation expenditures. Many travellers from the more affluent countries are attracted to emerging economies such as Indonesia, Thailand or Costa Rica because of the low relative costs of locally denominated goods and services. However, this advantage may be lost in situations where accommodation and other tourist-related goods and services are priced in American dollars or other nonlocal currencies. Tourist flows, nevertheless, are sensitive to significant exchange rate fluctuations, as demonstrated by dramatic increases in the number of outbound Australians during the mid-2000s and concomitant stagnation in international tourist arrivals associated with the strong Australian dollar.

Destination managers can do little to influence cost of living differentials, given that these result from macrolevel forces such as the development process and global or regional economic dynamics, including the rapid economic growth of China and India. The situation is somewhat different with respect to exchange rates, as national governments can and do intervene in the money markets, or announce radical currency revaluations, when such actions are deemed to be in the national interest. Destinations within a currency bloc (such as most of the European Union), or within a country, however, have no such power. When a high national or bloc currency places the industry at a disadvantage, managers at the provincial or local level can attempt to offset its potentially negative effects through the implementation of price reductions and other incentives. For example, when the Canadian dollar was worth substantially less than the US dollar, American businesses commonly accepted the lower Canadian dollar at par to attract Canadian tourists. Alternatively, managers may restructure their marketing campaigns to attract higher-end markets that are less sensitive to price.

Peace, stability and safety

The tourist market is sensitive to any suggestion of social or political instability within a destination, given the in situ or 'on site' nature of consumption inherent to tourism — that is, consumers must travel to the product in order to engage in its 'consumption'. Accordingly, and not surprisingly, significant declines in tourist arrivals occur during

periods of warfare or other conflicts. In Israel, inbound arrivals during the first six months of 2001 were 53 per cent lower than during the comparable period one year earlier, due to the escalation in violence between the Israelis and Palestinians during the Second Intifada. One consequence was that the proportion of domestic guests in Israeli hotels increased from 53 per cent in September 2000 to 86 per cent in March 2002 (Israeli & Reichel 2003). Inbound arrivals in Lebanon, similarly, tend to fluctuate in concert with outbreaks of internal sectarian conflict (Issa & Altinay 2006).

The negative effect of war on tourism, moreover, is not necessarily confined to the actual war zone or period of conflict. The small decline in cumulative international stayover arrivals during 2003 (see table 3.1), for example, was due in large part to global uncertainty associated with both the prelude and aftermath of the invasion of Iraq by the United States.

Tourism-directed terrorism

The deliberate targeting of tourists and tourism facilities by terrorists is an increasingly disturbing trend that has resulted from several factors (Larsen 2011; Smith, V. 2004). Among these is the knowledge that the disruption of tourist flows can have severe economic and sociopolitical repercussions in countries where this sector makes a significant contribution to GNP. This was the main intent of the radical Islamic groups that launched a series of attacks on foreign tourists in Egypt during the 1990s. Similarly, the bombings of two nightclubs in Bali by Muslim radicals in 2002, which killed 200 people and injured another 300, had the desired effect of temporarily reducing hotel occupancy rates from 75 to 10 per cent in some parts of the island (Henderson 2003). A bomb attack in Bulgaria on 18 July 2012 killed five Israeli tourists, and normal levels of Israel tourism to the country were re-established one month later only because of high level intervention by both governments to restore visitor confidence (Novinite.com 2012). Non-visitation following such incidents is interesting given the extremely small risk of being personally killed or injured by a terrorist attack, whereas the much greater probability of suffering serious injuries or death from car accidents has had little dissuasive effect on holiday travel decisions in countries such as Australia (Larsen 2011). These attacks on foreigners (and wealthy, white foreigners in particular) are guaranteed to generate the publicity and media coverage sought by terrorist groups, while tourists and tourism facilities make easy and 'cost-effective' targets compared with military and political sites that are better secured against terrorist attacks.

An extremely important factor is the expansion of tourism into some remote areas of the pleasure periphery where insurgent and terrorist groups are already established and where it is difficult to ensure the security of visitors. On occasion, tourists have become attractive targets for kidnappers because of the ransom payments they generate. The kidnapping and subsequent release of 9 foreign tourists in Colombia's Tayrona National Park by leftist guerillas in 2003 is illustrative (Ospina 2006). As of 2013, the Sahel and Sahara regions of Africa were also areas where foreign tourists were exposed to a high risk of attack and abduction by Islamic extremists.

Other personal safety issues

Beyond the macro-level forces of war, unrest and terrorism, destination viability is affected by the extent to which tourists perceive a place to offer a high level of personal safety in terms of everyday health and wellbeing. Dissuasive factors include high crime levels (see chapter 9), susceptibility to natural disasters such as earthquakes and hurricanes, unsafe drinking water and food, and the prevalence of diseases such as malaria and AIDS. In the aftermath of the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, hotel managers

in Thailand have had to find a balance between providing sufficient warning and safety facilities, and avoiding a pervasive sense of unease among guests as to the attendant levels of risk. Notably, the 2011 tsunami in Fukushima, Japan, generated elevated levels of risk concern among hotel guests in Thailand despite the geographical distance between the two locations (Rittichainuwat 2013). Tourist deaths and injuries associated with traffic-related and other accidents can also generate negative market perceptions, prompting some destinations to pursue strategies that attempt to minimise their occurrence. The Commonwealth and state governments of Australia, for example, have collaborated to publish the *National Visitor Safety Handbook* to warn inbound tourism of risks such as riptides, sunstroke and marine stingers (National Visitor Safety Program 2008).

Positive market image

Image is the sum of beliefs, attitudes and impressions held by a person or group of people towards some phenomenon (Lee, C-K. et al. 2012). Generally speaking, images can be either descriptive (e.g. the objective perception that the Gold Coast is a seaside resort) or evaluative (the subjective perception that the Gold Coast is tacky and overdeveloped). Destination images are often an amalgam of assessments related to previously described pull factors such as accessibility, attractions, cultural links, affordability, stability and safety. Such images are immensely important in discretionary forms of tourism such as recreational vacations where the destination is not predetermined by business or social considerations. This, again, is because the product, at least for first-time visitors, is an intangible one that cannot be directly experienced prior to its consumption (i.e. prior to the actual visit).

In such cases, potential visitors rely on their images in deciding to patronise one destination over another. Accordingly, image research within tourism studies has traditionally focused on the market awareness and evaluation of destinations and their products as a means of informing the marketing effort. The outcomes of this research often lead destination managers to manipulate their public symbols and promotion in order to improve their market image. This is illustrated by Australia's Gold Coast, where the 'Green Behind the Gold' campaign of the late 1990s tried to capitalise on the proximity of the rainforest to the beach. This gave way in the early 2000s to the 'Very GC' campaign, which at first attempted to convey a cool, sophisticated and upmarket image to recruit new markets, and later adopted a more family-oriented set of images to reinforce traditional markets. In 2013, the 'Famous for Fun' campaign focused on the traditional strength of the core hedonistic attractions, and was intended to evoke a sense of excitement, boundless energy, fun and joy (Tourism Queensland 2013) (see figure 4.5).

FIGURE 4.5 Gold Coast — Famous for Fun

To eventuate in an actual visit, the potential tourist must first be aware that a destination exists. This is seldom a problem for high-profile destination countries such as the United States, France, China or Australia, but a major problem for more obscure countries such as Namibia, Suriname or Qatar, or for less known places within individual countries. Next, it is vital that the awareness of the potential destination is positive. The continuing unrest in Syria, for example, has made this relatively obscure country familiar

to potential tourists in Australia and other emerging economies. However, the negative nature of this awareness ensures that most travellers will still avoid it. As described earlier, it is often a question of 'guilt by association', as the tourist market extends what is happening in Syria to the entire Middle East. Similarly, the unsophisticated would-be tourist may apply a national stereotype to all destinations within a particular country, perceiving for example all Swiss localities in tired alpine/lederhosen terms, or all Californian cities as 'free-fire' zones dominated by street gangs. These stereotypes complicate the ability of tourist destination managers and marketers to disseminate a positive image to the tourism market. A discussion of tourism marketing, which includes the attempt to manipulate destination image within particular tourist markets, is provided in chapter 7.

Pro-tourism policies

Beyond the effect of political accessibility as described earlier, the pull effect of a destination can be positively influenced by the introduction and reinforcement of pro-tourism policies. Governments, for example, can and often do employ awareness campaigns among the resident population to promote a welcoming attitude towards visitors, in order to foster a positive market image. However, because such campaigns depend on widespread social engineering, and because their effects can be counteracted by random or deliberate acts of violence, positive outcomes cannot be guaranteed. Furthermore, it is the behaviour of some tourists, and the structure and development of tourism itself, that often generate negative attitudes within the host community (see chapter 9). This implies that major structural changes to tourism itself, rather than awareness campaigns, may be required to foster a welcoming attitude.

In contrast, more control is possible at the micro-level, as when employers encourage and reward the pro-tourist behaviour of individual hotel employees, travel guides and customs officials. Other pro-tourism measures available to governments include the creation of trans-boundary parks that encourage the cross-border flow of tourists. The reduction or elimination of tourism-related taxes and duties is another option. The willingness of government to initiate financial incentives, however, is usually limited by its concurrent desire to maximise the revenues obtained from the tourism sector (see chapter 8).

■ REGIONAL DESTINATION PATTERNS

The uneven distribution and growth of the global tourism sector is evident dualistically in the changing balance of stayovers between the advanced and emerging economies. International tourist destination patterns will now be examined from a regional perspective, along with the combinations of factors that have given rise to these patterns. The regions are outlined below in their order of importance as recipients of tourist arrivals. Table 4.2 provides stayover and population data (actual numbers and percentage shares) by major global regions and subregions, as defined by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). Data for the individual countries that comprise each region and subregion are provided in appendix 2. It must be emphasised that these and all other stayover statistics in this book are impeded (as a basis for comparing the level of tourist activity between destinations) by their failure to take into account the average length of stay. For example, a destination receiving 100 000 stayovers per year with an average stay of ten nights (one million visitor nights) probably has a greater level of tourism intensity than a destination that receives 200 000 stayovers per year with an average stay of just three nights (600 000 visitor nights).

Region/Subregion	Arrivals (million)	Percentage of all arrivals	Population[1] (million)	Percentage of world population
Europe	**477**	**52.8**	**901**	**13.3**
Northern Europe	58	6.4	92	1.4
Western Europe	154	17.1	189	2.8
Central/Eastern Europe	95	10.5	384	5.7
Southern/Mediterranean Europe	170	18.8	236	3.5
Asia and the Pacific	**204**	**22.6**	**3787**	**56.1**
North-East Asia	112	12.4	1571	23.3
South-East Asia	70	7.8	591	8.8
Australia/South Pacific	12	1.3	37	0.5
South Asia	11	1.2	1588	23.5
The Americas	**150**	**16.6**	**929**	**13.8**
North America	98	10.9	454	6.7
Caribbean	20	2.2	42	0.6
Central America	8	0.9	42	0.6
South America	24	2.7	391	5.8
Middle East	**60**	**6.6**	**186**	**2.8**
Africa	**49**	**5.4**	**950**	**14.1**
North Africa	19	2.1	128	1.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	30	3.3	822	12.2
World	**903.2**	**100.0**	**6753**	**100.0**

TABLE 4.2 International stayover arrivals by UNWTO region and subregion, 2010

Note:

1 Includes only those countries reporting data to the WTO.

Source: Population Reference Bureau (2011), UNWTO (2012b)

Europe

Europe remains by far the most overrepresented destination region relative to population, its mix of advanced and emerging economies accommodating 13 per cent of the world's population but 54 per cent of all stayovers in 2010. This dominant position is further indicated by the fact that six of the top ten destination countries, and 11 of the top 20 (including Turkey), were European (see table 4.3). The push and pull factors discussed in chapter 3 and earlier in this chapter, respectively, are all well-articulated in this region. For example, densely populated and prosperous states usually share several common land borders (9 in the case of Germany), making international travel convenient and affordable. Excellent land and air infrastructure facilitates traffic through increasingly open borders, while the widespread adoption of the euro as a common regional currency eliminates the need to obtain foreign notes or allow for exchange rate differentials in trip budgeting. Tourist and nontourist services are generally excellent, and attractions range from outstanding and diverse historical and cultural opportunities to the natural attributes of the Mediterranean coast, the boreal forests of Scandinavia and the Alps. Since 1950, the western half of Europe has experienced a high level of political and economic stability, while the disintegration of the former Soviet Union eliminated most of the political uncertainty fostered by the Cold War. All these factors have contributed to a market image of 'Europe' as a safe and rewarding destination brand that has not yet been seriously undermined by occasional terrorist attacks or residual ethnic conflict in regions such as the Balkans or the Caucasus.

TABLE 4.3 Top 20 destination countries, 2010

Rank	Country	Inbound stayovers (million)	Increase 2002–10(%)	Economic status
1	France	76.8	–0.3	Advanced
2	USA	59.7	42.5	Advanced
3	China	55.7	51.4	Emerging
4	Spain	52.7	1.8	Advanced
5	Italy	43.6	9.5	Advanced
6	United Kingdom	28.1	16.2	Advanced
7	Turkey	27.0	110.9	Emerging
8	Germany	26.9	49.4	Advanced
9	Malaysia	24.6	85.0	Emerging
10	Mexico	22.4	13.9	Emerging
11	Austria	22.0	18.3	Advanced
12	Ukraine	21.2	234.9	Emerging
13	Russia	20.3	155.7	Emerging
14	Hong Kong SAR	20.1	21.3	Advanced
15	Canada	16.1	–19.7	Advanced
16	Thailand	15.8	45.4	Emerging
17	Greece	15.0	5.8	Advanced
18	Egypt	14.1	187.8	Emerging
19	Poland	12.5	–10.6	Emerging
20	Macau	11.9	81.1	Advanced

Source: Data derived from UNWTO (2012b)

Geographically, these qualities, and hence intensity of tourism activity, are most evident in western Europe. Eastern Europe is more complex, with former Soviet bloc states such as Poland, the Czech Republic and Hungary already tourism-intensive because of their proximity to western Europe and their systematic incorporation into the European Union (Hall, Marciszweska & Smith 2006). This saturation effect, and the accompanying erosion of the novelty factor, together help to account for Poland's poor performance in attracting tourist arrivals between 2002 and 2010 (see table 4.3). Concurrently exceptional growth rates for Russia and Ukraine indicate that Western Europeans are seeking out more novel tourist experiences in the eastern periphery of Europe. These more easterly countries, however, continue to experience problems with accessibility and services, as well as residual post–Cold War tensions.

Asia–Pacific

The Asia–Pacific region represents the reverse situation to Europe with respect to relative share of population and stayover totals. However, its size and diversity warrant analysis at the subregional level.

North-East Asia

North-East Asia has a large subregional tourism sector in absolute numbers, but this pales in comparison with its one-quarter share of the global population. With almost three-quarters of the intake, China and Hong Kong together dominate the market. To place China's current status as the world's number three destination in perspective, it is interesting to note that only 303 foreign visitors were allowed to enter the country in 1968 (Zhang, Pine & Zhang 2000). Since the 1970s, the Chinese government has expanded inbound tourism through a policy of **incremental access** that has seen the number of cities open to inbound tourists increase from 60 in 1979 to 1068 by 1994. Most of China is now accessible to foreign tourists, except for some areas near international borders and military sites, as well as parts of Tibet and Xinjiang where ethnic tensions have increased in recent years. Nevertheless, inbound tourism remains concentrated in eastern cities such as Shanghai, Beijing and Shenzhen. China is unique in that a high proportion of inbound tourists are 'compatriots', or ethnic Chinese residents of Taiwan, Hong Kong SAR and Macau SAR.

South-East Asia

Next in relative importance on a subregional basis is South-East Asia, where the proportional share of population does not as dramatically exceed its share of stayovers as in North-East Asia. The internal subregional pattern is diverse, with Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand displaying the most developed and diversified tourism sectors, while Cambodia and Laos remain in an incipient phase (see Technology and tourism: Getting mended in Malaysia). The former three countries have benefited from the presence of major transit hubs, good infrastructure, prolonged political and social stability, a diverse array of high-quality attractions, favourable exchange rates relative to major tourist markets, a mostly positive market image and the pursuit of pro-tourism policies by government. Large and prosperous ethnic Chinese populations also engage in extensive travel between these countries. The emergence of Indonesia as an important destination country has been curtailed since the late 1990s by political and social instability, which culminated in the Bali bombings of 2002.

technology and tourism

GETTING MENDED IN MALAYSIA

Medical tourism as a niche subsector has increased dramatically in Malaysia, growing from 39 000 foreign patients in 1998 to 341 000 in 2007. The reason for this growth is partly related to the country's upper middle income status, which makes available state-of-the-art medical technology in specialised facilities at a relatively low cost compared with more developed destinations such as Singapore. A specific stimulus was the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s, which forced many private paying patients into the public healthcare system, and therefore forced private providers to cultivate new markets. Certain hospitals are now certified providers of medical tourism services. A recent survey of 470 outpatients at these facilities revealed the dominance of the Indonesian and Singaporean markets, which accounted for 72 per cent and 23 per cent respectively (Yeoh, Othman & Ahmad 2013). Aside from the matter of geographical accessibility, it may be that

Indonesians are attracted in particular by the technology, while Singaporeans favour the cheaper costs. Most declared procedures involved a one-week stay and were related to bones (8.9 per cent), eyes (8.2 per cent) and heart (7.4 per cent). Over 60 per cent were repeat medical visitors to Malaysia. Most medical tourists originally found out about these options through referrals from friends (44 per cent) and family (38 per cent) and only rarely from hospital websites (5 per cent). The former sources probably provide a necessary level of trust and confidence for making a decision that has important personal health implications, and this is likely to reinforce the Indonesian and Singaporean connections. The rapidly ageing demography of Singapore also ensures robust long-term demand. One disadvantage for Malaysia is the continuing dependency on just two markets (i.e. Singapore and Indonesia). This, however, is somewhat offset by the reduced need to recruit new customers, which can cost five times more per capita than retaining existing ones.

Australia/South Pacific (Oceania)

International tourism in Oceania is impeded by the relative remoteness of this region from major market sources, but facilitated by high-profile natural attractions. The regional image, however, has been harmed by instability in Fiji and the Solomon Islands as well as persistently high crime in parts of Papua New Guinea. As is the Caribbean, the South Pacific islands are overrepresented as a tourist destination, accounting for about 0.5 per cent of the global population, but 1.2 per cent of stayovers (see table 4.2). To an even higher degree than in the Caribbean, tourism in the region is unevenly distributed, with just two of 22 destination states or dependencies (Guam and the Northern Mariana Islands, both US dependencies) accounting for almost two-thirds of all stayovers. Also similarly to the Caribbean, Oceania is a subregion of the pleasure periphery where historic and contemporary political and economic linkages largely dictate the nature of local tourism systems. Guam, for example, is dominated by Japanese and American tourists, New Caledonia by French visitors, and the Cook Islands by New Zealanders. Australia, influential in the tourism systems of several Oceanic destinations, including Papua New Guinea, Fiji and Vanuatu, is considered as a specific destination country under a separate subsection later in this chapter.

South Asia

South Asia is the most underrepresented inbound tourism region relative to population, with almost one-quarter of the world's people but just over one per cent of its inbound tourists. A negative regional destination image, a rudimentary network of services and facilities, widespread poverty and distance from major markets are all factors that have contributed to this deficit. Recent events and issues that have exacerbated the negative image of the region include the ongoing conflict in Afghanistan, the acquisition of nuclear technology by Pakistan and ongoing sectarian violence in that country, the Maoist insurgency in Nepal and parts of India, the rogue state status of Iran and rising tensions with the United States, and the Indian Ocean tsunami of 2004. Nevertheless, pleasure periphery enclaves flourish in the Maldives as well as in the Indian states of Goa and Kerala.

The Americas

The Americas are overrepresented as a regional tourist destination relative to their population, although only marginally. However, as in Asia, this status disguises significant variations in the relative importance of tourism at the subregional level.

North America

North America accounts for about 7 per cent of the global population, but 11 per cent of all stayovers. Consisting of only three countries (the United States, Mexico and Canada), North America accommodates two of the world's largest bilateral tourist flows: United States – Canada, and United States – Mexico. Some 80 per cent of all inbound tourists to Canada are from the United States, while Canadians account for at least one-third of all arrivals to the United States. Proximity is the primary factor accounting for these flows, given that more than 90 per cent of Canadians reside within a one-day drive to the United States. Other factors include strong cultural affinities, the complementarity of attractions (i.e. Americans seeking the open spaces of Canada, and Canadians travelling to the American Sunbelt during winter), good two-way infrastructural and political accessibility (i.e. through the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)), and a highly stable political and social situation in both countries. A somewhat less open border has been evident since the 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States; in Mexico's case, this has been exacerbated by the issues of illegal migrants and drug trafficking.

The Caribbean

Owing to its endowment of 3S resources and its accessibility and proximity to the United States, the Caribbean has emerged as one of the world's most tourism-intensive subregions, with 0.6 per cent of the world's population but 2.2 per cent of its stayovers. The Caribbean is also the single most important region for the cruise ship industry and the region in which the cruise ship industry has the greatest presence relative to tourism as a whole (Dowling 2006). This general level of overrepresentation, however, disguises major internal variations. Haiti and the Republic of Trinidad & Tobago both have relatively weak tourism sectors, which belie the region's image as the personification of the pleasure periphery. In the former case this is due to chronic political instability and extreme poverty, and in the latter case due to an economy sustained by oil wealth and manufacturing. Cuba's potential, as described in chapter 2, has been hindered by the imposition of restrictions by the US government. In contrast, Caribbean SISODs such as the Bahamas, Antigua and Saint Lucia are among the world's most tourism-dependent countries. Jamaica is also a tourism-intensive destination but has a destination image that is suffering due to rising levels of serious crime (Altinay et al. 2007).

South and Central America

South and Central America, unlike North America, are underrepresented as international tourist destinations. Spatially, the highest levels of international tourist traffic occur in the southern destinations of Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil and Chile, which each had at least 1.7 million tourist arrivals during 2010. Most of this traffic is from other subregional countries, given the isolation from major international markets. Factors that account for the overall underrepresentation of South America include isolation from the major origin regions of North America and Europe, poor accessibility and a general lack of international standard tourism services. Residual market negativity also persists as a consequence of historical experiences with political instability, hyperinflation and economic uncertainty.

The Middle East

The Middle East is overrepresented as a destination region. However, as we have seen with all the other regions, this fact obscures a pattern of dramatic internal variability. For example, Egypt and Jordan have relatively strong tourism industries, while Saudi

Wild Wadi Water Park, Dubai

Arabia's robust tourism sector consists almost entirely of Muslim pilgrims visiting Mecca and other holy sites associated with Islam. In contrast, international leisure tourism is embryonic in Yemen and Libya, and almost non-existent in Iraq or Syria. The Middle East, as a Muslim-dominated region, has been disproportionately harmed by the terrorism of September 2001 and the subsequent 'war on terrorism', although this has not negatively affected the growth of innovative destinations such as Dubai and Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates, and Doha in Qatar.

Africa

Africa as a region displays a high discrepancy between population share and stayover share. This underrepresentation can be accounted for by the persistently negative image of Africa in the tourist market, foreign exchange constraints, chronic political instability, insufficient skilled labour to develop the industry, and weak institutional frameworks that inhibit effective tourism planning and management. Other factors include widespread corruption, distance from the major markets, competition from more stable intervening opportunities, rudimentary infrastructure and concerns over personal safety due to high crime rates and widespread infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS.

Africa, similarly to South and Central America, is characterised by a skewed pattern of spatial distribution that favours the extreme north (e.g. Tunisia and Morocco) and the extreme south (e.g. South Africa and Botswana), although chronic political instability in Zimbabwe has continued to threaten the relatively positive market image of southern Africa as of 2013. Tourism in the north is fuelled by 3S-motivated tourists from Europe, while intra-regional sources dominate the south. Middle and West Africa are minor destinations for international tourist arrivals that embody the dissuasive factors outlined earlier, although some of these countries are displaying evidence of tourism growth (see Breakthrough tourism: Rwanda on the threshold?). The largest African state in terms of inbound stayovers, South Africa, managed a global ranking of only thirtieth place in 2010, based on just over 8 million arrivals.

breakthrough tourism

RWANDA ON THE THRESHOLD?

During the 1990s, Rwanda symbolised all the perceived problems of sub-Saharan Africa. Intertribal genocide in 1994 claimed the lives of almost one million Rwandans and cast a pall over the small country, adding to an existing negative image of poverty, overcrowding, political instability and environmental degradation. Rwanda's support of any kind of tourism was, for the most part, based on small VFR flows and a few adventure tourists seeking encounters with the mountain gorillas of remote Volcanoes National Park. Given this history, many are surprised to learn that Rwanda now has one of the fastest growing tourism industries in Africa. In 2010, 666 000 international tourists visited the country, and the US$200 million they injected into the national economy represented

a 14 per cent increase over 2009. About 95 per cent of visitors are VFR or business travellers mostly from within Africa and the Rwandan diaspora. The leisure component, while comprising only about 5 per cent, consists of high-yield Europeans and Americans. This economically vital component has been steadily increasing since the government designated tourism as a strategic priority, became engaged in more aggressive publicity campaigns, and created a more business-friendly investment environment. Many international tour operators continue to spread a negative image, but those who actually visited Rwanda in the early 2000s reported high satisfaction due to their experience of the country as safe, stable, friendly, scenic and clean (Grosspietsch 2006). Kigali, the capital city, has excellent facilities and services, and therefore provides a positive initial 'gateway' experience for international arrivals. Kigali hotel owners, who are mainly Rwandan, echo a sense of optimism but cite skill deficits, low service standards, poor access to financing, inadequate infrastructure and over-reliance on gorilla tourism as obstacles that need to be overcome before Rwanda can be considered a fully 'normal' country for tourism and a role model for other sub-Saharan destinations (Gatsinzi & Donaldson 2010).

Australia

Australia's share of the global inbound market steadily increased from 0.15 per cent in 1965 to a peak of 0.72 in 2000 before declining slightly but steadily since then (see table 4.4). It ranked in the thirty-seventh position in 2010, up from fortieth in 2007, but down from the thirty-fourth position in 2002. High growth in the late 1980s represented not only good conditions in major market economies, but also the staging of high-profile events such as the 1988 bicentennial of European settlement and the international exposition in Brisbane that same year. Subsequent decline, accordingly, should be interpreted at least in part as a correction or normalisation of visitor intakes following these major events. The same effect occurred in the wake of the 2000 Sydney Olympics, while subsequent fluctuations reflect its vulnerability as a long-haul destination with a volatile currency.

TABLE 4.4 International stayover arrivals in Australia, 1965–2011

Year	Number of arrivals (000s)	Growth (%)	Percentage of global stay over arrivals	Year	Number of arrivals (000s)	Growth (%)	Percentage of global stay over arrivals
1965	173	—	0.15	2003	4746	–2.0	0.69
1970	338	—	0.20	2004	5215	9.9	0.69
1975	516	—	0.23	2005	5499	5.5	0.68
1980	905	—	0.32	2006	5532	0.6	0.65
1985	1143	—	0.35	2007	5644	2.0	0.63
1990	2215	—	0.48	2008	5586	–1.0	0.61
1995	3724	—	0.66	2009	5584	0.0	0.63

(continued)

TABLE 4.4 (*continued*)

Year	Number of arrivals (000s)	Growth (%)	Percentage of global stay over arrivals	Year	Number of arrivals (000s)	Growth (%)	Percentage of global stay over arrivals
2000	4931	—	0.72	2010	5885	5.4	0.63
2001	4856	−1.5	0.71	2011	5875	−0.2	0.60
2002	4841	−0.3	0.69				

Source: ABS (2001, 2005 and 2008); ONT (1998); WTO (1998a); TRA (2012a)

TABLE 4.5 Australian 2011 top ten inbound countries, 1995–2011

2011 rank	Country	1995 arrivals (000s)	Share (%)	2003 arrivals (000s)	Share (%)	2011 arrivals (000s)	Share (%)
1	New Zealand	538	14.5	839	17.7	1173	20.0
2	United Kingdom	365	9.8	673	14.2	608	10.3
3	China	43	1.1	176	3.7	542	9.2
4	United States	305	8.2	422	8.9	456	7.8
5	Japan	783	21.0	628	13.2	333	5.7
6	Singapore	202	5.4	253	5.3	318	5.4
7	Malaysia	108	2.9	156	3.3	241	4.1
8	South Korea	168	4.5	207	4.4	198	3.4
9	Germany	124	3.3	138	2.9	154	2.6
10	India	17	0.5	46	1.0	148	2.5
	All others	1073	28.8	1208	25.5	1704	29.0
	Total	**3726**	**100.0**	**4746**	**100.0**	**5875**	**100.0**

Source: Data derived from ABS (2003), TRA (2012a)

Australia's inbound traffic is diverse, and this is a characteristic deliberately cultivated by the federal and state governments in order to avoid dependency on one or two primary markets. As shown in table 4.5, New Zealand retains a dominant and growing share of the market despite its small population, while the decline of Japan and the concomitant ascent of China is another notable pattern. Also sustaining Australia's inbound tourism industry is a low profile but stable group of Asian countries that includes Singapore, Malaysia and South Korea.

■ INTERNAL DESTINATION PATTERNS

The consideration of destinations has thus far been directed towards the global and regional levels, with individual countries, for the sake of simplicity, being treated as uniform entities. In reality, the spatial distribution of tourism within countries also tends to be uneven. This **subnational inequality** is evident even in small pleasure periphery destinations such as Zanzibar (Tanzania), where tourism accommodations are concentrated at seaside locations or in the capital city (figure 4.6). In general, water-focused resources such as coastlines, lakes, rivers and waterfalls are considered potentially attractive as tourist venues in most destinations, and therefore help to promote a spatially uneven pattern of tourism development.

FIGURE 4.6 Hotel accommodation supply in Zanzibar

Large urban concentrations also tend to harbour a significant portion of a country's tourism sector. This is because of their status as international gateways, the high level of accommodation and other tourism-related services that they provide, the availability of important urban tourist attractions, and their status as prominent venues for business and VFR tourism. Within these cities the pattern of tourism distribution is

also uneven, being highly concentrated in downtown districts where accommodation, restaurants and attractions are usually clustered. The management implications of spatial concentration are compounded in many destinations by the concurrent presence of temporal concentrations, or the tendency of tourism activity to be focused on particular times of the year. The issue of seasonality is addressed more thoroughly in chapter 8.

Urban–rural fringe

Adding to the complexity of internal distribution patterns is the increasing concentration of tourism activity in the transitional **urban–rural fringe** (or **exurbs**) that combines urban and rural characteristics and benefits from proximity to each. There is increasing evidence that tourism in such areas has at least three distinctive characteristics that require special management considerations (Weaver 2005).

- It has a distinct combination of products that may include theme and amusement parks, **tourist shopping villages** (small towns such as Tamborine Mountain and Maleny (Queensland) where the downtown is dominated by tourist-oriented businesses), factory outlet malls and golf courses (see Contemporary issue: What makes a successful tourist shopping village?).
- Distinct market characteristics are evident in the preponderance of excursionists who use overnight accommodation in nearby urban areas, and in the presence of **hyperdestinations**, usually tourist shopping villages, where tourist arrivals dramatically outnumber local residents. In the case of Tamborine Mountain, 7000 residents host each year approximately 500 000 visitors. A high proportion of these visitors, moreover, are residents of nearby urban areas who may or may not meet the travel distance thresholds associated with domestic tourism. This all suggests that revenues derived largely from the use of overnight accommodation are minimal and might not compensate for the congestion and utility use generated by large numbers of visitors.
- Management of exurban tourism is complicated by the fact this zone is inherently unstable, in transition and characterised by conflict among the diverse users of this exceptionally complex space.

contemporary issues

WHAT MAKES A SUCCESSFUL TOURIST SHOPPING VILLAGE?

With extremely high tourist-to-host ratios and locations within the transitioning rural–urban fringe, tourist shopping villages appear to be at risk of severely negative environmental and social impacts. These include periodic congestion, invasion of residents' privacy and rampant development. Research has demonstrated, however, that such communities can thrive under the right circumstances. Murphy and colleagues (2012) identified the factors that made for successful tourist shopping villages in Australia, New Zealand and Canada. Most of the Australian examples were located in the rural–urban fringe and included Mount Tamborine and Montville (Qld), Hahndorf (SA), Leura (NSW) and Healesville (Vic.). One of the most important factors was the ability to preserve a definable heritage theme,

especially along the main shopping street, thereby providing an attractive landscape and unique sense of place. Hahndorf, for example, has successfully preserved and projected a traditional German theme. A variety of unique, high-quality and 'authentic' local food and other goods serves as a necessary complement, with the food available as part of an onsite dining experience. Here again, Hahndorf is noted for its diversity of food and shopping opportunities. The retail district in a successful tourist shopping village is concentrated and well served by adjacent tourist facilities such as toilets and parking areas. These should be in locations that do not detract from the aesthetic amenity of the main shopping street, but are still convenient, safe and efficient. Extensive pedestrian-friendly streetscaping adds to an attractive appearance and enjoyable experience, while abundant but unobtrusive signage efficiently directs visitors to their desired destinations. Finally, formal planning structures are required to ensure that these characteristics are achieved in an integrated, efficient manner that pleases the visitors but does not inconvenience local residents, even as exurbanisation brings about rapid change in the surrounding area.

The Australian pattern

Australia is no exception to the universal pattern of spatial concentration. At the state level, New South Wales, Queensland and Victoria together account for three quarters of all domestic and inbound visitor-nights, with a somewhat greater dispersal evident in the domestic sector due to the higher incidence of business and VFR traffic (see table 4.6). However, if considered at the level of Australia's 76 official tourism regions, the true extent of concentration becomes more evident. As shown in figure 4.7, the top 16 regions accounted for 75 per cent of all accommodation room-nights in Australia (domestic and inbound combined) during the 2012 September quarter. Moreover, only two of these top regions (Australian Capital Territory and Central New South Wales) are non-coastal. Sydney and Melbourne together accounted for almost one in three occupied rooms during that period.

TABLE 4.6 Distribution of domestic and inbound visitor-nights in Australia by destination state or territory, 2011–12

State/ territory	No. of inbound visitor nights (000s)	Percentage of all inbound visitor nights	No. of domestic visitor nights (000s)	Percentage of all domestic visitor nights	Percentage of national population
NSW	67 299	33	81 987	30	33
Qld	42 107	21	73 698	27	20
Vic.	44 614	22	54 075	20	25
WA	27 660	14	27 320	10	10
SA	9 497	5	18 395	6	7
Tas.	3 111	1	8 938	3	2
NT	3 491	2	6 161	2	1
ACT	4 425	2	5 097	2	2
Total	202 204	100	275 671	100	100

Note:
Refers to Australians 15 years of age and older. For year ending September 30, 2012

Source: TRA (2012b, 2012c)
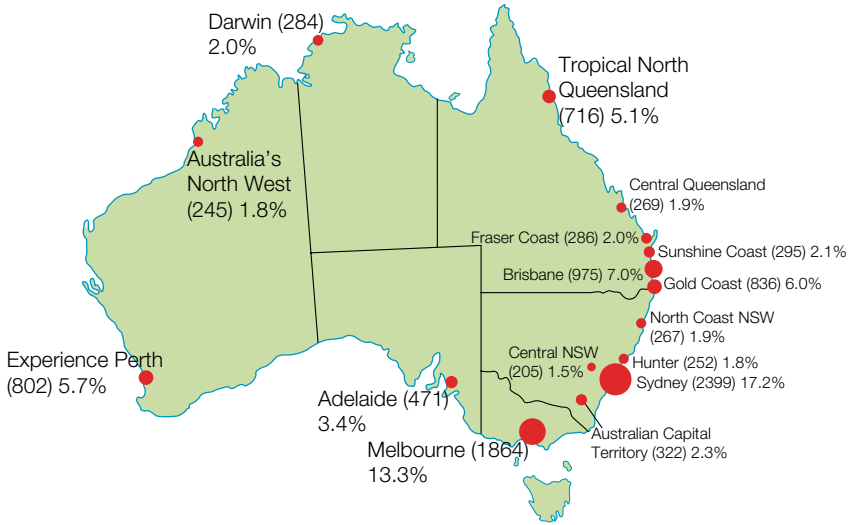
FIGURE 4.7 Top 16 tourism regions in Australia by number and percentage of all accommodation room-nights, 2011

Source: ABS (2012)

CHAPTER REVIEW

Most inbound tourism still accrues to the advanced economies. However, the share of the emerging economies is steadily increasing due firstly to the emergence of 3S tourism as a major form of activity after 1950. Furthermore, economic growth and the appearance of a substantial middle class within the emerging economies are promoting increased inbound travel between the emerging economies as well as to the advanced economies. The formation of a pleasure periphery at the interface of the advanced and emerging economies is indicative of tourism's increasing status as a global economic activity and agent of landscape change. Europe, North America, Oceania, the Middle East and the Caribbean are all overrepresented as destination regions relative to their resident populations. In contrast, South America, Africa and Asia are all underrepresented. The pattern of uneven distribution is also apparent within each of these regions and within individual countries such as Australia, where coastal areas and metropolitan area cores and exurbs account for most inbound and domestic tourism activity.

Tourism's uneven pattern of distribution reflects differences in the influence of the 'pull' factors that encourage tourism in particular locations, and hence help to determine the global pattern of tourism systems. These pull factors include the geographical proximity of destinations to markets, structural and political accessibility, the availability of sufficient attractions and services, cultural links between origin and destination regions, affordability, political and social stability at the local, national and regional levels, perceived personal safety, market image, and the mobilisation of pro-tourism policies. Central to the management of tourism destinations is how much managers and planners are able to influence these forces. Nothing can be done, for example, to change the actual geographical distance of a destination from a market, or to modify the destination's primary physical features. Similarly, little can be done, especially at the subnational scale, to influence exchange rates or the level of sociopolitical stability. However, the negative effects of these factors, where they exist, can be counteracted at least to some extent through effective image manipulation, the implementation of pro-tourism policies, the establishment of compelling 'created' attractions, and the provision of political and infrastructural access to target markets.

◼ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Advanced economies a designation by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) of countries that are characterised by a high level of economic development and accompanying social indicators; these countries continue to account for most outbound and inbound international tourism activity

3S tourism a tourism product based on the provision of sea, sand and sun; that is, focusing on beach resorts

Distance–decay in tourism, the tendency of inbound flows to decline as origin regions become more distant from the destination

Emerging economies a designation by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) of countries that are characterised by a lower level of economic development and accompanying social indicators; cumulatively, these countries are accounting for a growing share of outbound and inbound international tourism activity

Global inequality in tourism a fundamental distinction pertaining to the relative spatial distribution of tourism at a global level

Hyperdestinations destinations where the annual intake of visitors dramatically outnumbers the permanent resident population; often characteristic of tourist shopping villages

Image in tourism, the sum of the beliefs, attitudes and impressions that individuals or groups hold towards tourist destinations or aspects of destinations. Destination image is a critical factor in attracting or repelling visitors.

Incremental access a policy, practised most notably in China, whereby new destinations within a country are gradually opened up to international (and possibly domestic) tourists

North–south flow a common term used to describe the dominant pattern of international tourist traffic from the advanced economies (located mainly in the northern latitudes, except for Australia and New Zealand) to the emerging economies (located mainly to the south of the advanced economies)

Pleasure periphery those less economically developed regions of the globe that are being increasingly mobilised to provide 3S and alpine tourism products

Political accessibility the extent to which visitors are allowed entry into a destination by a governing authority

Pull factors that help to stimulate a tourism product by 'pulling' consumers towards particular destinations

Small island states or dependencies (SISODs) geopolitical entities with a population of less than three million permanent residents and a land mass of less than 28 000 km^2. SISODs are overrepresented as tourist destinations because of their ample 3S tourism resources.

Structural accessibility the extent to which a destination is physically accessible to markets by air routes, highways, ferry links etc., and through entry/exit facilities such as seaports and airports

Subnational inequality the tendency of tourism within countries, states and individual cities to be spatially concentrated

Sunbelt the name frequently applied to the 3S-oriented American portion of the pleasure periphery. Well-known destinations within the sunbelt include Hawaii, southern California, Las Vegas (Nevada), Arizona, Texas and Florida.

Tourist shopping villages small towns where the downtown is dominated by tourism-related businesses such as boutiques, antique shops and cafés; they are also usually hyperdestinations

Urban–rural fringe (or **exurbs**) a transitional zone surrounding larger urban areas that combines urban and rural characteristics and benefits from proximity to each

◼ QUESTIONS

1 (a) How much is spatial imbalance evident in tourism at the international, national, subnational and local level?
(b) Why does this imbalance occur?
(c) What are the managerial implications of this imbalance at all four levels cited in (a)?

2 How do each of the 'pull' factors discussed in this chapter apply to Australia and New Zealand?

3 (a) Is it justifiable for governments to implement security procedures for visitors that cause significant inconvenience and aggravation?
(b) How could a better compromise between open borders and adequate security be attained?

4 (a) Why are tourists being targeted by terrorist groups?
   (b) What can destination managers do to combat this phenomenon?
   (c) To what degree should tourists be responsible for their own safety? Why?
5 To what extent can the tourism experience of Rwanda be replicated in other countries in sub-Saharan Africa?
6 What strategies could be implemented in order to increase Australia's share of global stayover tourism to 1 per cent of the total (that is, about 10 million tourists per year)? Take into account the data provided in table 4.5.
7 What lessons for other emerging tourist destinations can be learned from the experience of Malaysian medical tourism?
8 (a) What specific managerial challenges are associated with tourism in the urban–rural fringe?
   (b) What is the best way of addressing these challenges?

■ EXERCISES

1 (a) Rank the following ten destination countries beginning with the one that you would most like to visit for a one-month vacation, and ending with the one that you would be least interested in visiting for a one-month vacation.

Zimbabwe	Fiji	Mexico	China
United States	France	Dubai	India
United Kingdom	Russia		

   (b) Indicate the reasons for your rankings, referring in each case to each of the pull factors discussed in this chapter.
   (c) Assigning a value of '5' for each first choice, '4' for each second choice, and so on, add up the class responses for each of the five destinations.
   (d) Identify the overall class rankings.
   (e) Do any consistent patterns emerge as to the reasons given for these rankings?
2 Figures 4.3 and 4.4 depict the top ten destinations for Australian outbound tourists in 2007 and 2011. Write a 500-word report in which you:
   (a) describe the differences between the two profiles
   (b) list the factors that help to explain these differences
   (c) predict what the pattern might look like in 2020.

■ FURTHER READING

Carlsen, J. (Ed.) 2011. *Island Tourism: Sustainable Perspectives.* **Wallingford: CABI.** Sustainable island futures are the focus of this textbook, which combines issues such as climate change, host–guest interactions and product rejuvenation.

Duval, T. (Ed.) 2004. *Tourism in the Caribbean: Trends, Development, Prospects.* **London: Routledge.** The Caribbean is arguably the most tourism-intensive of the world's regions, and this edited volume considers relevant issues such as the role of hedonism in developing the product, cruise ships, ecotourism, postcolonialism, and community and small business perspectives.

Lohman, G. & Dredge, D. (Eds) 2012. *Tourism in Brazil: Environment, Management and Segments.* **London: Routledge.** This is the first English language text to provide a detailed analysis of domestic and international tourism in Brazil, the dominant tourism destination of South America and host of mega-events in 2014 and 2016.

Murphy, L., Benckendorff, P., Moscardo, G. & Pearce, P. 2012. *Tourist Shopping Villages: Forms and Functions*. **London: Routledge.** Parameters of successful tourist shopping villages are analysed using case studies from Australia, New Zealand, Canada, United States, United Kingdom and Ireland.

Timothy, D. 2012. *Tourism and Political Boundaries*. **London: Routledge.** The persisting importance of international boundaries as a control mechanism on tourist movements is a central theme of this text, which adopts macro-themes of geopolitics and globalisation.

case study

THE DOMESTIC PLEASURE PERIPHERY IN BRAZIL

Brazil, more than any other emerging economy, best illustrates the dynamics of a domestically-driven coastal pleasure periphery (Pegas, Weaver & Castley in press). By way of context, Brazil is an upper-middle income country with a 2010 per capita GDP of almost US$11 000 — eighty-second among 227 monitored countries (World Bank 2011). However, this relative prosperity masks high levels of internal inequality, with the richest and poorest 10 per cent of families respectively accounting for 42.5 per cent and 1.2 per cent of total consumption (CIA 2011). This inequality is geographically reflected in a sharp divide between the wealthier South and the poorer North, with the richest state (São Paulo) having a per capita income six times higher than the poorest state (Maranhão) (Silveiro-Neto & Azzoni 2006).

Since at least the 1970s, Brazilian federal governments have implemented policies that have attempted to redress the economic imbalance between the North and North-East states on one hand and the South and South-East states on the other. Tourism, in particular, has been regarded as an activity with the capacity for developing the economy along the North-East's coastline. Unlike the classic pleasure periphery model where foreign corporations (with assistance from destination governments) dominate the development process, the growth of Brazil's north-eastern coastal pleasure periphery has been largely instigated and funded by the Brazilian federal government itself through the Tourism Development Program (PRODETUR) it established in 1991. Representing collaboration between all levels of government and various financial and tourism agencies, PRODETUR has made strategic investments in construction (e.g. infrastructure) and airports within places and regions that have been identified as being economically deprived but rich in tourism potential (e.g. beaches, cultural heritage). With such infrastructure in place, the risks to private enterprise are reduced and it can proceed with resort or hotel investment accordingly. Of all private tourism investment in Brazil between 2006 and 2012, 85 per cent was allocated to the North-East, along with 91 per cent of all jobs (or 55 600 of 61 300). The vast majority of this investment has been made by Brazilian corporations.

The contemporary coastal pleasure periphery of Brazil reflects this combination of domestic private and public investment. Using Google Earth and various secondary Brazilian sources, 195 tourism cities (i.e. at least 10 000 residents) were identified within a 10 km distance from the coast (Pegas, Weaver & Castley in press). Notably, the tourism cities in the North-East are to a large extent 'induced' in the sense that their growth and livelihood has been based on PRODETUR and other government investments that in turn attracted private investment in accommodation. In contrast, tourism cities in the South-East (including Rio de Janeiro) are mostly 'organic' in that private investment was not generally predicated on similar kinds of public investment. Prosperous and close-by domestic markets, instead, have ensured that hotel investments would not involve high levels of financial risk. Southern tourism cities also contain a large number of second houses and apartments, mostly maintained by residents living in areas far removed from the beach. One feature common to North-East and Southern states is the presence of 'beachfront metropolises', or large urban municipalities where tourism is locally important but represents only a small proportion of all economic activity. The classic example is Rio de Janeiro, which is internationally known for its iconic Copacabana and Ipanema beaches. Examples in the North-East include Salvador and Recife.

The identity of the Brazilian coastal pleasure periphery extends to the domestic market. Many of the nine million international tourists who arrived in 2011 were attracted by the beachfront metropolises and coastal tourism cities, but their numbers are dwarfed by the domestic traffic, estimated nation-wide at 156 million in 2007. Another prevalent pattern is the dominance of intrastate traffic, which accounts for 50–90 per cent of all tourism activity depending on the state. In most cases, this intrastate traffic consists of residents driving from their residences in beachfront metropolises and other large cities to nearby coastal tourism cities for their annual vacation and on other holiday occasions. Inter-state travel is less common, and mostly involves people from the South travelling to the North-East. Transfers of wealth within Brazil, accordingly, are related more to investment than actual tourist expenditures.

Continued growth of Brazil's coastal pleasure periphery is all but assured by an expanding population, increasing prosperity, and the status of beaches as a core element of the national identity (Kane 2010) and a central focus on international marketing (Bandyopadhyay & Nascimento 2010). Hosting international mega-events in 2014 (World Cup) and 2016 (Summer Olympics) have also raised Brazil's profile as an inbound destination. Yet, despite a high level of government intervention, problems are evident that may reduce the capacity of the pleasure periphery to achieve positive economic and social outcomes for Brazil. One environmental concern is the periphery's location within the endangered Atlantic rainforest, remnants of which could still be destroyed to make way for future direct and indirect tourism development. A more positive alternative is to preserve such remnants as part of a competitive advantage that offers high quality beach and rainforest experiences in the same day. On a larger scale, there are also fears of 'Floridisation', or the emergence of continuous resort and urban development across hundreds of kilometres of coastline, as has occurred in Florida in the United States.

At a social level, opportunities to enjoy the best areas of the beach are still largely denied to many poor Brazilians who face a sort of informal beach

apartheid. Destabilisation is also evident in some north-eastern communities, with local residents blaming rapid tourism development and an influx of workers from other parts of Brazil for higher costs of living and increased violence and drug use (Pegas & Stronza 2010). Several tourism cities in the North-East continue to suffer economic deprivation, with 40 per cent or more of residents living below the poverty line. Such emerging and persistent problems bring home the point that a dominantly domestic pattern of stakeholder involvement and control is no guarantee of economically, environmentally or socially sustainable outcomes.

QUESTIONS

1 Write a 1000-word report in which you describe the extent to which the development of the Brazilian coastal pleasure periphery has been assisted by each of the pull factors outlined earlier in this chapter.

2 (a) Using Google Earth (or a similar map resource), identify one coastal tourism city in Brazil's North-East, and one in the Southern region.

    (b) Write a 500-word report in which you describe how these two cities differ, based only on this mapping data.

    (c) In this report, describe subsequent research that would be necessary to clarify the apparent differences and similarities between these two cities.

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5

The tourism product

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1   divide tourist attractions into four major types and their attendant subtypes

2   appreciate the diversity of these attractions

3   discuss the management implications that pertain to each attraction type and subtype

4   identify the various attraction attributes that can be assessed in order to make informed management and planning decisions

5   explain the basic characteristics of the tourism industry's main sectors

6   assess the major contemporary trends affecting these sectors

7   describe the growing diversification and specialisation of products provided by the tourism industry

8   discuss the implications of the concepts of integration and globalisation as they apply to the tourism industry.

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the 'pull' factors that stimulate the development of particular places as tourist destinations, and described the tourism status of the world's major regions in the context of these forces. Chapter 5 continues to examine the supply side of the tourism system by focusing on the **tourism product**, which can be defined as the combination of **tourist attractions** and the **tourism industry**. While commercial attractions such as theme parks and casinos are elements of the tourist industry, others, such as generic noncommercial scenery, local people and climate, are not. For this reason, and because they are an essential and diverse component of tourism systems, attractions are examined separately from the industry in the following section. We then follow with a discussion of the other major components of the tourism industry, including travel agencies, transportation, accommodation, tour operators and merchandise. The chapter concludes by considering structural changes within the contemporary tourism industry.

TOURIST ATTRACTIONS

The availability of tourist attractions is an essential 'pull' factor (see chapter 4), and destinations should therefore benefit from having a diversity of such resources. The compilation of an **attraction inventory** incorporating actual and potential sites and events, is a fundamental step towards ensuring that a destination realises its full tourism potential in this regard. There is at present no classification system of attractions that is universally followed among tourism stakeholders. However, a distinction between mainly 'natural' and mainly 'cultural' phenomena is commonly made. The classification scheme proposed in figure 5.1 adheres to the natural/cultural distinction for discussion purposes, and makes a further distinction between sites and events. Four basic categories of attraction are thereby generated: natural sites, natural events, cultural sites and cultural events. The use of dotted lines in figure 5.1 to separate these categories recognises that distinctions between 'natural' and 'cultural', and between 'site' and 'event', are not always clear. The use of these categories in the following subsections therefore should not obscure the fact that many if not most attractions are category hybrids. A national park, for example, may combine topographical, cultural, floral and faunal elements of the site. Moreover, although it is a site, it may also provide a venue for various cultural and natural events.

The following material is not an exhaustive treatment of this immense and complex topic, but rather it is meant to illustrate the diversity of attractions as well as management issues associated with various types and subtypes. One underlying theme is the likelihood that most places are not adequately utilising their potential range of attractions. A related theme is the role of imagination and creativity in transforming apparent destination liabilities into **tourism resources**, reflecting the subjective nature of the latter concept.

Natural sites

Natural attractions, as the name implies, are associated more closely with the natural environment rather than the cultural environment. **Natural site** attractions can be subdivided into topography, climate, hydrology, wildlife, and vegetation. Inbound tourists are strongly influenced to visit Australia and New Zealand by natural sites such as the ocean, botanical gardens, zoos and national parks. In the case of New Zealand, 'walking/trekking' (also known as 'tramping') — the third most popular reported specific type of attraction or activity amongst inbound tourists — is largely

pursued in natural settings, as are land sightseeing and lookouts or viewing platforms, the fourth and fifth most popular activities, respectively (see table 5.1). Destinations have little scope for changing their natural assets — for example, they either possess high mountains, or they do not. A challenge, therefore, is to manipulate market image so that relatively 'unattractive' natural phenomena such as grasslands can be converted into lucrative tourism resources.

Category	Site		Event
Natural	TOPOGRAPHY e.g. mountains, canyons, beaches, volcanoes, caves, fossil sites	protected areas, hiking trails	volcanic eruptions
	CLIMATE e.g. temperature, sunshine, precipitation, sky		sunsets, sunrises
	HYDROLOGY e.g. lakes, rivers, waterfalls, hot springs	scenic highways, scenic lookouts, spas	tides, geyser eruptions
	WILDLIFE e.g. mammals, birds, insects, fish, reptiles	wildlife parks, botanical gardens	birding festivals animal migrations (e.g. caribou and geese)
	VEGETATION e.g. forests, wildflowers		autumn leaf colour and spring bloom displays
Cultural	PRE-HISTORICAL e.g. Aboriginal sites		
	HISTORICAL e.g. battlefields, old buildings, museums, ancient monuments, graveyards, statues, heritage districts		battle re-enactments, commemorations
	CONTEMPORARY CULTURE e.g. architecture, ethnic neighbourhoods, modern technology, arts, modern heritage, food and drink		festivals, world fairs, concerts, art exhibitions
	ECONOMIC e.g. farms, mines, factories		
	RECREATIONAL e.g. integrated resorts, golf courses, ski hills, theme parks, casinos		sporting events, Olympics
	RETAIL e.g. mega-malls, shopping districts, markets		markets

FIGURE 5.1 Generic inventory of tourist attractions

TABLE 5.1 Top twenty activities by inbound tourists to New Zealand 2011–13, by percentage reporting participation in activity			
Activity	Year ending Mar. 2011	Year ending Mar. 2012	Year ending Mar. 2013
Dining	88	89	91
Shopping	81	78	79
Walking/trekking	73	76	76
Land sightseeing	44	45	46
Lookouts/viewing platforms	32	33	34

(continued)

TABLE 5.1 *(continued)*

Activity	Year ending Mar. 2011	Year ending Mar. 2012	Year ending Mar. 2013
Entertainment	26	30	28
Volcanic/geothermal sites	29	27	27
Gardens	25	21	24
Boating	27	24	23
Museums/galleries	27	24	22
Heritage attractions	24	19	19
Cultural attractions	15	12	13
Swimming	9	8	12
Farms	10	10	12
Zoos/wildlife/marine parks	12	11	11
Wineries	9	9	9
Bird watching	8	7	7
Casinos	5	6	6
Dolphin watching	6	5	5
Theme & leisure parks	6	4	5
Sightseeing by air	5	4	5
Canoeing/kayaking/rafting	6	6	5
Fishing	6	5	5

Source: New Zealand Ministry of Business, Innovation & Employment 2012

Topography

Topography refers to geological features in the physical landscape such as mountains, valleys, plateaus, islands, canyons, deltas, dunes, cliffs, beaches, volcanoes and caves. Gemstones and fossils are a special type of topographical feature, locally important in Australian locations such as Coober Pedy in South Australia (opals), O'Briens Creek in Queensland (topaz) and the New England region of New South Wales. The potential for dinosaur fossils to foster a tourism industry in remote parts of Queensland has also been considered (Laws & Scott 2003).

Mountains

Mountains illustrate the subjective and changing nature of tourism resources. Long feared and despised as hazardous wastelands harbouring bandits and dangerous animals, the image of alpine environments was rehabilitated during the European Romanticist period of the early 1800s, and in a more induced way by the efforts of trans-continental railway companies in North America to increase revenue through the construction and promotion of luxury alpine resorts (Hart 1983). As a result, scenically dramatic alpine regions such as the European Alps and the North American Rockies emerged as highly desirable venues for tourist activity, and have been gradually incorporated into the global pleasure periphery. With regard to markets, Beedie and Hudson (2003) describe how remoteness fostered an elitist 'mountaineer' form of tourism until the latter half of the twentieth century, when improved access (a pull factor) and increased discretionary time and money (push factors) led to the 'democratisation' of alpine landscapes through skiing and mass adventure tourism. Some remote areas, however, continue to fulfil the complex motivations of elite adventure tourists

(see Breakthrough tourism: Adventure tourism and rush). Lower and less dramatic mountain ranges, such as the American Appalachian Mountains, the Russian Urals and the coastal ranges of Australia, are also highly valued for tourism purposes although arguably they did not undergo the elite-to-mass transition to the same extent. Previously inaccessible ranges, such as the Himalayas of Asia, the South American Andes, the Southern Alps of New Zealand and the Atlas Mountains of Africa, are now also being incorporated into the pleasure periphery.

Certain individual mountains, by merit of exceptional height, aesthetics or religious significance, possess a symbolic value as an iconic attraction that tourists readily associate with particular destinations. Uluru (formerly Ayers Rock) is the best Australian example, while other well-known examples include Mt Everest (Sagarmatha), the Matterhorn, Kilimanjaro (Tanzania) and Japan's Mt Fuji, which is notable as an almost perfect composite volcano.

breakthrough tourism

ADVENTURE TOURISM AND RUSH

Travel motivation is a more complex construct than travel purpose, as demonstrated by the adventure travel industry. Various studies identify thrill, overcoming fear, exercising and developing specialised skills, achieving difficult goals, staying fit, and facing danger as commonly expressed motivations for participating in adventure experiences. However, Buckley (2012) describes a 'risk recreation paradox' where for most participants operators provide only the semblance of risk to avoid client injury, litigation costs and negative publicity. Among skilled participants in particular, Buckley identifies 'rush' as a more prevalent motivation. Many who experience rush claim that it cannot be fully appreciated or accurately described by those who do not experience it, although Buckley drew upon his own emic (insider) experiences as a skilled adventure tourist to formalise the concept. He regards it essentially as something that may emerge during the successful performance of an adventure activity at the limits of one's individual capacities. Analytically, it is a rare, unified, intense and emotional peak experience that entails both *thrill* — an adrenalin-filled physiological response — and *flow* — being intensely absorbed both mentally and physically in the activity. Rush is both addictive and relative; that is, it can be experienced by a veteran or a novice (e.g. a first successful surfing experience), and in either case stimulates a stronger desire for a repeat sensation, usually at a higher level of engagement. Risk and danger, according to Buckley, are unavoidable aspects of rush, but are not motivations in their own right. At the very highest levels, places that have the potential to provide peak sensations of rush, such as remote high mountains or offshore waters which generate exceptionally high waves, define a very special and elite geography of iconic destinations. However, rush is potentially accessible to less experienced participants in a greater variety of settings, and is in fact a definable concept that is invaluable for better understanding human behaviour in general and the environments that foster different behaviours.

Beaches

As with mountains, beaches were not always perceived positively as tourist attractions. Their popularity is associated with the Industrial Revolution and particularly with the emergence of the pleasure periphery after World War II (see chapters 3 and 4). Currently, beaches are perhaps the most stereotypical symbol of mass tourism and the pleasure periphery. Not all types of beaches, however, are equally favoured by tourists. Dark-hued beaches derived from the erosion of volcanic rock are not as popular as the fine white sandy beaches created from limestone or coral, as the former generate very hot sand and the illusion of murky water while the latter produce the turquoise water effect highly valued by tourists and destination marketers. This in large part accounts for the higher level of 3S resort development in 'coral' Caribbean destinations such as Antigua and the Bahamas, than in 'volcanic' islands such as Dominica and St Vincent. Nevertheless, many beach settings that by Australian standards would be considered far too cold and aesthetically unappealing have given rise to major coastal resort cities such as Blackpool (United Kingdom) that appeal primarily to nearby domestic markets (see chapter 3).

Climate

Before the era of modern mass tourism, a change in climate was a major motivation for travel. There was a search for cooler and drier weather relative to the uncomfortable summer heat and humidity of urban areas. Thus, escape to coastal resorts in the United Kingdom and the United States during the summer was and still is a quest for cooler rather than warmer temperatures. The British and Dutch established highland resorts in their Asian colonies for similar purposes, and many of these are still used for tourism purposes by the postcolonial indigenous elite and middle class. Examples include Simla and Darjeeling in India (Jutla 2000), and the Cameron Highlands of Malaysia. This impulse is also evident among the small but increasing number of Middle Eastern visitors to Australia during the torrid summer of the Arabian Peninsula.

With the emergence of the pleasure periphery, temperature and seasonal patterns were reversed as great numbers of **snowbirds** travelled to Florida, the Caribbean, the Mediterranean, Hawaii and other warm weather destinations to escape cold winter conditions in their home regions. These migrations are having economic and social effects on an expanding array of emerging economies, as illustrated by the growing seasonal enclaves of retired French caravan owners being formed on the Atlantic coast of Morocco (Viallon 2012). A snowbird-type migration is also apparent on a smaller scale from Australian states such as Victoria and South Australia to the coast of Queensland.

Some areas, however, can be too hot for most tourists, as reflected in the low demand for equatorial and hot desert tourism. Essentially, a subtropical range of approximately 20–30 C is considered optimal for 3S tourism, and this is a good climatic indicator of the potential for large-scale tourism development in a particular beach-based destination, provided that other basic 'pull' criteria are also present (Boniface, Cooper & Cooper 2012). The one major exception to the cool-to-hot trend is the growing popularity of winter sports such as downhill skiing, snowboarding and snowmobiling, which involve a cool-to-cool migration or, less frequently, a warm-to-cool migration. Whatever the specific dynamic, cyclic changes in weather within both the origin and destination regions lead to significant seasonal fluctuations in tourist flows, presenting tourism managers with additional management challenges (see chapter 8).

Water

Water is a significant tourism resource only under certain conditions. For swimming, prerequisites include good water quality, a comfortable water temperature and calm and safe water conditions. Calm turquoise waters combine with warm temperatures and white-sand beaches to complete the stereotype of an idyllic 3S resort setting (figure 5.2). For surfing, however, calm waters are a liability — which accounts for the emergence of only certain parts of the Australian coast, Hawaii and California as 'hotspots' for surfing aficionados (Barbieri & Sotomayor 2013). Oceans and seas, where they interface subtropical beaches, are probably the most desirable and lucrative venue for nature-based tourism development.

Freshwater lakes are also significant for outdoor recreational activities such as boating, and for the establishment of second homes and cottages. Extensive recreational hinterlands, dominated by lake-based cottage or second home developments, are common in parts of Europe and North America. The Muskoka region of Canada is an excellent example, its development having been facilitated by the presence of several thousand highly indented glacial lakes (i.e. the destination region), its proximity to Toronto (i.e. the origin region) and the existence of connecting railways and roads (i.e. the transit region) (Svenson 2004).
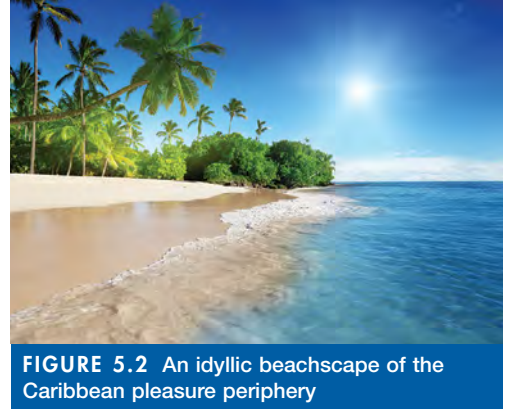
FIGURE 5.2 An idyllic beachscape of the Caribbean pleasure periphery

Rivers and waterfalls

Waterfalls in particular hold a strong inherent aesthetic appeal for many people, and often constitute a core iconic attraction around which secondary attractions, and sometimes entire resort communities, are established. Niagara Falls (on the United States–Canada border) is a prime example of a waterfall-based tourism agglomeration. Other examples include Victoria Falls (on the Zimbabwe–Zambia border) and Iguaçú Falls (on the Brazil–Paraguay border). Much smaller waterfalls are an integral part of the tourism product in the hinterland of Australia's Gold Coast (Hudson 2004).

An important management dimension of freshwater-based tourism is competing demand from politically and economically powerful sectors such as agriculture (irrigation), manufacturing (as a water source and an outlet for effluents) and transportation (bulk transport). Such competition, which implicates the importance of water as an attraction in itself as well as a facilitator of other attractions such as golf courses, is likely to accelerate as freshwater resources are further degraded and depleted by the combined effects of mismanagement and climate change (Becken & Hay 2012). As with skiing, such issues are especially acute in Australia, where major waterways such as the Murray and Darling rivers are modest affairs by European or Asian standards, with precarious water supplies subject to intense competition for access.

Geothermal waters

As discussed in chapter 3, spas were an historically important form of tourism that receded in significance during the ascendancy of seaside tourism. Contemporary demographic and social trends, however, favour a resurgence in this type of resort (see chapter 10). Germany may be indicative, where an ageing but health-conscious

population supports over 300 officially-recognised spas which collectively account for about one-third of all visitor-nights and over 350 000 jobs. Combining geothermal waters with health food, meditation and other 'wellness' products is a growing trend in the European spa industry (Pforr & Locher 2012).

Wildlife

As a tourism resource, wildlife can be classified in several ways for managerial purposes. First, a distinction can be made between captive and noncaptive wildlife. The clearest example of the former is a zoo, which is a hybrid natural/cultural attraction. At the opposite end of the continuum are wilderness areas where the movement of animals is unrestricted. Trade-offs are implicit in the tourist experience associated with each scenario. For example, a visitor is virtually guaranteed of seeing the animal in a zoo, but there is minimal habitat context, no thrill of discovery and no risk. In a wilderness or semi-wilderness situation, the opposite holds true. Many zoos are now being reconstructed and reinvented as 'wildlife parks' or 'zoological parks' that provide a viewing experience within a quasi-natural and more humane environment, thereby compromising between these two extremes. Tiger-related tourism demonstrates the trade-offs and ambiguities that occur between the captive and non-captive options. In India, noncaptive semi-wilderness settings provide a favourable natural environment for tigers but foster an unsustainable form of tourism due to relentless tourist harassment of these animals. In contrast, zoos are a less-than-ideal ecological setting but provide captive breeding and educational opportunities that may ultimately save the species from extinction as native wildlife habitats disappear (Cohen 2012).

Consumptive and nonconsumptive dimensions

Wildlife is also commonly classified along a consumptive/nonconsumptive spectrum. The former usually refers to hunting and fishing, which are long established as a mainly domestic form of tourism in North America, Australia, New Zealand and Europe (Lovelock 2008). Related activities that have more of an international dimension include big-game hunting (important in parts of Africa and North America) and deep-sea fishing, which is significant in many coastal destinations of Australia (Bauer & Herr 2004). Because of the consumptive nature of these activities, managers must always be alert to their effect on wildlife population levels. In Australia, hunting is valued as a management tool for keeping exotic pest species such as feral pigs in balance with environmental carrying capacities (Craig-Smith & Dryden 2008).

In many areas 'nonconsumptive' wildlife-based pursuits such as ecotourism are overtaking hunting and fishing in importance (see chapter 11). This is creating a dilemma for some hunting-oriented businesses and destinations, which must decide whether to remain focused on hunting, switch to ecotourism or attempt to accommodate both of these potentially incompatible activities. Such conflicts are evident in eastern North American settings where white-tailed deer are valued for very different reasons by recreational hunters and ecotourists (Che 2011). One criticism of the 'consumptive/nonconsumptive' mode of classification is that both dimensions are inherent in all forms of wildlife-based tourism. The 'nonconsumptive' experience of being outdoors for its own sake, for example, is usually an intrinsic part of hunting and fishing, while ecotourists consume many different products (e.g. petrol, food, souvenirs) as part of the wildlife-viewing experience. Maintaining an inventory of observed wildlife, as many avid birdwatchers do, can also be regarded as a symbolic form of 'consumption'.

Vegetation

Vegetation exists interdependently with wildlife and, therefore, cannot be divorced from the ecotourism equation. However, there are also situations where trees, flowers or shrubs are a primary rather than a supportive attraction. Examples include the giant redwood trees of northern California and the wildflower meadows of Western Australia. In parts of Australia and elsewhere, a specialised interest in orchids is notable for having conflicting nonconsumptive (e.g. photographic) and consumptive (e.g. collection) dimensions (Ballantyne & Pickering 2012). The captive/noncaptive continuum is only partially useful in classifying flora resources, since vegetation is essentially immobile. For managers this means that inventories are relatively stable, and tourists can be virtually guaranteed of seeing the attraction (although this does not pertain to weather-dependent attractions such as autumn colour and spring flower displays). However, these same qualities may imply a greater vulnerability to damage and overexploitation. The carving of initials into tree trunks and the removal of limbs for firewood are common examples of vegetation abuse associated with tourism and outdoor recreation. The 'captive' flora equivalent of a zoo is a botanical garden. These are usually located in larger urban areas, and as a result consistently rank among the top attractions for inbound tourists in countries such as Australia. Accordingly, they function as important centres for public education (Moskwa & Crilley 2012).

Protected natural areas

Protected natural areas such as national parks are an amalgam of topographical, hydro-logical, zoological, vegetation and cultural resources, and hence constitute a composite attraction. As natural attractions, high-order protected areas stand out for at least four reasons.

- Their strictly protected status ensures, at least theoretically, that the integrity and attractiveness of their constituent natural resources is safeguarded.
- The amount of land available in a relatively undisturbed state is rapidly declining due to habitat destruction, thereby ensuring the status of high-order protected areas as scarce and desirable tourism resources.
- Protection of such areas was originally motivated by the presence of exceptional natural qualities that are attractive to many tourists, such as scenic mountain ranges or rare species of animals and plants.
- An area having been designated as a national park or World Heritage Site confers status on that space as an attraction, since most people assume that it must be special to warrant such designation.

For all these reasons, protected natural areas are now among the most popular international and domestic tourism attractions. Some national parks, such as Yellowstone, Grand Canyon and Yosemite (all in the United States), Banff (Canada) and Kakadu, Lamington and Uluru (Australia) are major and even iconic attractions in their respective countries. This is ironic given that many protected areas were originally established for preservation purposes, without any consideration being given to the possibility that they might someday be alluring to large numbers of tourists and other visitors. However, as funding cutbacks and external systems such as agriculture and logging pose an increased threat to these areas, their managers are now more open to tourism as a potentially compatible revenue-generating activity that may serve to pre-empt the intrusion of more destructive activities (Tisdell & Wilson 2012) (see chapter 11).

Natural events

Natural events are often independent of particular locations and unpredictable in their occurrence and magnitude. Bird migrations are a good illustration. The Canadian province of Saskatchewan is becoming popular for the spring and autumn migrations of massive numbers of waterfowl, but the probability of arriving at the right place at the right time to see the spectacular flocks is dictated by various factors, including local weather conditions and larger-scale climate shifts. Many communities have capitalised on these movements by holding birding festivals during predicted peak activity periods, often using them as occasions to educate attendees about environmental issues facing the target species (Lawton 2009).

Solar eclipses and comets are rarer but more predictable events that attract large numbers of tourists to locations where good viewing conditions are anticipated (Weaver 2011a). Volcanic eruptions (which appeal to many tourists because of their beauty and danger) are generally associated with known locations (thus they are sites as well as events), but are often less certain with respect to occurrence. Lodgings have been established in the vicinity of Costa Rica's Arenal volcano specifically to accommodate the viewing of its nightly eruptions, while the predictable volcanic activity of Mt Yasur is the primary attraction on the island of Tanna in the Pacific archipelagic state of Vanuatu.

A natural event associated with oceans and seas is tidal action. To become a tourism resource, tidal activity must have a dramatic or superlative component. One area that has taken advantage of its exceptional tidal action is Canada's Bay of Fundy (between the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick), where ideal geographical conditions produce tidal fluctuations of 12 to 15 metres, allegedly the highest in the world. Extreme weather conditions can produce natural events, as for example when abundant rainfall replenishes the usually dry Lake Eyre basin in South Australia, creating a brief oceanic effect in the desert. This is a good example of an **ephemeral attraction**.

Cultural sites

Cultural sites, also known as 'built', 'constructed' or 'human-made' sites, are as or more diverse than their natural counterparts. Categories of convenience include prehistorical, historical, contemporary, economic activity, specialised recreational and retail. As with natural sites, these distinctions are often blurred when considering specific attractions.

Prehistorical

Prehistorical attractions, including rock paintings, rock etchings, middens, mounds and other sites associated with indigenous people, occur in many parts of Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States and South Africa (Duval & Smith 2013). Many of these attractions are affiliated with surviving indigenous groups, and issues of control, appropriation, proper interpretation and effective management against excessive visitation therefore all have contemporary relevance (Weaver 2010a). A distinct category of prehistorical sites is the megalithic sites associated with 'lost' cultures, which are attractive because of their mysterious origins as well as their impressive appearance. The New Age pilgrimage site of Stonehenge (United Kingdom) is a primary example. Others include the giant carved heads of Easter Island and the Nazca rock carving lines of Peru.

Historical

Historical sites are distinguished from prehistorical sites by their more definite associations with specific civilisations or eras that fall under the scope of 'recorded history'. As with 'heritage', there is no single or universal criterion that determines when a contemporary artefact becomes 'historical'. Usually this is a matter of consensus within a local community or among scholars, the assessment of a particular individual, or simply a promotional tactic. Historical sites can be divided into many subcategories, and only a few of the more prominent of these are outlined below.

Monuments and structures

Ancient monuments and structures that have attained prominence as attractions within their respective countries include the pyramids of Egypt, the Colosseum in Rome and the Parthenon in Athens. More recent examples include Angkor Wat (Angkor, Cambodia), the Eiffel Tower (Paris, France), the Statue of Liberty (New York, USA), the Taj Mahal (Agra, India), the Kremlin (Moscow, Russia), Mount Rushmore (South Dakota, USA) and the UK's Tower of London. Sydney's Harbour Bridge and Opera House also fall in this category. Beyond these marquee attractions, generic structures that have evolved into attractions include the numerous castles of Europe, the Hindu temples of India and the colonial-era sugar mills of the Caribbean.

Battlefields

Battlefields are among the most popular of all tourist attractions, which demonstrates, ironically, that the long-term impacts of major wars on tourism are often very positive (Butler & Suntikul 2012). Battle sites such as Thermopylae (fought in 480 BC between the Spartans and Persians), Hastings (fought in 1066 between the Anglo-Saxons and Normans) and Waterloo (fought in 1815 between the French and British/Prussians) are still extremely popular centuries after their occurrence. The emergence of more recent battlefields (such as Gallipoli and the American Civil War site at Gettysburg) as even higher profile attractions is due to several factors, including:

- the accurate identification and marking of specific sites and events throughout the battlefields, which is possible because of the degree to which modern battles are documented
- sophisticated levels of interpretation made available to visitors
- attractive park-like settings
- the stature of certain battlefields as 'sacred' sites or events that changed history (e.g. Gettysburg as the 'turning point of the American Civil War' and Gallipoli as a catalyst in the forging of an Australian national identity)
- personal connections — many current visitors have great-grandparents or other ancestors who fought in these battles. Indeed, World War Two battles such as D-Day (the day in 1944 when Allied forces landed in France), Stalingrad (the high water mark of Germany's Russian invasion) and the Kokoda Track campaign in Papua New Guinea are still being attended by surviving veterans.

Other war- or military-related sites that frequently evolve into tourist attractions include military cemeteries, fortresses and barracks (e.g. the Hyde Park Barracks in Sydney), and defensive walls (e.g. the Great Wall of China and Hadrian's Wall in England). The Great Wall attracts an estimated 10 million mostly domestic tourists per year (Su & Wall 2012). Battlefields and other military sites are an example of a particularly fascinating phenomenon known as **dark tourism**, which encompasses sites and events that become attractive to some tourists because of their associations with death, conflict or suffering (Dale & Robinson 2011). Other examples include

assassination sites (e.g. for John F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King), locations of mass killings (e.g. Port Arthur (Tasmania), the World Trade Center site, and Holocaust concentration camps) and places associated with the supernatural and occult (e.g. Dracula's castle in Transylvania, and 'haunted houses'). Holocaust sites are particularly intriguing because of the extent to which these have been developed as major tourist attractions not just in the Eastern European places where the Holocaust occurred (Podoshen & Hunt 2011), but also as 'Holocaust museums' in many cities around the world with no direct association to those events (Cohen 2011).

Heritage districts and landscapes

In many cities, historical districts are preserved and managed as tourism-related areas that combine attractions (e.g. restored historical buildings) and services (e.g. accommodation, restaurants, shops). Preserved walled cities such as Rothenburg (Germany), York (England), the Forbidden City (Beijing) and the Old Town district of Prague (Czech Republic) fall into this category, as does the French Quarter of New Orleans, USA. The Millers Point precinct of downtown Sydney is one of the best Australian examples, with its mixture of maritime-related historical buildings, small hotels, public open space, theatres and residential areas. Rural heritage landscapes are not as well known or as well protected. An Australian example is the German cultural landscape of the Barossa Valley in South Australia. Other rural regions, such as Australia's Outback and the southern provinces of China, are developing heritage tourism industries that focus on the traditions and lifestyles of indigenous residents who still live there and often constitute the majority population. Such destinations usually generate controversy and raise questions as to the place and status of these people in their respective countries (see Contemporary issue: Experiencing a different China in Yunnan Province).

contemporary issue

EXPERIENCING A DIFFERENT CHINA IN YUNNAN PROVINCE

The culture of indigenous people in southern China has become a major attraction for domestic as well as international tourists, and this exposure has had profound implications for the affected ethnic groups. This is illustrated by the World Heritage-listed town of Lijiang in Yunnan Province (Zhu 2012). Dominated by the Naxi people, Lijiang is a tourism 'hotspot' that in 2009 attracted 7.6 million visitors to its ethnic performances and heritage sites. Tourists are drawn to 'traditional' cultural displays, the 'authenticity' of which is seemingly confirmed by the use of old male Naxi musicians in traditional costumes playing ancient-style instruments. A rustic stage setting completes the timeless effect. Such performances, however, are carefully choreographed illusions with substantial Han Chinese influence. Developed deliberately over a long period to meet the expectations of mainly Western audiences, the highly commercialised theatrical performances are strongly supported by government because ethnic minorities who preserve and

celebrate their 'own' culture are seen to be thriving under the embrace of the Socialist Motherland. To this extent, ethnic tourism in Lijiang and elsewhere is a projection of China's **soft power**, especially to international audiences. For the Naxi, benefits do derive from an improved material standard of living and from opportunities to preserve some aspects of their traditional culture. However, associated costs include the reinforcement of stereotypes, with some performances emphasising a happy-go-lucky and simple lifestyle dominated by drinking and singing. Also disconcerting has been the influx of Han Chinese migrants to meet the demands of the tourism industry as Lijiang is increasingly integrated through tourism into the national economy. The mobilisation of tourism to achieve higher levels of ethnic autonomy and empowerment, as is evident in some parts of Australia and New Zealand (Weaver 2010a), has not yet occurred in southern China.

Museums

Unlike battlefields, museums are not site specific, and almost any community can augment their tourism resource inventory by assembling and presenting collections of locally significant artefacts. Museums can range in scale from high-profile, internationally known institutions such as the British Museum in London and the Smithsonian complex in Washington DC, to lesser known city sites such as the National Wool Museum in Geelong, Victoria, and small community museums in regional towns such as Gympie in Queensland. That museums differ widely in the way that items are selected, displayed and interpreted is an aspect of these attractions that has important implications for their market segmentation and marketing. Recent trends include the movement towards 'hands-on' interactive interpretation as a way of accommodating a new and more demanding generation of leisure visitors (Kotler, Kotler & Kotler 2008).

Contemporary

Most contemporary attractions have some historical component, and it is even becoming increasingly common to describe phenomena from the latter half of the twentieth century as **contemporary heritage**, which further blurs the boundaries between past and present. To this category can be added the few remaining motels in North America and elsewhere built during the 1950s and 1960s in the futuristic 'Googie' style of architecture, which are the objective of much interest on the part of preservationists and historians of modernism (Hastings 2007) (see the case study at the end of this chapter). Ethnic neighbourhoods and gastronomic experiences, similarly, embody at least some history/heritage element as part of their attractiveness, but still situate comfortably as contemporary phenomena for classification purposes.

Ethnic neighbourhoods

Large cities in Australia, Canada, the United States and Western Europe are becoming increasingly diverse as a result of contemporary international migration patterns. This has led to the emergence of neighbourhoods associated with particular ethnic groups and their reinforcement through explicit or implicit policies of multiculturalism (Collins & Jordan 2009). For many years such areas were alienated from the broader urban community, but now the Chinatowns of San Francisco, Sydney, Vancouver, New York and Toronto — to name just a few — have evolved into high-profile tourist

districts. This trend has been assisted by the placement of Chinese language street signs and the approval of Asian-style outdoor markets and other culturally specific features, such as gateway arches. The effect is to provide tourists (as well as local residents) with an experience of the exotic, without having to travel far afield. A surprising development has been the transformation of ghetto neighbourhoods such as Soweto, South Africa, into destinations that are attractive to white visitors whose negative images of such vibrant places are subsequently challenged (Booyens 2010, Frenzel, Koens & Steinbrink 2012).

Food and drink

While taken for granted as a necessary consumable in any tourism experience, food is increasingly becoming an attraction in its own right, as illustrated by the experience of all the ethnic urban neighbourhoods mentioned above and numerous other destinations (Hall & Gossling 2012). In places such as Singapore, **culinary tourism** is encouraged not just to compensate for the lack of iconic attractions but also to reinforce the country's desired image of harmonious multiculturalism (Henderson 2004). For any place, food and drink are means by which the tourist can literally consume the destination, and if the experience is memorable, it can be exceptionally effective at inducing the highly desired outcomes of repeat visitation and favourable word-of-mouth promotion. Increasingly prevalent are strategies to feature distinctive local food and drink, thereby emphasising the destination's unique sense of place while simultaneously encouraging economic, cultural and environmental sustainability (Hall & Gossling 2012).

A particularly well-articulated form of culinary tourism in some destinations is wine tourism (Croce & Perri 2010). Scenic **winescapes** are the focus of tourism activity in well-established locations such as the Napa Valley of California, the Hunter Valley of New South Wales, the Clare and Barossa Valleys of South Australia, the Margaret River region of Western Australia and in emerging locations such as Canada's Niagara Peninsula (Bruwer & Lesschaeve 2012). The more established regions have all benefited from a pattern of producing reliably high quality wines, a strong and positive market image, well-managed cellar door operations, and exurban locations. However, while tourism seems to be highly compatible with the wine industry, attendant challenges include:
- internal competition among producers that impedes collective marketing and management
- increasing competition from new regions that diverts visitors and dissuades repeat visitation
- difficulties in concurrently managing the tourism and production aspects of business
- increased urbanisation and exurbanisation that reduce the winescape's aesthetic appeal and relaxed lifestyle.

Economic activity

'Living' economic activities such as mining, agriculture and manufacturing are often taken for granted by the local community, and particularly by the labour force engaged in those livelihoods. However, these activities can also provide a fascinating and unusual experience for those who use the associated products but are divorced from their actual production. At a deeper level, the widespread separation of modern society from the processes of production in the postindustrial era, and the subsequent desire

to participate at least indirectly in such activities, may help to explain the growing popularity of factory, mine and farm tours.

Canals and railways

Recreational canals and railways provide excellent examples of **functional adaptation** (the use of a structure for a purpose other than its original intent). As with factory, mine and farm tours, such adaptations are associated with the movement from an industrial to a postindustrial society, in which many canals and railways are now more valuable as sites for recreation and tourism than as a means of bulk transportation for industrial goods — their original intent. England is an area where pleasure-boating on canals is especially important, as the Industrial Revolution left behind a legacy of thousands of kilometres of now defunct canals, which have proven ideal for accommodating small pleasure craft (Fallon 2012). A similar phenomenon is apparent in North American locations such as the Trent and Rideau Canals (Ontario, Canada) and the Erie Canal in New York State.

Specialised recreational attractions (SRAs)

Of all categories of tourist attraction, specialised recreational attractions (SRAs) are unique because they are constructed specifically to meet the demands of the tourism and recreation markets. With the exception of ski lifts and several other products that require specific environments, SRAs are also among the attractions least constrained by context and location. Their establishment, in other words, does not usually depend on particular physical conditions. SRAs are in addition the attraction type most clearly related to the tourism industry, since they mostly consist of privately owned businesses (the linear SRAs discussed below are one exception).

Golf courses

Golf courses are an important SRA subcategory for several reasons, including:
- the recent proliferation of golf facilities worldwide (more than 30 000 by the early 2000s)
- the relatively large amount of space that they occupy both individually and collectively
- their association with residential housing developments and integrated resorts
- their controversial environmental impacts, especially in water-scarce destinations such as Cyprus (Boukas, Boustras & Sinka 2012)
- their status as major event venues (e.g. golf tournaments, wedding receptions).

In addition, high concentrations of golf activity, in areas such as Palm Springs, California, and Orlando, Florida, have led to the appearance of **golfscapes**, or landscapes where golf courses and affiliated developments are a dominant land use. The Gold Coast is the best Australian example of a golfscape, with some 30 courses available within council boundaries, and others approved but not (yet) constructed.

Casinos

For many years, casinos were synonymous with Monte Carlo, Las Vegas and few other locations. However, casinos have proliferated well beyond these traditional strongholds as governments have become more aware of, and dependent on gaming-based revenues. Casinos are now a common sight on North American Indian Reserves, in central cities (e.g. Melbourne's Crown Casino and Brisbane's Treasury Casino), and as Mississippi River-style gambling boats in the American South and Midwest. One resultant economic implication of this proliferation is the dilution of potential markets.

An interesting development is the transformation of Macau, China into the Chinese version of Las Vegas (Wan & Li 2013). Increasing competition has prompted the Las Vegas tourism industry to erect ever larger and more fantastic themed casino hotels (e.g. Excalibur, Luxor and MGM Grand) which increasingly blur the distinction between accommodation and attraction. The concurrent development of fine dining opportunities is an additional attempt to attract new visitor segments. Though ideally intended to attract external revenue, casinos such as Jupiters Casino on the Gold Coast are also attractive to local residents, and their presence is often therefore controversial due to the possibility of negative social impacts (see chapter 9).

Theme parks

Theme parks are large-scale, topical and mostly exurban SRAs that contain numerous subattractions (e.g. rides, shows, exhibits, events) intended to provide family groups with an all-inclusive, all-day or multi-day recreational experience. The Disney-related sites (e.g. Disneyland at Anaheim, California; DisneyWorld at Orlando, Florida; and Disneyland Paris) are the best known international examples, while the Gold Coast theme parks (e.g. Dreamworld, Sea World and Warner Bros. Movie World) are the best known Australian examples. Theme parks provide a good illustration of social engineering in that they purport to offer thrilling and spontaneous experiences, yet in reality are hyper-regulated and orchestrated environments that maximise opportunities for retail expenditure by visitors (Rojek 1993). It is largely for this same gap between perception and reality that many of the indigenous villages in China's Yunnan Province have been described as 'ethnic theme parks' (Yang 2010).

Scenic highways, bikeways and hiking trails

Linear recreational attractions are sometimes the result of functional adaptation, as for example canals (see above) and bicycle and walking trails that are constructed on the foundations of abandoned railway lines. The Rails to Trails Conservancy is a US-based organisation that specialises in such conversions. In other cases linear SRAs are custom built to meet specific recreational and tourism needs. The Blue Ridge Parkway and Natchez Trace are US examples of custom-built scenic roadways, while the Appalachian Trail is a well-known example of a specialised long-distance walking track (Littlefield & Siudzinski 2012). A variation of the road theme is the multipurpose highway that is designated, and modified accordingly, as a scenic route. A nostalgia-focused US example that illustrates the concept of contemporary heritage is the old Route 66 from Chicago to Los Angeles, which was the main way of travelling from the north-eastern United States to California in the 1950s (Caton & Santos 2007). Australian examples include Victoria's Great Ocean Road and the Birdsville Track from Marree (SA) to Birdsville (Qld).

Ski resorts

More than most SRAs, ski resort viability is dependent on the availability of specific climatic and topographical conditions, although the invention of affordable snow-making technology greatly facilitated the spread of the industry into regions otherwise unsuitable. Famous ski resorts such as Vail and Aspen (Colorado, USA), Zermatt and St. Moritz (Switzerland) and Whistler (Canada) attest to the transformation of formerly remote and undesirable alpine locales into popular pleasure periphery destinations. A process of consolidation, however, is now evident, with the number of ski areas in the United States declining from 745 to 509 between 1975 and 2000 (Clifford 2002). Concurrently, the average size of resorts has increased and

corporate ownership has become prevalent. As with golf courses, the profitability of the contemporary ski megaresort is increasingly dependent on revenues from affiliated housing developments, in which case the actual ski facilities serve primarily as a 'hook' to attract real-estate investors. A longer-term issue that may affect the survival of many ski resorts is climate change, especially in areas of already marginal snow cover such as the Australian Alps (Pickering 2011).

Retail

Under certain conditions, retail goods and services, like food, are major tourist attractions in their own right, and not only an associated service activity. Singapore and Hong Kong are South-East Asian examples of destinations that offer shopping opportunities as a core component of their tourism product. In cities such as Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia), shopping malls are built into large hotels to create an integrated accommodation–shopping complex. In New Zealand, shopping competes with dining as the main activity undertaken by inbound tourists (see table 5.1).

Mega-malls

The 'mega-mall' phenomenon has historically been associated with North America, where the West Edmonton Mall (Canada), the Mall of the Americas (Minneapolis) and other complexes vied to be recognised as the world's largest shopping centre, often through the display of a theme park environment. In recent years, East Asian malls have competed exclusively for this title. As with theme parks and large casinos, mega-malls are composite attractions that contain numerous individual subattractions, all designed to maximise the amount of time that visitors remain within the facility and the amount of money they spend. Similarly, they are usually contrived in character, incorporating fake Italian townscapes, ski slopes (as in Dubai) or exotic South Pacific themes.

Markets and bazaars

'Colourful' Caribbean markets and 'exotic' Asian bazaars are generic tourism icons of their respective destination regions. The ability to compromise between authenticity (which may repel some tourists) and a comfortable and safe environment for the conventional tourist is a major challenge for operators of market and bazaar attractions. Within Australia, country or 'farmers' markets in communities such as Mount Tamborine and Eumundi (Queensland) are major local attractions, especially for domestic tourists.

Cultural events

Cultural events can be categorised in several ways, including the extent to which they are regular or irregular in occurrence (e.g. the Summer Olympics every four years versus one-time-only special commemorations) or location (the British Open tennis tournament held at Wimbledon versus the changing Olympics site). Cultural events range in size from a small local arts festival to international mega-events such as the football World Cup. In addition, events may be 'single destination' (e.g. Wimbledon) or 'multiple destination' in space or time (e.g. the Olympics sites spread over a region or the circuit-based Tour de France bicycle race). Finally, thematic classification assigns events to topical categories such as history, sport, religion, music and arts. For tourism sites such as theme parks and historical destinations, periodic events are an important supplementary attraction that add to product diversity and offer a distraction from routine. They may also serve as a management device that redistributes visitors

in a more desirable way both in time and space. As with museums, communities have the ability to initiate cultural events by creatively capitalising on available local resources.

Historical re-enactments and commemorations

The re-creation of historical events can serve many purposes in addition to its superficial value as a tourist attraction. Participants may be primarily motivated by a deep-seated desire to connect with significant events of the past, while governments often encourage and sponsor such performances to perpetuate the propaganda or mythological value of the original event, especially if the recreations or commemorations occur at the original sites. Re-enactments associated with the landings of Captain Cook featured prominently in the 1988 Bicentenary commemorations in Australia, although their association with the post-1788 Aboriginal dispossession injected an element of controversy. The period from 2011 to 2018 is an especially active one due to commemorations associated first with the 150th anniversary of the American Civil War (1861–65) and the centenary of World War I (1914–18).

Sporting events

The modern Olympic Games are the most prestigious of all sporting events, although the football World Cup is emerging as a legitimate contender for the title following highly successful recent events and the status of football as the unofficial global sport. That the World Cup and the Olympics do not take place in the same year is a deliberate attempt to avoid competing mega-event hype and coverage. Major sporting events are exceptional in the degree to which they attract extensive media attention, and the number of television viewers far outweighs the on-site audience. These events are therefore additionally important for their potential to induce some of the television audience (which may number several billion consumers) to visit the host city, thereby creating a post-event ripple effect.

The fierce competition that accompanies the selection of host Olympic cities or World Cup nations is therefore as much about long-term image enhancement and induced visitation as it is about the actual event (Hinch & Higham 2011). The 2000 Sydney Games were highly symbolic because of their occurrence at the turn of the millennium and their role in positioning the host city as a globalised 'world city'. The 2008 Beijing Games were unofficially seen as heralding China's emergence as a world sporting (and economic) power, and the 2012 London Games were credited with a revitalisation effect for the host city as well as the host country.

World fairs

While less prestigious than the Olympics, world fairs (designated as such by an official organisation similar to the International Olympic Committee, or IOC) also confer a significant amount of status and visibility to host cities. Expo 2010 in Shanghai, China, for example, attracted an estimated 70 million mostly domestic visitors and was touted as confirming Shanghai's status as a major world city (Xinhua English News 2010).

Festivals and performances

Most countries, including Australia, host an extremely large and diverse number of festivals and performances. Attendance by Australians at various cultural performances attests to their magnitude and broad levels of appeal to different age groups (see table 5.2). As mentioned earlier, destinations have considerable ability to establish

festival- and performance-type events, since these can capitalise on anything from a particular local culture or industry to themes completely unrelated to the area. Examples of the unrelated themes include the Elvis Festival held annually in the central New South Wales town of Parkes and the highly popular Woodford Folk Festival, held annually in the Sunshine Coast hinterland of Queensland. The latter festival could just as easily have been located on any one of a thousand similar sites within an easy drive from Brisbane. In other cases, festivals are more associated with particular destination qualities. The Barossa Vintage Festival in South Australia is a well-known Australian example that capitalises on the local wine industry, while the Queensland town of Gympie leveraged its strong rural identity and lifestyle to cultivate a major country music festival (see Managing tourism: Building social capital with the Gympie Music Muster).

managing tourism

BUILDING SOCIAL CAPITAL WITH THE GYMPIE MUSIC MUSTER

The Gympie Music Muster, a major country music event held every year since 1982 in the Queensland country town of Gympie, demonstrates how local cultural and economic capital — in this case 'countryside capital' — can be harnessed to create an enduring tourist attraction that in turn contributes social capital to the community (Edwards 2012). Gympie (population 18 000) is not only an important agricultural service centre, but also the home of the prominent country music artists the Webb brothers, who held the first Muster on their cattle property after having been involved in various local country music events since the 1940s. In 1993, 47 000

people attended the Muster, including many grey nomads from nearby south-east Queensland. By then, it had been moved to a permanent site in a nearby State Forest Park to accommodate the growing attendance, and was recognised as a nationally important event. Since its inception, the local community has played a prominent role, providing 1500 volunteers a year from 50 local non-profit organisations. These organisations have been strengthened through payments generated by entry fees and other visitor expenditures, as well as their own fundraising activities during the event. Volunteers also benefit from seeing and meeting the performers free of charge. A second way in which new capital has been developed has been through the sense of community and unity generated from collaboration among the organisations and from the pride created by the popular festival. Volunteers are regularly consulted in event planning and feel a sense of ownership and common cause. These first two forms of capital create a third level of exchange — 'social capital'. This comprises the social networks and trust created within the community that facilitate ongoing cooperation. Social capital, for example, has used the Muster as leverage to create two permanent country music institutions, the Australian Institute of Country Music (established in 2001) and the Country Music School of Excellence (established in 2003), both of which generate their own tourism activity throughout the year.

Event	Total attendance (000s)	Percentage by age group								
		Total	15–17	18–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
Popular music concerts	5298	30	38	44	40	32	29	23	15	9
Musicals/opera	2849	16	17	12	15	16	19	20	18	11
Theatre	2847	16	19	14	14	16	19	19	17	10
Dance	1768	10	16	9	8	13	12	9	9	4
Classical music concerts	1554	9	7	6	6	6	10	13	14	11

TABLE 5.2 Attendance by age group at selected cultural events in Australia, 2009–10

Source: Data derived from ABS (2010)

Attraction attributes

Destination managers, as stated earlier, should compile an inventory of their tourism attractions as a prerequisite for the effective management of their tourism sector. It is not sufficient, however, just to list and categorise the attractions. Managers must also periodically assess their status across an array of relevant **attraction attributes** to inform appropriate planning and management decisions (see figure 5.3). A spectrum is used in each case to reflect the continuous nature of these variables. Each of the attraction attributes will now be considered, with no order of importance implied by the sequence of presentation. Image is an important attraction attribute, but is addressed elsewhere in the text in some detail (see chapters 4 and 7).

Ownership

The ownership of an attraction significantly affects the planning and management process. For example, the public ownership of Lamington National Park, in the Gold Coast hinterland, implies the injection of public rather than private funding, a high level of government decision-making discretion and the assignment of a higher priority to environmental and social impacts over profit generation. Public ownership also suggests an extensive regulatory environment and long-term, as opposed to shorter-term, planning horizons. It is for this reason that researchers differentiate between public and private protected areas, with the latter becoming increasingly important as vehicles for conservation and recreation as funding for public entities continues to stagnate (Buckley 2009).

Orientation

An emphasis on profitability is affiliated with, but not identical to, private sector ownership. Revenue-starved governments may place more stress on profit generation, which in turn modifies many management assumptions and actions with respect to the attractions they control. Among the possible implications of a profit reorientation in a national park are the introduction of higher user fees, an easing of visitor quotas, greater emphasis on visitor satisfaction, outsourcing of basic management and

maintenance tasks, and increased latitude for the operation of private concessions. The national park, in essence, becomes a 'business' and its visitors 'customers' who must be satisfied.

Ownership
Public ←——————————————————————————————→ Private

Orientation
Non-profit ←——————————————————————————————→ Profit

Spatial configuration
Nodal ←——————————————————————————————→ Areal

Authenticity
Genuine ←——————————————————————————————→ Imitation

Scarcity (international, national, regional)
Unique ←——————————————————————————————→ Ubiquitous

Status
Primary (Iconic) ←——————————————————————————————→ Secondary

Carrying capacity
Low ←——————————————————————————————→ High

Accessibility (spatial, temporal, financial (price))
Accessible ←——————————————————————————————→ Almost inaccessible

Market
Niche ←——————————————————————————————→ Inclusive
All tourist ←——————————————————————————————→ Mostly local

Image (tourist or resident)
Unfamiliar ←——————————————————————————————→ Familiar
Negative ←——————————————————————————————→ Positive

Context
Compatible ←——————————————————————————————→ Incompatible

FIGURE 5.3 Tourist attraction attributes

Spatial configuration

Geographical shape and size have important managerial implications. Spatially extensive linear SRAs such as the Appalachian Trail (United States), for example, may cross a large number of political jurisdictions, each of them having some influence therefore over the management of the trail. In addition, long-distance walking trails in particular pass through privately owned land for much of their length, which renders them susceptible to relocation if some landowners decide that they no longer want the trail to pass through their property because of security, liability or vandalism concerns. In the United Kingdom, the status of public walking trails on private property has become a highly contentious and politically charged issue. Linear SRAs are also likely to share extensive borders with adjacent land uses — such as forestry, military bases and mining — that may not be compatible with tourism or recreation. There is potential for conflict and dissatisfaction from the fact that these trails, roads and bikeways rely to a large extent on the scenic resources of these adjacent landscapes, yet the latter are vulnerable to modification by forces over which the attraction manager has no control. Planting vegetation to hide these uncomplementary modifications may be the only practical management option under such circumstances.

In contrast, a circular or square site (e.g. some national parks) reduces the length of the attraction's boundary and thus the potential for conflict with adjacent land uses.

This also has practical implications in matters such as the length of boundary that must be fenced or patrolled. The classification of a site often depends on the scale of investigation. For example, a regional strategy for south-east Queensland would regard Dreamworld as an internally undifferentiated 'node' or 'point', whereas a site-specific master plan would regard the same attraction as an internally differentiated 'area'.

Authenticity

Whereas ownership, orientation and spatial configuration are relatively straight-forward, 'authenticity' is a highly ambiguous and contentious attribute that has long been the subject of academic attention (Cohen & Cohen 2012). An exhaustive discussion is beyond the scope of this book, but it suffices to say that authenticity is concerned with how 'genuine' an attraction is as opposed to imitative or contrived. This is not to say, however, that contrivance is necessarily a negative characteristic. For example, the 40 000-year-old Neolithic cave paintings at Lascaux (France) were so threatened by the perspiration and respiration of tourists that an almost exact replica was constructed nearby for viewing purposes. Whether the replica is seen in a positive or negative light depends on how it is presented and interpreted; if the tourist is made aware that it is an imitation, and that it is provided as part of the effort to preserve the original while still providing a high quality educational experience, then the copy may be perceived in a very positive light. Similarly, the mega-casinos of Las Vegas offer a contrived experience, but this is not usually problematic since patrons recognise that contrivance and fantasy are central elements of their Vegas tourist experience (see chapter 9).

The issue of authenticity is associated with **sense of place**, an increasingly popular management concept defined as the mix of natural and cultural characteristics that distinguishes a particular destination from all other destinations, and hence positions it as 'unique' along the scarcity spectrum. Sense of place is strongly associated with place attachment and place loyalty behaviour (e.g. repeat visitation) in diverse settings — for example, South Australian dive sites (Moskwa 2012).

Scarcity

An important management implication of scarcity is that a very rare or unique attraction is likely to be both highly vulnerable and highly alluring to tourists as a consequence of its scarcity, assuming that it also has innate attractiveness. At the other end of the spectrum are **ubiquitous attractions** such as golf courses or theme parks; that is, those that are found or can be established almost anywhere.

Status

A useful distinction can be made between primary or **iconic attractions** and secondary attractions, which tourists are likely to visit once they have already been drawn to a destination by the primary attraction. A destination may have more than one primary attraction, as with the Eiffel Tower and Louvre in Paris, or the Opera House and harbour in Sydney. One potential disadvantage of iconic attractions is their power to stereotype entire destinations (e.g. the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, Swiss Alp villages, the Pyramids of Egypt, or the Great Wall of China). Another potential disadvantage is the negative publicity and loss of visitation that may occur if an iconic attraction is lost due to fire, natural forces or other factors, prompting managers in some cases to try to resurrect such sites as 'residual attractions' focused, for example, on commemorations, re-creations, a dedicated museum, or a memorial trail (Weaver & Lawton 2007).

Carrying capacity

Carrying capacity is difficult to measure since it is not a fixed quality. A national park may have a low visitor carrying capacity in the absence of tourism-related services, but a high visitor carrying capacity once a dirt trail has been paved with cobblestones and biological toilets installed to centralise and treat tourist wastes. In such instances of **site hardening**, managers must be careful to ensure that the remedial actions themselves do not pose a threat to the site or to the carrying capacity of affiliated resources such as wildlife (see chapters 9 and 11). It is crucial that managers have an idea of an attraction's carrying capacity at all times, so that, depending on the circumstances, appropriate measures can be taken to either increase this capacity or reduce the stress so that the existing carrying capacity is not exceeded.

Accessibility

Accessibility can be measured variably in terms of space, time and affordability. Spatial access only by a single road will have the positive effect of facilitating entry control, but the negative effects of creating potential bottlenecks and isolating the site in the event of a flood or earthquake. Another dimension of spatial accessibility is how well an attraction is identified on roadmaps and in road signage. Temporal accessibility can be seasonal (e.g. an area closed by winter snowfalls) or assessed on a daily or weekly basis (hours and days of operation). Affordability is important in determining likely markets and visitation levels. All three dimensions should be assessed continually as aspects of an attraction that can be manipulated as part of an effective management strategy.

Market

Destination and attraction markets often vary depending on the season, time of day, cost and other factors. One relevant dimension is whether the attraction appeals to the broad tourism market, as theme parks such as Disney World attempt to do, or to a particular segment of the market, as with battle re-enactments or hunting (see chapter 6). This dictates the type of marketing approach that would be most appropriate (see chapter 7). A second dimension identifies sites and events that are almost exclusively tourist-oriented, as opposed to those that attract mostly local residents. Because of the tendency of clientele to be mixed to a greater or lesser extent, the all-encompassing term 'visitor attraction' is often used in preference to the term 'tourist attraction'. Positive and negative impacts can be associated with both tourist-dominant and resident-dominant attractions. For instance, an exclusively tourist-oriented site may generate local resentment but contain negative impacts to the site itself. The mixing of tourists and locals in some circumstances can increase the probability of cultural conflict, but can also provide tourists with authentic exposure to local lifestyles and opportunities to make new friends (chapter 9).

Context

Context describes the characteristics of the space and time that surround the relevant site or event and, as such, is an attribute that considers the actual and potential impacts of external systems. An example of a compatible external influence is a designated municipal conservation area that serves as a buffer zone surrounding a more environmentally sensitive national park. An incompatible use might be houses hosting domestic pets and exotic plants that may undermine native biodiversity in an adjacent park. The influence of temporal context is demonstrated by a large sporting event that

is held shortly after a similar event in another city, which could either stimulate or depress public interest depending on the circumstances.

THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

The tourism industry, as described in chapter 2, includes the businesses that provide goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption. Some but not all attractions belong to the tourism industry (or industries). It is worth reiterating that some aspects of the tourism industry are relatively straightforward (e.g. accommodation and travel agencies), but others (e.g. transportation and restaurants) are more difficult to differentiate into their tourism and nontourism components. In addition, commercial activities such as cruise ships and integrated resorts do not readily allow for the isolation of accommodation, transportation, food and beverages, and shopping as distinct components since they usually provide all of these in a single packaged arrangement.

Travel agencies

More than any other tourism industry sector, **travel agencies** are associated with origin regions (see chapter 2). Their primary function is to provide retail travel services to customers on a commission basis from cruise lines and other tourism sectors or on a fee basis from customers directly. Travel agents in addition normally offer ancillary services such as travel insurance and passport/visa services. As such, they are an important interface or intermediary between consumers and other tourism businesses. Often overlooked, however, is the critical role of travel agents in shaping tourism systems by providing undecided consumers with information and advice about prospective destinations. Furthermore, travel agents can provide invaluable feedback to destination managers because of their sensitivity to market trends and post-trip tourist attitudes about particular destinations and services.

Disintermediation and decommissioning

All these traditional assumptions about the role and importance of travel agents within tourism systems have been challenged by the ongoing phenomenon of **disintermediation**, which is the removal of intermediaries such as travel agents from the distribution networks that connect consumers (i.e. the tourist market) with products (e.g. accommodations and destinations). This is associated with the rise of the internet, which allows hotels, carriers and other businesses to offer their products through ecommerce directly to consumers in a more convenient and less expensive package (cheaper because it eliminates the agent's commission). The internet, in addition, has spawned the creation of specialised 'e-travel agencies' such as Travelocity and Expedia. By 2010, it was estimated that more than one-half of all leisure trips and 40 per cent of all business trips were booked online, for an estimated value of US$256 billion or about one-third of all travel and tourism sales (WTTC 2011).

An added challenge has been the process of **decommissioning**, which began in the mid-1990s, wherein airlines no longer pay a standard commission (often 10 per cent) to travel agents in exchange for airfare bookings. Disintermediation and decommissioning have combined with the market uncertainty that followed the 2001 terrorist attacks to create an era of unprecedented challenge for conventional travel agencies in certain countries, although some businesses have performed exceptionally well despite these adverse circumstances. In the United States, where both processes are more

advanced, successful travel agencies tend to emphasise personalised customer service, employee enrichment initiatives, peer networking and the fostering of a climate of learning among employees as part of a broader strategy of continuous relationship building (Weaver & Lawton 2008). Most have also embraced internet-based technologies as an effective way of facilitating these strategies and complementing quality face-to-face interactions with clients (Lawton & Weaver 2009).

Transportation

The overriding trend in **transportation** over the past century (see chapters 2 and 3) is the ascendancy of the car and the aeroplane at the expense of water- and rail-based transport. The technological and historical aspects of these trends have already been outlined in earlier chapters, and the sections that follow focus instead on contemporary industry considerations.

Air

As a commercial activity, air transportation is differentiated between scheduled airlines (with standard and budget or low-cost variants), charter airlines and private jets. The last category is by far the smallest and most individualised. The major difference between the first two is the flexibility of charter schedules and the ability of charters to accommodate specific requests from organisations or tour operators.

Airline alliances

A distinctive characteristic of the airline industry is the formation of alliances such as the *Star Alliance*, *oneworld* and *SkyTeam*. As of 2013, these alliances accounted for about three-quarters of all major airlines. Purportedly established on the premise that individual airlines can no longer provide the comprehensive array of services demanded by the contemporary traveller, these alliances offer:
• expanded route networks
• ease of transfer between airlines
• integrated services
• greater reciprocity in frequent flier programs and lounge privileges (Fyall & Garrod 2005).

However, more frequent code-sharing (i.e. two airlines sharing the same flight) also means fewer flight options, higher prices (because of reduced competition) and more crowded flights for consumers.

Deregulation

Deregulation (the removal or relaxation of regulations) is intended to introduce or increase competition within the air transportation sector. Associated with deregulation is the increased application of the so-called seventh, eighth and ninth **freedoms of the air**, which respectively allow a carrier based, for example, in Australia to carry passengers between two other countries and to carry passengers on domestic routes within another country (see figure 5.4). Illustrating the ninth freedom is Ryanair, a low-cost Irish airline that maintains an extensive network of routes within Italy. Although not aimed at this level yet, the open skies aviation agreement signed in February 2008 between Australia and the USA effectively ended the trans-Pacific monopoly of United Airlines and Qantas by allowing the market rather than government to dictate the most efficient structure of the air transit network that connects the two countries.

First freedom	Flying over a country without landing
	Australia NZ USA
Second freedom	Landing in a third country for technical reasons (e.g. refuelling)
	Australia NZ USA
Third freedom	Dropping off passengers, cargo or mail (traffic)
	Australia NZ USA
Fourth freedom	Picking up traffic
	Australia NZ USA
Fifth freedom	Dropping off and picking up traffic in a third country
	Australia NZ USA
Sixth freedom	Carrying traffic from one foreign country directly to another foreign country by way of the home country
	Singapore Australia USA
Seventh freedom	Carrying traffic from one foreign country directly to another foreign country
	Australia NZ USA
Eighth freedom	Carrying traffic on domestic routes within a foreign country before returning to home country
	Australia USA (Honolulu) USA (Los Angeles)
Ninth freedom	Carrying traffic on domestic routes within a foreign country
	Australia USA (Honolulu) USA (Los Angeles)

FIGURE 5.4 Freedoms of the air

Privatisation

Privatisation, or the transfer of publicly owned airlines to the private sector, is a trend closely related to deregulation. This can be undertaken (a) as a wholesale transform- ation, (b) as a partial measure achieved through the sale of a certain portion of shares, or (c) through the subcontracting of work. The main rationale for privatisation, as with open skies agreements, is the belief that the private sector is more efficient at pro- viding commercial services such as air passenger transportation. One potential concern in such developments is the increased likelihood that privatised airlines will eliminate unprofitable routes vital to regional or rural destinations. In contrast, national carriers are usually mandated in the broader 'national interest' to operate such marginal routes despite their unprofitable returns.

Low-cost carriers

The emergence of **low-cost carriers** (also known as 'budget' or 'no-frills' airlines) is another consequence of deregulation and one that has posed a substantial threat to the traditional full-service airlines as they account for a growing proportion of all passenger loads. Low fares, unsurprisingly, are the main reason why almost one-half of travellers cite a preference for low-cost carriers, which eliminate many traditional services (e.g. meals, free baggage allowances), tend to focus on short-haul routes, and rely heavily on internet bookings (Yeung, Tsang & Lee 2012). Some traditional airlines have responded by forming their own low-cost subsidiaries. Scoot Airlines, for example, was established by Singapore Airlines in 2011 to compete in Asia with more established low-cost carriers such as AirAsia and Jetstar.

Road

Only certain elements of the road-based transportation industry, including coaches, caravans and rental cars, are strongly affiliated with the tourism industry. Coaches remain a potent symbol of the package tour both in their capacity as tour facilitators and as transportation from airport to hotel. Caravans remain popular because of their dual accommodation and transportation functions. This mode of transport is highly appealing to **grey nomads**, or older adults who take extended recreational road trips during their retirement (Patterson, Pegg & Litster 2011). The car and the aeroplane in many contexts are seen as competing modes of transportation. However, the rental car industry (e.g. Hertz, National, Avis, Budget) has benefited from the expansion of air transportation, as many passengers appreciate the flexibility of having access to their own vehicle once they arrive at a destination.

Railway

The rail industry as a whole now plays a marginal role in tourism, but there are two areas where this involvement is more substantial. The first concerns regions, such as Western Europe and East Asia, where concentrated and well-used rail networks facilitate mass tourism travel. Rail pass options that allow unlimited access over a given period of time are a popular product among free and independent travellers (FITs). Australia, among many such nationwide and state-specific options, offers the Austrail Pass, which provides unlimited economy travel within the entire network over consecutive days, and the Sunshine Rail Pass, which allows 14-, 21- or 30-day unlimited travel over the Queensland Rail network on either a first-class or economy basis. In future, trains could once again play a more important transit role as escalating fuel costs and environmental concerns curtail travel by air or road (Becken & Hay 2012).

The second perspective pertains to train tours as attractions. As with cruise ships, the trip itself is as much part of the 'destination' as the points of origin and terminus. Train tours also attract the higher end of the market in terms of income. Well-known examples include the Orient Express between London and Istanbul and the Eastern Orient Express between Bangkok and Singapore. A notable Australian example is The Ghan, which connects Adelaide and Darwin (Winter 2007).

Water

The great ocean liners that once dominated the trans-Atlantic trade are now in a situation comparable to the great rail journeys — a high-end but residual niche product. Yet the resilience of this sector is indicated by the launching in 2004 of the

Queen Mary II, which is the first major liner to be launched on the trans-Atlantic route since the *Queen Elizabeth II* in 1969. The regional cruise market in areas such as the Caribbean and Mediterranean has been more robust, expanding continuously since the 1980s (Dowling 2006). Cruising has become increasingly popular in Australia as well, with P&O permanently basing ships in major ports, and lines from other countries basing vessels in Australia for three-to-four-month seasons. Important trends include the proliferation of ever larger mega cruise liners such as Royal Caribbean International's *Allure of the Seas* and *Oasis of the Seas*, which each boast a capacity of more than 5000 passengers.

Accommodation

Notwithstanding the local importance of cruise ships and caravans, the vast majority of stayovers who do not stay in the homes of friends or relatives use commercial tourist accommodation. Once restricted to a narrow range of conventional hotels and motels, the **accommodation** industry is now characterised by a high level of diversity and specialisation.

Hotels

Traditionally, **hotels** were established in central cities, often near major railway stations, to meet the needs of business travellers. Such hotels are usually no longer dependent on rail access and have often been reinvented as exclusive 'boutique hotels' that feature intimacy and an often quirky urban design. Another inner city facility is the 'convention hotel', which emerged during the 1960s to provide specialised meeting, conference and convention services and, increasingly, diversions such as gaming facilities. As such, they are closely affiliated with MICE tourism (see chapter 2). 'Airport hotels' are a more recent innovation. Usually clustering along distinctive hotel strips, their proximity to major airports attracts aeroplane crews and transit passengers. Event organisers use them with increasing frequency because they are convenient for tourists arriving by air. Airport hotels may also benefit as passengers are forced to allow more lead-in time to clear security for morning flights (Lee & Jang 2011). 'Motels' (*mo*tor ho*tels*) in a sense are the opposite of airport hotels, as they offer independent access to units for tourists travelling mainly by car. 'Resort hotels' are a 3S tourism symbol. These can range from specialised providers of accommodation such as spas or ecolodges to fully integrated enclave resorts that offer comprehensive recreational, retail and other opportunities. Other specialised facilities include the 'apartment hotel' and 'extended stay hotel', which provide cooking facilities and other services appropriate for a stay of at least one week, and **timesharing**, which involves the purchase of 'intervals' (usually measured in weeks) at a resort over a given period of years. In some cases these are consumed during the same week each year, and in others on a more flexible basis. **Ecolodges** tend to be upscale and environmentally-friendly facilities that cater to ecotourists wanting to visit the natural attractions of nearby national parks and other protected areas.

As with cruise ships, hotel guest capacities are constantly being increased. Las Vegas hotel structures such as the MGM Grand and Luxor each offer more than 5000 rooms, or an amount equivalent to all the hotel rooms in Bermuda. From a corporate perspective, the hotel sector is controlled by a relatively small number of large chains (see table 5.3). United States-based corporations are dominant, reflecting not just the strong global US corporate presence, but also the enormous size of the US domestic tourism sector. Notable, however, is the appearance of four China-based chains in the top 25, compared with just one in 2007.

TABLE 5.3 The 25 largest hotel chains worldwide, 2011				
Rank	Chain	Country	Number of rooms	Number of hotels
1	InterContinental (IHG)	United Kingdom	658 348	4480
2	Marriott International	United States	643 196	3718
3	Hilton Hotels	United States	633 238	3843
4	Wyndham Worldwide	United States	613 126	7205
5	Accor	France	531 714	4426
6	Choice Hotels	United States	497 205	6178
7	Starwood	United States	321 552	1090
8	Best Western International	United States	311 894	4086
9	Jin Jiang International	China	193 334	1243
10	Home Inns & Hotels	China	176 824	1426
11	Carlson	United States	165 663	1076
12	Magnuson	United States	140 700	1804
13	Hyatt	United States	132 727	483
14	Westmont Hospitality	United States	98 404	659
15	7 Days Group	China	94 684	944
16	Melia Hotels International	Spain	90 264	354
17	Louvre Hotels Group	France	85 708	1075
18	LQ Management	United States	84 302	828
19	Extended Stay Hotels	United States	76 225	685
20	China Lodging Group	China	73 600	639
21	Interstate Hotels & Resorts	United States	70 119	387
22	Vantage Hospitality	United States	66 342	1045
23	NH Hoteles	Spain	59 052	397
24	Whitbread	United Kingdom	48 725	626
25	MGM Resorts	United States	46 663	20

Source: *HOTELS Magazine* (2012)

Tour operators

Tour operators are intermediaries or facilitating businesses within the tourism distribution system that can be differentiated between an outbound (or wholesaler) component and an inbound component. **Outbound tour operators** are based in origin regions and generally are large companies that organise volume-driven package tours and the travel groups that purchase these. This involves the negotiation of contracts with carriers, travel agencies, hotels and other suppliers of goods and services, including the **inbound tour operators** that take responsibility for the tour groups once they arrive in the destination. Revenue is usually generated on a commission basis. The inbound component, often based in major gateway cities, arranges (also on a commission basis) destination itineraries and local services such as transportation, access to attractions, local tour-guiding services and, in some cases, accommodation. By the destinations and services that they choose to assemble, both types of tour operators exercise an important influence over the development of tourism systems. They remain especially important in the rapidly-growing Chinese outbound market, which prefers to travel through package tours (Huang, Song & Zhang 2010).

Like travel agencies, contemporary tour operators are challenged by rapidly changing developments in technology and markets and must respond by being innovative. The uniform package tour was suitable for the industrial mode of production that dominated the era of Thomas Cook, but is increasingly less suited for postindustrial society. It is necessary now to provide specialised products for a more diverse and discriminating market that likes to use the internet to assemble its own customised itineraries.

One means of achieving product diversification is to treat each unit of the tourism experience as a separate 'mini-package', thereby allowing consumers to assemble units into a customised package tour that fits their individual needs. One consumer may choose a two-week beach resort holiday with full services, followed by one week in the outback on a coach tour, while another can select from the same operator a two-week stay at an outback lodge, followed by a one-week, limited-service stay at a beach resort.

Merchandise

Tourism-related merchandise can be divided into items purchased in the origin region or the destination region. Origin region merchandise includes camping equipment, luggage and travel guidebooks. The latter continue to serve as a major influence on destination selection and tourist behaviour once in the destination (Peel, Sørensen & Steen 2012). Established travel guide publishers such as Fodor, Fielding, Lonely Planet and Frommer have widespread brand recognition within the tourist market and are therefore highly influential in shaping travel patterns and tourism systems. As with travel agencies, a major contemporary guidebook trend is the integration of conventional and online dimensions. Lonely Planet, for example, augments it's still robust hard copy sales with online and electronic services, with the corporate website (www.lonelyplanet.com) providing opportunities to purchase either hard copy or eBook editions of its 570 guides.

Souvenirs are the dominant form of merchandise purchased by tourists within destinations. These can range from jewellery trinkets and T-shirts to expensive, highly ornate crafts, artworks and clothing. Ironically, many of these items may be imported, calling into question their validity as 'souvenirs' of a particular destination. In contrast, duty-free shopping is based not on the desire to acquire souvenirs, but to obtain luxury items at a discount. Accordingly, whether such items are imported into the destination or not is irrelevant to most tourists. Duty-free shopping is dominated by larger corporations and chains, whereas souvenirs are often more associated with cottage industries (though many are also imported from foreign countries such as China). In Australia, the souvenir sector is dominated by Aboriginal-themed artefacts, leading to issues of authenticity, proprietary rights, the place of Indigenous Australians in contemporary Australian society, and the formation of 'consumer' images and expectations about the Australian tourism product (Franklin 2010).

Industry structure

Corporate changes and re-alignments take place continually within the tourism industry and illustrate a process known as integration. **Horizontal integration** occurs when firms attain a higher level of consolidation or control within their own sector. This can be achieved through mergers and alliances with competitors, outright takeovers or through the acquisition of shares in other companies within the sector. Wyndham Worldwide, the fourth largest hotel chain as of 2011 (see table 5.3) illustrates this phenomenon, incorporating (among others) the Wyndham, Ramada, Super 8, Wingate Inn, and Days Inn brands. Horizontal integration also results from

the independent establishment of subsidiaries, which diversify the firm's basic product line and thereby cushion the impact of any shifts in consumer demand, for example from first-class to budget accommodation preferences. Figure 5.5 illustrates these options in the context of a hypothetical tour operator.

In contrast, **vertical integration** occurs when a firm obtains greater control over elements of the product chain outside its own sector. If this integration moves further away from the actual consumer (e.g. a large tour operator gains control over a company that manufactures small tour buses), then vertical 'backward' integration is evident. If this integration moves closer to the consumer (e.g. the tour operator acquires a chain of travel agents), then vertical 'forward' integration is occurring. Both forms of integration imply that a firm is gaining control over more components of the tourism system as a way of becoming more competitive and ultimately maximising its profits. An excellent example is the Germany-based corporation TUI (www.tui-group.com/en/), which branched out from its core outbound tour operations to acquire or establish various subsidiary airlines, travel agencies, hotel chains and cruise lines. In 2012, this transnational industry giant boasted approximately 74 000 employees.

VERTICAL BACKWARD INTEGRATION
Gain control over company that manufactures tour buses

HORIZONTAL INTEGRATION
Establish adventure tourism tour operator subsidiary

Tour operation

HORIZONTAL INTEGRATION
Acquire controlling interest in another tour operator

Gain control over chain of travel agents
VERTICAL FORWARD INTEGRATION
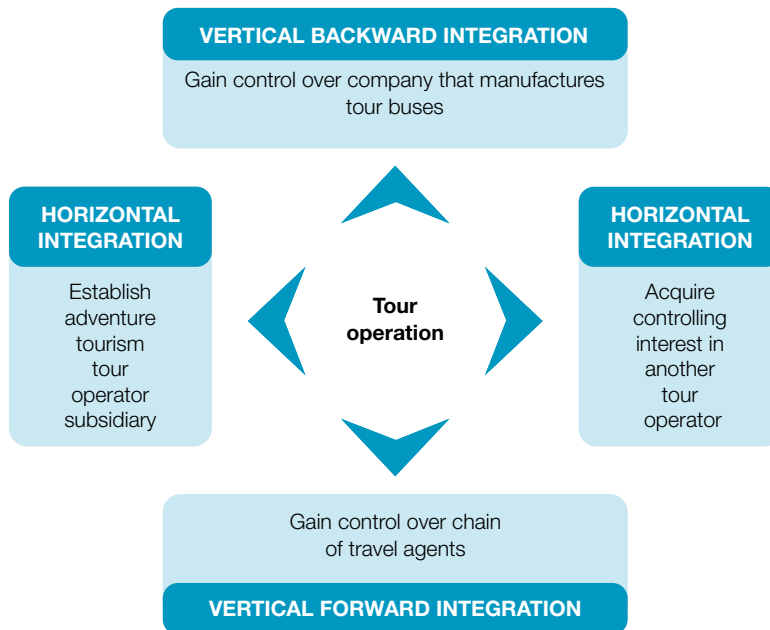
FIGURE 5.5 Horizontal and vertical integration

Vertical and horizontal integration are common and longstanding phenomena within the business world, as evidenced by the flurry of acquisitions and mergers that occurred in the car industry during the first half of the twentieth century. What distinguishes integration since the 1980s, however, is its global character. As the world moves towards a single global capitalist system (a process aided by advances in communications technology), firms are less constrained than ever by the presence of national boundaries and regulations in their attempt to maximise profit. This trend is commonly regarded as indicative of **globalisation**, although no precise definition actually exists for the term. The original five freedoms of the air are an early example of globalisation, while the formation of airline alliances is a more recent example.

Within the context of globalisation, we can imagine that the hypothetical tour operation in figure 5.5 will expand from its Sydney base to acquire a rival in Auckland, and then set up its specialised subsidiaries in North America and western Europe, while negotiating to acquire a chain of Japanese travel agencies. The re-aligned tour operator, under the imperatives of globalisation, thereby emerges as a powerful, globally integrated force rather than one that is only nationally influential, and benefits from an increasingly deregulated, privatised global business environment. The private sector tourism manager of the future is a highly mobile individual who expects to reside in several countries during their working career. Such descriptions, however, apply to large tourism corporations, and it should be emphasised that the overwhelming majority of tourism businesses in most countries have only a few employees. These small enterprises are notorious for their high rate of failure, but timely adoption of facilitating technologies is one way in which they can be competitive in an uncertain and continuously changing operational environment (see Technology and tourism: Making big decisions in small businesses).

technology and tourism

MAKING BIG DECISIONS IN SMALL BUSINESSES

To remain competitive, business decision makers must be able to assess and, if appropriate, adopt new innovations in a timely manner. This is particularly important for owners of small businesses with limited resources and margins whose survival may depend on a single correct decision. Research into the technological adoptions of small travel agencies in Jamaica revealed a paradox where simple organisational structures allow decisions to be made quickly, but fears about family or friends losing their jobs give rise to innate caution among decision makers (Spencer, Buhalis & Moital 2012). Whether decisions to adopt new internet technologies were subsequently made or not depended largely upon the type of leadership exhibited in the firm. First, owners with university experience — especially in generic business and management-related subjects — had a higher level of comfort with the internet and other facilitating technologies. Second, those who had prior experience outside the travel and tourism sector were also open to change, perhaps because sectors such as real estate and banking had to adapt earlier than the tourism industry to the technological revolution. Third, personal use of the internet, and having younger children at home, were strong predictors of adaptability, although heavy users were also more likely to admit to being overwhelmed by the amount of information available and the rate of change in areas such as social media. Finally, a contagion effect was identified wherein managers who were open to change created an atmosphere where employees felt comfortable to make suggestions and experiment with new ideas. This was characterised as an 'intellectual stimulation' effect. In sum, those with high levels of education in generic business subjects, personal and family exposure to the internet, and prior work experience in fields such as real estate and banking, were most likely to be 'converters' open to innovations such as e-commerce and social media marketing, and inspire their employees to follow suit (Spencer, Buhalis & Moital 2012).

CHAPTER REVIEW

Tourist attractions are a central element of the tourism product that may or may not be part of the tourism industry, depending on their level of commercialisation and other factors. For organisation and discussion purposes, attractions (excepting VFR and business-related 'attractions') can be categorised into natural sites, natural events, cultural sites and cultural events, recognising that the distinctions between these categories are often blurred, and hybrid attractions are common. The potential range of attractions is extremely diverse, and destinations benefit from having a broad array, since this increases potential market draw. However, destinations are limited in how much they can influence their attraction inventory — there is considerable flexibility in establishing museums, theme parks and cultural events, for example, but little or no scope for changing a location's history, topography or climate. Whatever a destination's inventory of attractions, it is important to assess and monitor their critical attributes in order to make informed planning and management decisions that will maximise the positive impacts of tourism for operators as well as residents. These attributes include ownership structure, spatial configuration, authenticity, scarcity, carrying capacity, accessibility, market and context. Some variables, such as carrying capacity and image, are difficult to measure and monitor, while others, such as context, are difficult to change or control.

The tourism product also includes the broader tourism industry, which, in addition to some attractions, can be divided into travel agencies, transportation, accommodation, tour operators and merchandise retailers. The available consumer options within all these sectors are becoming more specialised and diverse, but the industry itself, ironically, is growing ever more consolidated and concentrated within the hands of a few horizontally and vertically integrated mega-corporations. Because of globalisation, this integration is occurring as an increasingly deregulated and transnational phenomenon, suggesting that large global corporations are gaining more control over international tourism systems.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Accommodation within the context of the tourism industry, commercial facilities primarily intended to host stayover tourists for overnight stays

Attraction attributes characteristics of an attraction that are relevant to the management of an area as a tourist destination and thus should be periodically measured and monitored; includes ownership, orientation, spatial configuration, authenticity, scarcity, status, carrying capacity, accessibility, market and image

Attraction inventory a systematic list of the tourist attractions found in a particular destination

Contemporary heritage structures and other sites from the latter half of the twentieth century that are deemed to be important as heritage sites; especially relevant to tourism cities that lack connections with a deeper history

Culinary tourism tourism that involves the consumption of usually locally produced food and drink

Cultural events attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more locations, and are more constructed than natural; these include historical commemorations and re-creations, world fairs, sporting events and festivals

Cultural sites geographically fixed attractions that are more constructed than natural; these can be classified into prehistorical, historical, contemporary, economic, specialised recreational and retail subcategories

Dark tourism tourism involving sites or events associated with death or suffering, including battlefields and sites of mass killings or assassinations

Decommissioning the process whereby vendors of travel products (e.g. airlines, cruise lines) no longer provide a monetary or other commission to an intermediary such as a travel agency in exchange for the sale of their products to consumers

Disintermediation the removal of intermediaries such as travel agents from the product/consumer connection

Ecolodges typically upscale and environmentally-friendly accommodations which cater to ecotourists wanting convenient access to nearby national parks or other protected areas

Ephemeral attraction an attraction, such as a wildflower display or rarely filled lakebed, that occurs over a brief period of time or on rare occasions only

Freedoms of the air eight privileges, put in place through bilateral agreements, that govern the global airline industry

Functional adaptation the use of a structure for a purpose other than its original intent, represented in tourism by canals used by pleasure boaters and old homes converted into bed and breakfasts

Globalisation the process whereby the operation of businesses and the movement of capital is increasingly less impeded by national boundaries, and is reflected in a general trend towards industry consolidation, deregulation and privatisation

Golfscapes cultural landscapes that are dominated by golf courses and affiliated developments

Grey nomads older adults who spend a substantial portion of their time during their retirement travelling in caravans to various recreational destinations

Horizontal integration occurs when firms attain a higher level of consolidation or control within their own sector

Hotels the most conventional type of tourist accommodation; can be subcategorised into city, convention, airport, resort and apartment hotels, and motels

Iconic attraction an attraction that is well-known and closely associated with a particular destination, such as Mt Fuji (Japan) or the Statue of Liberty (United States)

Inbound tour operators tour operators that coordinate and manage the component of the package tour within the destination, in cooperation with a partner outbound tour operator

Low-cost carriers airlines that compete with traditional carriers by offering substantially lower fares but also a 'bare bones' selection of services; usually associated with short-haul routes and internet bookings

Natural events attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more locations, and are more natural than constructed

Natural sites geographically fixed attractions that are more natural than constructed; these can be subdivided into topography (physical features), climate, hydrology (water resources), wildlife, vegetation and location

Outbound tour operators tour operators based in origin regions that organise and market volume-driven package tours that include transportation, accommodation, visits to attractions and other items of interest to tourists

Sense of place the combination of natural and cultural characteristics that makes a destination unique in comparison to any other destination, and thus potentially provides it with a competitive advantage

Site hardening increasing the visitor carrying capacity of a site through structural and other changes that allow more visitors to be accommodated

Snowbirds individuals, usually from cooler climates, who spend a substantial portion of the winter in warmer climate destinations, often forming enclaves with other people from the same country or region

Soft power the projection of influence and power through subtle means such as foreign aid and cultural exports, in contrast to hard power such as military bases

Timesharing an accommodation option in which a user purchases one or more intervals (or weeks) per year in a resort, usually over a long period of time

Tour operators businesses providing a package of tourism-related services for the consumer, including some combination of accommodation, transportation, restaurants and attraction visits

Tourism industry the sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption

Tourism product consists of tourist attractions and the tourism industry

Tourism resources features of a destination that are valued as attractions by tourists at some particular point in time; a feature that was a tourism resource 100 years ago may not be perceived as such now

Tourist attractions specific and generic features of a destination that attract tourists; some, but not all, attractions are part of the tourism industry

Transportation businesses involved in conveying tourists by air, road, rail or water

Travel agencies businesses providing retail travel services to customers for commission on behalf of other tourism industry sectors

Ubiquitous attractions attractions that can be established almost anywhere and are usually specialised recreational facilities (e.g. golf courses, theme parks)

Vertical integration occurs when a corporation obtains greater control over elements of the product chain outside its own sector

Winescapes a cultural landscape significantly influenced by the presence of vineyards, wineries and other features associated with viticulture and wine production; an essential element of wine-focused culinary tourism

■ QUESTIONS

1 How has the image of mountains changed since the early 1800s? What have been the implications of these changes for the evolution of alpine tourism?

2 What is the effect of climate on 3S and urban tourism respectively?

3 Why are linear attractions often more difficult to manage than those which are compact?

4 (a) What is meant by 'functional adaptation' with respect to tourist attractions?
(b) What are some examples of functional adaptation?

5 How do cultural sites differ from cultural events in terms of their management implications?

6 How can the manager of an attraction deal with the attribute of 'context' (see figure 5.3), which is difficult to control because it involves the external environment?

7 How can events such as the Gympie Music Muster capitalise on and reinforce local cultural, economic and social capital?

8 What are the implications of low-cost airlines for the competitiveness of traditional full-service airlines?

9 (a) What effect does horizontal and vertical integration have on the structure of tourism systems?
(b) How is this effect influenced by globalisation?

■ EXERCISES

1 (a) Identify how each of the 20 activities by inbound tourists to New Zealand, listed in table 5.1, fits into the attraction inventory provided in figure 5.1.

(b) Prepare a 500-word report that describes how the New Zealand tourism industry, based on these 20 activities, fits overall into the attraction inventory, and the management implications of these patterns.

2 (a) Using table 5.3, calculate the average number of rooms per hotel for the 25 largest hotel chains.

(b) Rearrange these hotel rankings from the largest to lowest average size.

(c) Prepare a 500-word report in which you describe the differences in average size and the reasons for these variations.

■ FURTHER READING

Hall, C. M. & Gossling, S. (Eds) 2012. *Sustainable Culinary Systems: Local Foods, Innovation, Tourism and Hospitality.* **London: Routledge.** Contributions in this book adopt a common theme of culinary sustainability, thereby affiliating one of the fastest growing forms of tourism with an emerging societal mega-theme that implicates the future of tourism.

Kotler, N., Kotler, P. & Kotler, W. 2008. *Museum Marketing and Strategy: Designing Missions, Building Audiences, Generating Revenue and Resources.* **Second Edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.** Museums are examined from a strategic marketing perspective in this text, which considers issues of core strategies, market segments, branding and tactical marketing.

Lovelock, B. (Ed.) 2008. *Tourism and the Consumption of Wildlife: Hunting, Shooting and Sport Fishing.* **London: Routledge.** This first edited volume on the phenomenon of consumptive wildlife tourism features historical perspectives, impacts, and current issues and trends, including ethical implications of such activity.

Staiff, R., Bushell, R. & Watson, S. (Eds) 2012. *Heritage and Tourism: Place, Encounter, Engagement.* **London: Routledge.** 'Heritage' is explored in this book as a contested and subjective construct with diverse marketing and product promotion dimensions as well as visitor motivations and experiences.

Tisdell, C. & Wilson, C. (Eds) 2012. *Nature-based Tourism and Conservation: New Economic Insights and Case Studies.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar. Examples of nature-based tourism that contributes to the conservation of biodiversity in protected areas are highlighted in this collection of contributions from various countries.

case study

CONTEMPORARY TOURISM HERITAGE AS HERITAGE TOURISM: EVIDENCE FROM THE GOLD COAST AND LAS VEGAS

'Heritage' is traditionally seen as involving 'old' buildings and other historic sites which are interpreted by experts who provide visitors with a one-way educational experience. A 'heritage tourist', accordingly, was anyone visiting a designated heritage site, regardless of their motive. In recent years, this traditional approach has been challenged by a new perspective which regards heritage as subjective, negotiable and contestable. Visitors may have very different opinions as to what

constitutes 'heritage', and it is up to the interpreter to co-create 'storyscapes' that satisfy the diverse and complex motivations which visitors bring to heritage sites. The standard dry lecture of the past, therefore, is being replaced by audience-focused and emotion-filled storytelling (Chronis 2005).

As part of this new perspective, it is possible to go beyond centuries-old buildings and think about contemporary heritage, or 'heritage of the recent past' (Walton 2009). In the United States, for example, the first McDonald's restaurant, opened outside of Chicago in 1955, is now regarded as a very important heritage site. This concept of contemporary heritage is especially important for the many tourism cities (see chapter 4) that emerged in the pleasure periphery during the mid-twentieth century to meet the recreational demands of the post–World War II consumer society. Such places often lack the traditional historical sites that were emphasised in the past, but still contain sites and artefacts from the latter half of the twentieth century that reflect their development as major sites of tourism activity.

The Australian beach resort of the Gold Coast and the US gambling haven of Las Vegas are two prominent tourism cities where we might expect to find evidence of post-1945 or contemporary tourism heritage. Weaver (2011b) has identified four distinct types based on these two case studies, and also considered the extent to which this heritage has been commercialised as heritage tourism:

1 *In situ representations* consist of on-site plaques, statues or other objects that commemorate a tourism facility or phenomenon of recent historical importance. An example is a bronze relief in front of the Mirage Resort in Las Vegas depicting the entertainers Siegfried and Roy, who were legendary in the 1990s and early 2000s for their many thousands of performances with white tigers at that casino. Another example is the surf lifesaver statue that was erected at a prominent seaside location on the Gold Coast. The number of visitors who interact with such sites is unknown, but another type of *in situ* representation, the commemorative festival, clearly illustrates the importance of contemporary tourism heritage as a heritage tourism attraction. Cooly Rocks On (formerly Wintersun), an annual festival in the Gold Coast suburb of Coolangatta, celebrates the nostalgia of 1950s and 1960s tourism with period entertainment and cars. In 2012, it attracted more than 80 000 visitors and injected $18 million into the Gold Coast economy (Houghton 2012).

2 *Ex situ original artefacts* refer to the removal of artefacts from their original locations and their relocation in off-site (i.e. *ex situ*) museums. A former Las Vegas example was the Liberace Museum, which honoured the long-time iconic pianist Liberace. Because he was popular from the 1950s to the 1970s, attendance at the Museum declined from 250 000 a year to only 50 000 in the year prior to its closure in 2010. Younger visitors were not as aware of or as interested in this performer. The Bone Yard (a collection of old casino neon signs) and Mob Museum (commemorating the role of organised crime in the tourism industry) are two other recently opened Las Vegas examples. The Gold Coast does not have as many examples, but a facility called Surf World was opened in 2008 to honour Australia's surfing heritage.

FIGURE 5.6 The iconic Welcome to Las Vegas sign

3 *In situ* original nodes are buildings and other structures still in their original locations. They include the Kinkabool apartments in Surfers Paradise, which opened in 1959 as one of the Gold Coast's first high-rise tourist resorts. In recognition of its importance in reflecting the development of Australia's modern consumer society, it was declared a heritage site under the Queensland Heritage Register of 2009. No attempt has been made so far to develop the Kinkabool building as a tourist attraction. In contrast, the Las Vegas welcome sign, also erected in 1959, attracts more than 500 000 visitors a year (see figure 5.6).

4 *In situ* corridors and areas are relatively large areas where tourism has always been the dominant activity. There are no current examples on the Gold Coast, but Las Vegas is represented by Fremont Street, the original downtown 'glitter gulch' of casinos from the early 1900s, as well as the famous Strip, which was designated in 2000 as an All-American Road under the National Scenic Byway Program. It is estimated that 20 million or more people visit the Strip each year — many attracted by the atmosphere of the Strip itself rather than any of its individual casinos or shops.

The evidence from the Gold Coast and Las Vegas shows that each does have a rich contemporary tourism heritage. However, only some of this heritage has been exploited as heritage tourism, and neither city has an integrated strategy for developing it as such. Despite the challenge of getting developers and planners to recognise contemporary tourism as a legitimate form of heritage, there are good reasons to pursue this. First, many tourism cities are suffering from product 'maturity' and require new products and other rejuvenation (see chapter 10). Second, such attractions are part of the authentic culture of tourism cities, contributing to their unique sense of place. Third, as illustrated by the story of organised crime in Las Vegas, this heritage is interesting and entertaining. Fourth, huge tourist markets already exist in both cities, some of which could be diverted to such attractions. Finally, there are still many individuals resident in both cities who have personal experiences with this heritage and whose input would reduce the historical distortion that often occurs when attempting to interpret older historical sites. Efforts should be made, therefore, to integrate contemporary tourist heritage into the product of the world's many tourism cities.

QUESTIONS

1 Identify an example of contemporary tourism heritage. Prepare a 1000-word product development plan in which you argue for its development as heritage tourism, taking into account why and how you think it could be a commercially viable attraction. Take into account:

(a) why it is interesting to visitors

(b) what it would cost to develop

(c) which market segments it would attract

(d) what promotion and marketing would be used

(e) how it would fit into the overall tourism product and strategy of the destination.

2 It is argued that the land on which *in situ* original nodes sit is too valuable to preserve those nodes, and that these properties are therefore likely to be redeveloped. Accepting that this is likely, prepare a 1000-word report in which you consider how new technology could be used to maintain these nodes as 'virtual attractions' after they have been lost.

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6 Tourist markets

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. outline and summarise the pattern of the major tourist market trends since 1950

2. describe the process that culminates in a decision to visit a particular destination

3. explain the need for, and the evaluative criteria involved in, the practice of market segmentation

4. discuss the strengths and limitations of major segmentation criteria, including country of origin and family lifecycle

5. differentiate between allocentric, midcentric and psychocentric forms of psychographic segmentation

6. analyse the various dimensions of motivation as a form of psychographic segmentation

7. discuss the types and importance of travel-related behavioural segmentation.

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter considered the variety and characteristics of attractions within the tourism system and also examined other supply-side components of the tourism industry, including travel agencies, transportation, tour operators, merchandisers and the hospitality sector. Chapter 6 returns to the demand side of the tourism equation by refocusing on the tourist. The next section reviews the major market trends in the tourism sector since 1950, and this is followed by a discussion of the destination selection process. The final section considers the importance of tourist market segmentation and examines the geographical, sociodemographical, psychographical and behavioural criteria that are commonly used in segmentation exercises.

TOURIST MARKET TRENDS

The **tourist market** is the overall group of consumers that engages in tourism-related travel. Since 1950 there have been several major trends in the evolution of this market and these are discussed below. Essentially, the overall tendency has been towards a gradually more focused level of **market segmentation**, which can be defined as the division of the tourist market into distinctive **market segments** presumed to be relatively consistent in terms of their members' behaviour.

The democratisation of travel

The first trend was considered thoroughly in chapters 3 and 4 and can be described as the democratisation of travel. This emerged as increased discretionary time and income, among other factors, made domestic and then international travel accessible to the non-elite. Involvement in international travel grew rapidly in the Western world during the 1960s and 1970s, while a similar development occurred in certain Asian societies during the 1980s and 1990s. This was the classic era of global 'mass tourism', during which the tourism industry — like Thomas Cook 100 years earlier (see chapter 3) — perceived tourists as a more or less homogeneous market that demanded and consumed a very similar array of 'cookie-cutter' goods and services (see figure 6.1).

The emergence of simple market segmentation and multilevel segmentation

The second major trend emerged during the mid-1970s, as a large increase in oil prices made marketers and planners come to appreciate that a continuous growth scenario was not practical for every destination, and that some portions of the rapidly growing tourist market were more resistant to crisis conditions than others. This resulted in the practice of **simple market segmentation**, or the division of the tourist market into a minimal number of more or less homogenous subgroups based on certain common characteristics and/or behavioural patterns. Initially, marketers tried to isolate the smallest possible number of market segments in their desire to simplify marketing and product development efforts. Hence, broad market segments were treated as uniform entities (e.g. 'women' versus 'men', 'old' versus 'young', 'Americans' versus 'Europeans' and 'Asians').

By the 1980s the concept of market differentiation was refined through the practice of **multilevel segmentation**, which subdivided the basic market segments into more specific subgroups. For example, 'Americans' were divided into 'East Coast',

'West Coast', 'African–Americans' and other relevant categories that recognised the diverse characteristics and behaviour otherwise disguised by simple market segmentation. Generational segments, such as the Millennials and Baby Boomers (see chapter 3), illustrate the idea of multilevel segmentation.
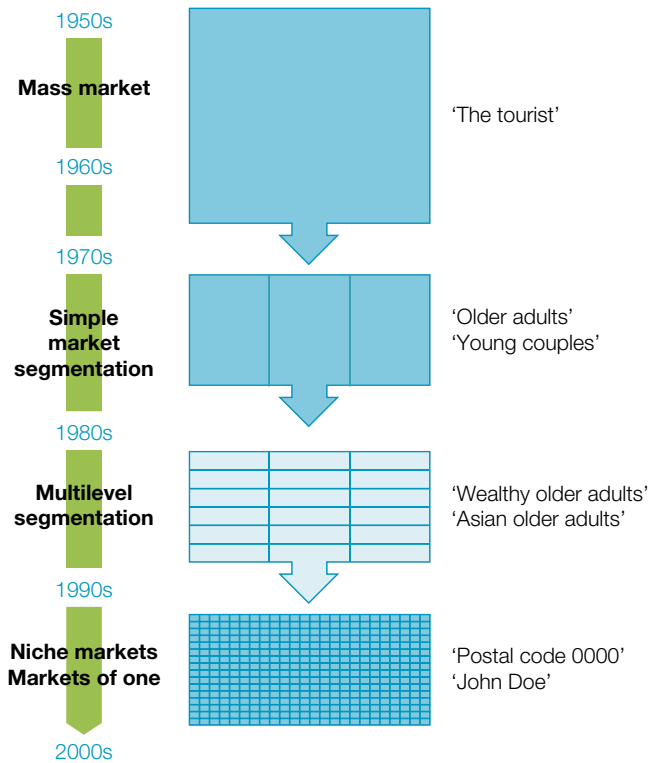
FIGURE 6.1 Tourist market trends since the 1950s

Niche markets and 'markets of one'

By the 1990s the tourist market in Phase Four societies was more sophisticated and knowledgeable, having had three decades of mass travel experience. Consumers were aware of what the tourism experience could and should be, and thus demanded higher quality and more specialised products that cater to individual needs and tastes. The tourism industry has been able to fulfil these demands because of the internet, flexible production techniques and other technological innovations that have made catering to specialised tastes more feasible.

At the same time, the continued expansion of the tourist market has meant that traditionally invisible market segments (e.g. older gay couples, railway enthusiasts, stargazing ecotourists) are now much larger and thus constitute potentially lucrative markets for the tourism industry in their own right. This has led to the identification of **niche markets** encompassing relatively small groups of consumers with specialised characteristics and tastes, and to the targeting of these tourists through an appropriately specialised array of products within the tourism industry (see chapter 5). Space tourists (see chapter 2) and medical tourists (see chapter 4) are good examples of emerging niche markets. Extreme segmentation, based on **markets of one**, or segments consisting of just one individual, has also become a normal part of product development

and marketing strategies in the early twenty-first century. This does not mean that mass marketing will disappear, especially given that attractions such as theme parks continue to emphasise their universal appeal, but simply that it will be technologically and financially feasible to tailor a product to just one consumer, in recognition of the fact that each individual, ultimately, is a unique market segment.

THE DESTINATION SELECTION PROCESS

Further insight is gained into the importance of market segments and the methods that can be used to target these segments for marketing and management purposes by understanding the process whereby tourists arrive at a decision to visit one or more destinations. Destination marketers need to identify and understand the elements of this process that they can influence to achieve their visitation goals. They may, for example, have considerable influence over pull factors such as the design and distribution of brochures and maps, but no influence over push factors (see chapter 3) that induce people to travel. This is especially relevant to travel that is undertaken for leisure/recreation purposes, since the destination is usually predetermined in business and VFR tourism (see chapter 2). There are many destination selection models in the tourism literature (Um & Crompton 1990 is a classic), and figure 6.2 represents just one simplified way in which this process can be depicted. A logical place to begin is the decision to travel (1), which is driven by a combination of the 'push' factors discussed in chapter 3 and the potential tourist's personality, motivations, culture, prior life experience (including previous travel), gender, health and education (box A in figure 6.2).
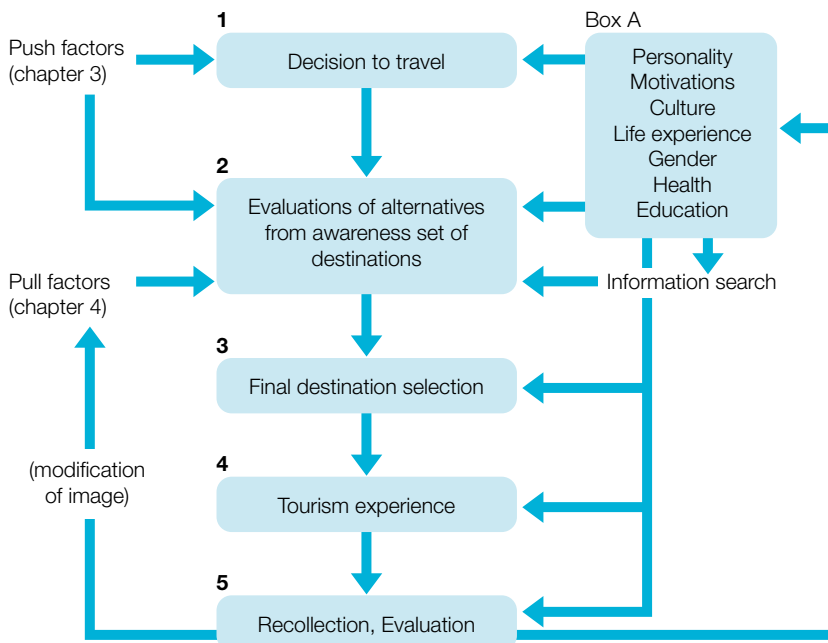
FIGURE 6.2 The destination selection process

The next stage (2) involves the evaluation of potential destinations from an 'awareness set' of all places known to the decision maker. This awareness set includes places that are known from prior direct or indirect experiences (that is, places known

through past visits or through reading, media or word-of-mouth exchanges), as well as new places that emerge from subsequent information search. The latter search, as with the broader process of destination evaluation, is filtered by the personal characteristics listed in box A as well as push factors such as income, available time and family size. An open-minded, wealthy and well-educated person with no children, for example, is likely to undertake a very different information search and evaluation process than an inhibited person from an insular and proscriptive culture who also has a large family. The latter individual is likely to begin with a small awareness set and to rule out many destinations immediately because of the limitations just described (i.e. destinations that are too expensive, risky or child-intolerant). This requires assessment of the pull factors described in chapter 4, so that the final selection (3) will likely focus on an affordable, politically stable and accessible destination with many interesting attractions and a culture similar to that of the decision maker. The actual complexity of the evaluation process is evident in the fact that this often involves 'final' decisions that are subsequently revoked or altered by changing push and pull factors — such as being denied an expected pay increase, or news of a coup d'état in the destination to be visited. Similarly, a decision could be made as to which specific country to visit (e.g. New Zealand), but uncertainty may continue as to which destinations to visit within that country (e.g. Rotorua or Queenstown).

Feedback loops, such as occur when a tentative destination decision is rejected and the evaluation process is revisited, are found elsewhere in the model. This commonly occurs through the refinement of the destination image 'pull' factor as a result of direct experience (4) (e.g. the traveller had a wonderful vacation and thus carries a strongly positive destination image into the next evaluation process). The influence can also be indirect, as when the travel experience leads to transformations in the individual's personality or attitudes (e.g. the traveller becomes more open to further travel to exotic destinations). Post-trip recollection and evaluation (5) also usually influence subsequent travel decisions.

Multiple decision makers

The destination selection process is further complicated by the fact that more than one person is often involved in the decision-making process. In such cases, purchase decisions both before and during the trip tend to require more time, as they often represent a compromise among group members. One study of Danish holiday decision-making identified 'tweens' (children aged 8 to 12) as extremely proactive and skilful negotiators who substantially influence decisions made during family vacations. They were found to take into account their own wishes but also those of other family members, engaging in successive rounds of compromise. The researchers, however, caution that the results may not be applicable to American tweens who they regard as more 'parent-phobic', self-confident and pestering (Blichfeldt et al. 2011).

■ TOURIST MARKET SEGMENTATION

There are at least eight factors that should be considered concurrently when evaluating the utility of market segmentation in any given situation, including:
- *Measurability.* Can the target characteristics be measured in a meaningful and convenient way? Psychological criteria or high levels of 'stress', for example, are more difficult to quantify than age or education level.
- *Size.* Is the market segment large enough to warrant attention? Very small groups, such as female war veterans over 85 years of age, may be insufficiently large to

warrant attention by smaller companies or destinations that lack the capacity to engage in sophisticated niche marketing.

- *Homogeneity.* Is the segmented group sufficiently distinct from other market segments? It may be, for example, that the 45–49 age group of adult males is not significantly different from the 50–54 age group, thereby eliminating any rationale for designating them as separate segments. A related consideration is whether the segmented group is internally homogeneous; if not, then like Generation Y (see chapter 3), it may need to be divided into separate segments.
- *Compatibility.* Are the values, needs and wants of the segment compatible with the destination or company's own values and planning strategies? There are instances in the Caribbean of specialised gay and lesbian cruise groups being confronted and threatened by conservative protesters who object to their presence.
- *Accessibility.* How difficult is it to reach the target market? Sex tourists are relatively inaccessible because they are less likely to admit participation in socially unsanctioned activities. A more frequently encountered illustration is a small business in an English-speaking country that lacks the capacity to market its products overseas in languages other than English, and cannot communicate sufficiently with non–English-speaking tourists when they visit.
- *Actionability.* Is the company or destination able to serve the needs of the market segment? For example, a wilderness lodge is usually not an appropriate venue for catering to gamblers or those with severe physical disabilities.
- *Durability*. Will the segment exist for a long enough period of time to justify the pursuit of specialised marketing or management strategies? For example, the population of World War II veterans is now experiencing a high rate of attrition, and will be negligible in size by 2020. In contrast, baby boomers will constitute a lucrative market probably until the 2040s.
- *Relevance*. Is there some underlying logic for targeting a particular segment? Segmentation on the basis of eye colour meets all the previous criteria, but there is no rational basis for thinking that eye colour influences consumer behaviour in any significant way.

The following sections discuss the major market segmentation criteria that are commonly used in the contemporary tourism sector, as well as those that are not widely employed but could be of potential value to tourism destinations and the tourism industry. These criteria include the box A characteristics in figure 6.2, which also influence the behaviour of individuals during and after the actual tourism experience. Ultimately, the appropriateness of particular segmentation criteria to a destination or business will depend on the conclusions reached in the evaluation of the eight factors outlined earlier.

Geographic segmentation

Geographic segmentation, the oldest and still the most popular basis for segmentation, takes into account spatial criteria such as country of birth, nationality or current residence of the consumer. Geographic segmentation declined during the 1980s as other segmentation criteria emerged, but it is now reasserting its former dominance through cost-effective **GIS (geographic information systems)** that facilitate the spatial analysis of tourism-related phenomena. GIS encompasses a variety of sophisticated computer software programs that assemble, store, manipulate, analyse and display spatially referenced information (Miller 2008). In a GIS package, the exact location of a person's residence can be specified and related to other criteria relevant to that same

location (e.g. income level, age structure, education levels, rainfall, road network). It is therefore possible to compile detailed combinations of market characteristics at a very high level of geographic resolution (e.g. individual households), making feasible the identification of the 'markets of one'. Before GIS, the best level of resolution that could be hoped for was the equivalent of the postal code or census subdistrict.

Region and country of residence

The least sophisticated type of geographical analysis, but the simplest to compile, is regional residence, which has often been used as a surrogate for culture. Tradition-ally, tourism managers were content to differentiate their markets as 'Asian', 'North American' or 'European', because of low numbers and on the assumption that these regional markets exhibited relatively uniform patterns of behaviour. Most destinations and businesses now realise that such generalisations are simplistic and misleading, and prefer to differentiate at least by country of origin. In the case of Australia, for example, useful distinctions can be made between the mature Japanese and emerging Chinese inbound tourist markets on a range of tourism variables (see table 6.1 and the case study at the end of this chapter).

TABLE 6.1 Characteristics of Japanese and Chinese tourists visiting Australia, 2011		
Criterion	Japanese inbound	Chinese inbound
Repeat visitors (%)	45	50
Package tour visitors (%)	43	40
Backpackers (%)	8	2
Visiting New South Wales (%)	46	61
Visiting Queensland (%)	54	43
Visitor-nights in homes of family or friends (%)	10	22
Average length of stay (nights)	29	48
Average total trip expenditure ($)	4681	7097
Average expenditure per day ($)	161	148
Expenditure on shopping for souvenirs and gifts (%)	6	10
Expenditure on food/drink/accommodation (%)	22	25

Source: Data derived from TRA (2012a)

Subnational segmentation

It is appropriate to pursue geographical segmentation at a subnational level under two circumstances. First, larger countries tend to display important differences in behav-iour from one internal region to another. Reduced cost and travel time, for example, position the California market as a stronger per capita source of tourists for Australia than New York or Florida.

The second factor is the number of people that travel to a destination from a particular country. A large number justifies the further division of that market into geographical subcomponents. For example, when the number of Chinese inbound tourists to Australia involved only a few thousand visitors, there was no compel-ling reason to make any further distinction by province of origin. However, as this number approaches 600 000 per year, it makes more sense to consider subnational criteria as a basis for market segmentation. Australian tourism authorities in the early 2000s focused their promotional efforts on the three large coastal 'gateway' markets

of Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong Province, but have more recently expanded their attention to the 'secondary' cities of Chongqing, Chengdu, Hangzhou, Nanjing, Shenyang, Shenzhen, Tianjin, Wuhan and Xiamen — all of which now display levels of affluence and sophistication similar to the original gateway markets (TRA 2012b).

Urban and rural origins

Useful insights may be gained by subdividing the tourist market on the basis of community size. Residents of large metropolitan areas have better access to media and the internet than other citizens, and more options to choose from at all stages of the destination buying process. Yet, within those same communities, the residents of gentrified inner-city neighbourhoods (e.g. North Sydney) are quite distinct from the residents of working-class outer suburbs (e.g. Parramatta) or the exurbs. Rural residents also have distinctive socioeconomic characteristics and behaviour. The urban–rural dichotomy is particularly important in less developed countries, where large metropolitan areas are likely to accommodate Phase Three or Four societies, while the countryside may reflect Phase Two characteristics (see chapter 3).

Sociodemographic segmentation

Sociodemographic segmentation variables include gender, age, family lifecycle, household education, occupation and income. Such variables are popular as segmentation criteria because they are easily collected (though respondents often withhold or misrepresent their income) and often associated with distinct types of behaviour.

Gender and gender orientation

Gender segmentation can be biological or sociocultural. If construed in strictly biological terms, gender is a readily observable and measurable criterion in most instances. Some activities (notably hunting) are an almost exclusively male domain (Lovelock 2008), while it is commonly alleged that ecotourists are disproportionately female (Weaver 2012). Females are also overrepresented as patrons of cultural events within Australia. During 2009–10, 19 per cent of Australian females 15 or older attended at least one theatre performance, compared with 13 per cent of males. Similar discrepancies were found in dance performances (13 and 7 per cent respectively) and musicals and operas (21 and 12 per cent) (ABS 2010). More subtly, female shoppers among Chinese visitors to the United States were found to place a higher value than males on communication with sales assistants to learn about products, and were more likely to express dissatisfaction with employees who did not engage with them accordingly (Xu & McGehee 2012). A survey of young and single Norwegian tourists revealed that females placed a much higher value on having a travel companion with whom to bond with, share experiences, and feel safe by night as well as day. Companionship among males, in contrast, was more superficial and transient (Heimtun & Abelsen 2012).

Gender can also be construed in terms of sexual orientation, and in this sense three stages and modes of development can be identified:

1 For many years, gay and lesbian tourism was either ignored by the tourism industry, or existed only as an informal fringe element. A 'don't ask, don't tell' attitude often prevailed, and gay expression was largely an 'underground' phenomenon.

2 With the liberalisation of sexual attitudes in the late twentieth century, this component of tourism became more visible through the emergence of specialised formal businesses and activities, particularly in the areas of accommodation (e.g. Turtle Cove Resort north of Cairns), tour operators, special events (e.g. the Gay Games) and the cruise ship sector.

3 Since the late 1990s, the mainstream tourism industry has recognised the formidable purchasing power of gays and lesbians and has actively and openly pursued these markets. Some estimates suggest that the **pink dollar** accounts for 10–15 per cent of all consumer purchasing power. Destinations that are regarded as gay and lesbian 'friendly' include Sydney, San Francisco, London, Cape Town and Amsterdam. Sydney in particular is making a concerted bid to be recognised as a major gay and lesbian tourism destination, with its highly successful annual Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras, and its hosting of the Gay Games in 2002. The 2006 Mardi Gras attracted an estimated 450 000 participants, the majority of them heterosexual (Markwell & Tomsen 2010).

4 Gay and lesbian activists who resent the 'invasion' of gay environments by 'mainstream' tourists and businesses create their own 'queer' spaces where they can feel more empowered and less like performers at a show. This also reflects the high proportion of gay and lesbian people who do not feel safe travelling home from events such as the Mardi Gras due to the risk of attack from homophobic individuals (Markwell & Tomsen 2010).

Age and family lifecycle

Age and lifecycle considerations are popular criteria used in sociodemographic segmentation, since these can also have a significant bearing on consumer behaviour. Specific consideration is given in the following subsections to older adults, young adults and the traditional family lifecycle.

Older adults

Along with the emergence and growing acceptance of the gay and lesbian community, the rapid ageing of population is one of the dominant trends in contemporary Phase Four societies (see chapter 3). In the year 2010 the first baby boomers turned 65, and this has accelerated interest in the 'older adult' market segment. Traditionally, the 65+ market was assumed to require special services and facilities due to deteriorating physical condition. Their travel patterns, moreover, were believed to be influenced by the dual impact of reduced discretionary income and increased discretionary time caused by retirement. Finally, older adults were commonly perceived to constitute a single uniform market.

All these assumptions, however, are simplistic. In postindustrial Phase Four societies the 65-year age threshold is no longer a strict indicator of a person's retirement status. Many companies facilitate early retirement options, while there is a concurrent trend to remove artificial age-of-retirement ceilings established during the industrial era. As for income, the current cohort of retirees is likely to be better off financially than their predecessors. In the early 2000s, the average Australian aged 55 to 64 had a net worth of $671 000 (Snoke, Kendig & O'Laughlin 2011). The assumption of physical deterioration is also false, as the 65-year-old of 2014 is in much better physical condition than their counterpart of 1950. A 65-year old male and female resident of New South Wales in 2009 could expect to live respectively to the ages of 83.7 and 86.8 (ABS 2011) (see figure 6.3). Finally, the assumption of market uniformity is also untenable, as demonstrated by cluster analysis of Australian

FIGURE 6.3 Older adults can be healthy and active tourists.

older adults that differentiates between such substantial sub-segments as 'enthusiastic connectors' (about 20 per cent), 'discovery and self-enhancers' (26 per cent), 'nostalgic travellers' (29 per cent) and 'reluctant travellers' (25 per cent) (Cleaver Sellick 2004).

Young adults

In contrast to the 65+ cohort, Millennials and other young adults are often associated with higher levels of high-risk behaviour. This is especially evident in ritual events such as the 'spring break' phenomenon in the United States (Litvin 2009) and Australia's 'Schoolies Week' (the celebration of a student's completion of high school), which destination managers on the Gold Coast have attempted to convert into an orderly festival. Involving up to 30 000 young visitors, Schoolies Week is regarded with ambivalence by local residents (Weaver and Lawton 2013). There is parallel evidence, however, that young adults are also very interested in activities such as volunteer tourism that focus on self-improvement and the wellbeing of destination communities.

Family lifecycle

The **family lifecycle (FLC)** consists of a series of stages through which the majority of people in a Phase Four society are likely to pass during the time from young adulthood to death (see figure 6.4). The FLC stages are associated with particular age brackets, although there are many exceptions to this. All stages are also related to probable significant changes in family status, such as marriage, the raising of children, and the death of a partner. Retirement (i.e. change in work status) is also identified as an important stage transition.

NON-TRADITIONAL FAMILY GROUPS	⟷	TRADITIONAL FAMILY LIFECYCLE
Single parents		Young singles
Permanent singles		Young couples (no children)
Full nest (fur babies)		Full nest I (pre-school children)
Child-free couples		Full nest II (school-age children)
Blended families		Full nest III (older children)
Permanent full nest		Empty nest I (still working, no children)
Gay or lesbian couples		Empty nest II (retired)
Multigenerational families		Solitary survivor (retired)
Autumn–spring remarrieds		

FIGURE 6.4 Impact of non-conforming elements on the traditional family lifecycle

The importance of family lifecycle as a segmentation criterion is demonstrated by patterns of resort patronage in the United States identified by Choi, Lehto and Brey (2011). They found that couples with young children displayed the lowest levels of product loyalty, as expressed in modest emotional attachment, service satisfaction, employee regard, and perceived value for money. It is therefore more difficult to cultivate repeat visit intentions in this segment. Another finding was that young couples with no children do not rate employee regard as important but would prefer to develop personal rapport and friendships with staff. Resort employees therefore need to be trained to display different types of behaviour in the presence of different lifecycle segments. Finally, the non-traditional segment of single parents distinguished itself (unexpectedly) as the highest spending and least likely to give value for money as a reason for being loyal to the resort.

One major drawback of the traditional FLC is the increasing number of non-conforming people. Exceptions include permanently childless (or 'childfree') couples or those who have children relatively late in life, divorced people, family groupings that combine individuals from both marital partners (blended families), single parents, long-term gay and lesbian couples, multigenerational families, 'permanent singles', families where the children never leave the nest, older solitary survivors who marry and start new families with younger people ('remarrieds') and those whose spouses die at an early age. In essence, the conventional FLC reflects the traditional nuclear family of the 1950s and 1960s rather than the present era of familial diversity. In addition, even if individuals do conform to the FLC, this is not necessarily reflected in the composition of travel groups. People in relationships may decide to travel by themselves, or with a group of friends, while married couples may be accompanied by one or more parents, nephews or other married couples. Older children (e.g. 16-year-olds) often decline to accompany their younger siblings on annual family holidays. Another confounding factor is pet ownership and the increasing tendency of individuals in all stages of the FLC to regard their animals as family members (sometimes described as 'companion animals' or 'fur babies') and desirable travel companions who significantly influence and constrain their travel-related decisions (see Contemporary issue: Travelling with my best friend).

contemporary issue

TRAVELLING WITH MY BEST FRIEND

In developed countries such as the United Kingdom, United States and Taiwan, almost one-half of families own pets, but it is still unclear how pet ownership influences the travel behaviour of these

families. This is important not only because of the magnitude of ownership, but also because owners often have deep attachments to their pets, often regard them as family members, and derive many psychological and other benefits from their company (Zilcha-Mano, Mikulincer & Shaver 2012). A recent study in Taiwan focused on 216 dog-owning domestic excursionists participating in various leisure activities (Hung, Chen & Peng 2012). The researchers found that owners who were strongly attached to their pets were highly motivated to include them in their travel plans. However, they faced *structural constraints* such as added financial and time costs, uncertainty about how their dog could participate in the activity, and the need to care for their animal.

Interpersonal constraints included discomfort from the fact that other participants may not like dogs, the dog's potential unfriendliness towards other people, and situations where they are the only one with a dog. Finally, *specific constraints* (i.e. specific to that particular dog) included limited self-control, unsuitability for the target activity, and a tendency to tire easily or to prefer the home environment. Thus, to participate in a mutually satisfying way with their dogs, owners recognised the need to obtain reliable and thorough information about the accommodation of pets, and to adjust their interpersonal relations so that they have more contact with pet-friendly co-participants, businesses and friends. They also appreciated the need to manage their time better to allow sufficient time to arrange an enjoyable experience for both themselves and their pets. Businesses such as 'pet-friendly' hotels that can provide these needs are likely to thrive as companion animals become an increasingly central part of the postmodern family unit.

Education, occupation and income

Education, occupation and income are often interrelated in terms of travel behaviour, since education generally influences occupation, which in turn influences income level. University education, for example, often leads to higher-paying professional employment. Income and education are often accessed indirectly by targeting neighbourhoods that display consistent characteristics with regard to these criteria. Not surprisingly, high levels of income and education, as well as professional occupations, are associated with increased tourism activity and in particular with a higher incidence of long-haul travel. One important implication is that high-income earners are usually less concerned with financial considerations when assessing destination options, and less likely to alter their travel plans in the event of an economic recession. Destinations and products that cater to high-income earners are therefore themselves less susceptible to recession-induced slumps in visitation. Distinctive forms of educational segmentation include international students, schoolies and participants in school excursions.

Race, ethnicity and religion

There is a general reluctance to ascribe distinctive character and behavioural traits on the basis of race, ethnicity or religion, and none of these are, therefore, commonly used for generic segmentation purposes. However, these are commonly used as segmentation criteria for specialised attractions that cater to particular racial, ethnic or religious groups. Examples include the marketing of heritage slavery sites in western Africa to African-Americans, and religious pilgrimages and festivals to applicable religious groups. In the case of Australia and New Zealand, it is likely that Indigenous Australian and Maori people constitute a growing portion of their respective domestic and outbound tourism sectors, yet research on 'Aboriginal tourism' and 'Maori tourism' are almost exclusively focused on the product side. We know almost nothing about the 'Indigenous Australian tourist' or 'Maori tourist' as distinct market segments. Moreover, as Australia and New Zealand move from a mainly Anglo-European to a multicultural society, these three criteria are likely to become more important to domestic tourism managers and marketers. For example, almost 529 000 and 476 000 Australians respectively indicated their affiliation with Buddhism and Islam in the 2011 census, but little is known about their behaviour as distinctive single or multiple market segments (ABS 2012).

Physical and mental condition

Persons with disabilities are often neglected or overlooked as a significant tourist segment, even though it is apparent that the number of such individuals is immense and

their desire to travel as high as the general population's (Yau, McKercher & Packer 2004; Stumbo & Pegg 2005). According to Australian Bureau of Statistics criteria, 18.5 per cent of the Australian population (or over 4 million people) were considered to have a disability in 2009 (ABS 2009). Four factors that indicate the need for tourism managers to pay greater attention to this segment are the:

- increasing number of conditions that constitute an officially recognised 'disability'
- ageing of Phase Four populations (given that older adults still have a higher incidence of disabilities; for example disability levels increase to 40 per cent among Australians aged 65 to 69, and 88 per cent among those 90 or older (ABS 2009))
- availability of technology to expedite travel by persons with disabilities
- increasing recognition of the basic human rights, including the right to travel, of such persons.

Nevertheless, it is apparent that many tourism-related products and services still do not adequately address the needs of persons with disabilities (see Managing tourism: Catering to people with disabilities). Similar problems pertain to people who are overweight or obese (see Breakthrough tourism: Obesity as a tourism issue).

managing tourism

CATERING TO PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Tourism can improve the quality of life for people with disabilities, and they comprise a potentially lucrative market for tourism businesses. Australia, however, has been slow to recognise and exploit this opportunity, despite the passing of the *Disability Discrimination Act 1992*. To better understand industry attitudes, Patterson, Darcy and Mönninghoff (2012) conducted semi-structured interviews with 32 Queensland-based operators listed as providing specialised products and services for people with disabilities. Over one-half of these operators stated that this segment accounted for less than 1 per cent of their business, and none gave a figure above 5 per cent. While operators of large hotels claimed compliance with regulations, only 1 per cent of their rooms on average were accessible and these were not often actually occupied by people with disabilities. Their existence, however, was necessary to successfully bid for any kind of conference or convention business, and they appealed to some older customers without disabilities. The need to comply with legal requirements was by far the main reason given by the operators for offering accessible facilities, although a significant minority did recognise the opportunity to increase their customer base and to benefit from good publicity. Only a few felt a moral obligation or sense of personal satisfaction in providing such facilities, and this was especially evident among smaller tour operators offering Great Barrier Reef experiences. None of the respondents offered any specialised staff training, which was related to the overall sentiment that people with disabilities represented only a very small portion of their customer base. Additional investments, accordingly, were regarded as prohibitively expensive and also impractical, given structural and design constraints in each operator's current built environment. The researchers recommended that operators focus on providing renovations that cater to people with disabilities as well as others through, for example, larger bathrooms and wider doors.
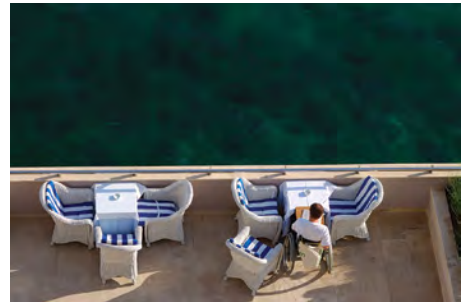
breakthrough tourism

OBESITY AS A TOURISM ISSUE

A growing proportion of the population in both the advanced and emerging economies is overweight or obese, and this poses a challenge to a tourism sector that celebrates and flaunts slenderness in its promotional material and in the design of its facilities. The issue is most salient in the airline industry, where seating has become a new contested space. Small and Harris (2012) found that obese passengers experience discomfort, embarrassment, annoyance, fear and frustration with the 'one-size-fits-all' seating practices followed by most airlines. Non-obese passengers, in contrast, express concerns over violation of rights (i.e. by the incursion of the obese passenger's body into their seating space), anger, resentment, fear of injury and displeasure at contact with or proximity to obese persons. A few airlines require obese people to purchase two seats while a few others will allocate two seats for the price of one. Other suggested solutions have included 'excess weight taxes' and 'pay by the pound' policies. In 2013, the latter option was introduced by Samoa Air, a carrier based in American Samoa, a US territory that has one of the world's highest rates of obesity (Sagapolutele & Perry 2013). Samoa Air has also created an 'XL' seating category for those passengers who weigh over 130 kilograms (Pearlman 2013). There are several cases where damages have been paid to people injured from being constricted next to obese passengers, but in general the industry has remained 'innocent and silent' on the issue, according to Small and Harris (2012). With 72 per cent of Australians expected to be overweight or obese by 2025, this is an evasion that airlines will not be able to afford much longer (Small & Harris 2012). Beyond the commercial implications of alienating various passenger segments, there is also the ongoing effort to recognise tourism — and associated transit experiences — as a basic human right. In such cases, whose rights should prevail — obese passengers or their non-obese fellow passengers?

Psychographic segmentation

The differentiation of the tourist market on the basis of psychological characteristics is referred to as **psychographic segmentation**. This can include a complex and diverse combination of factors, such as motivation, personality type, attitudes and perceptions, and needs. Psychographic profiles are often difficult to compile due to problems in identifying and measuring such characteristics. Individuals themselves are usually not aware of where they would fit within such a structure. Whereas most people can readily provide their income, age, or country of residence for a questionnaire, psychological profiles often have to be inferred through their responses to complex surveys, and then interpreted by the researcher. Whether they can then be placed into neat or stable categories, as with place of residence, is also highly questionable, as is the degree to which resulting profiles predict actual purchasing behaviour.

Also problematic is how much psychological characteristics can change, depending on circumstances. Personality type can change as a result of a person's experiences, but this often occurs imperceptibly and in a way that is difficult to quantify, unlike changes of address or income level. Identification of a person's 'usual' personality can

also be misleading to the extent that an 'alternate' personality may emerge during a tourism experience, since this constitutes a change of routine for the traveller — that is, today's partying schoolie can be tomorrow's volunteer tourist. Because of such complexities, psychographic research usually requires more time and money than other types of segmentation, and often yields conflicting and uncertain results.

Psychographic typology

The idea of segmenting the tourist market according to levels of individual risk tolerance is largely associated with Plog (2005). His resilient **allocentrics** are intellectually curious travellers who enjoy immersing themselves in other cultures and willingly accept a high level of risk. They tend to make their own travel arrangements, travel by themselves or in pairs and are open to spontaneous changes in itinerary. They tend to avoid places that are heavily developed as tourist destinations, seeking out locales in which tourism is non-existent or incipient. Figure 6.5 provides a more detailed list of characteristics and tourism behaviour attributed to allocentrics.

In contrast, **psychocentrics** are self-absorbed individuals who seek to minimise risk by visiting familiar and extensively developed destinations where a full array of familiar goods and services are available. According to Plog, those leaning toward the allocentric and psychocentric poles of the psychographic spectrum each account for about one-fifth of the US population. The remaining 60 per cent of the population, as depicted in figure 6.6, are **midcentrics** whose personalities combine elements of the allocentric and psychocentric dimensions. Typical midcentric behaviour, indicating a personal strategy of 'mediated risk', is an eagerness to attend a local cultural performance and sample the local cuisine, but parallel eagerness to have access to comfortable accommodation, hygienically prepared meals and a clean bathroom.

ALLOCENTRIC   **PSYCHOCENTRIC**

Personality

Curious risk-taker
Active and assertive
Spontaneous
Adventurous

Cautious risk-avoider
Passive and non-demanding
Structured
Non-adventurous

Remote and exotic places
New and unusual experiences
Travels as much as possible
Avoids tourists
Seeks out the 'backstage'

Accessible and popular places
Familiar experiences
Travels only occasionally
Seeks out other tourists
Stays in the 'frontstage'

Travel preferences

FIGURE 6.5 Allocentric and psychocentric ideal types

Source: Plog 1991, 2004, 2005

The typology has important implications for the evolution and management of tourism systems. Psychocentrics, for example, tend to visit well-established destinations dominated by large corporations and well-articulated tourism distribution systems, while allocentrics display an opposite tendency. A psychocentric would prefer to eat at McDonald's, stay overnight at the Sheraton and visit a theme park, all mediated by a package tour, while an allocentric would eat at a local market stall, stay overnight in a small guesthouse situated away from the tourist district and explore the local rainforest.

Midcentrics

Near–allocentrics

Near–psychocentrics

Allocentrics

Psychocentrics
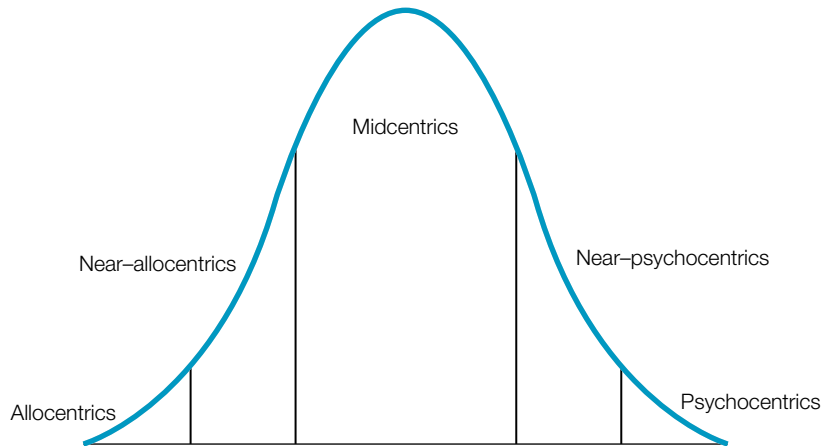
FIGURE 6.6 Psychographic typology

Source: Adapted from Plog (1991, 2004, 2005)

The conceptual simplicity of the psychographic spectrum makes it very popular in tourism research. Recent applications include Weaver (2012), who found that visitors to a relatively isolated private protected area in South Carolina, United States, were mostly allocentrics. Critical from a management perspective is that these visitors — who are disproportionately older and female — were more likely to indicate loyalty to that protected area and a willingness to engage in activities to help its ecology. In another study, allocentrics and psychocentrics were both well represented among a sample of international and domestic guests at Malaysian homestay facilities, but the allocentrics were more likely to evaluate the experience as extraordinary and highly satisfying, and accordingly were more likely to want similar experiences in the future (Jamal, Othman & Muhammad 2011). These researchers therefore recommended that homestay managers target market their facilities to allocentric consumers.

Segmentation applications of the psychographic typology need to consider its shortcomings, which include the lack of a single reliable scale that would facilitate comparison across a variety of case studies. As stated earlier, the degree to which a person's psychographic profile is fixed or can change with life experience is also unclear — does travel to an 'allocentric' destination make psychocentric people more open, or do they simply withdraw even further into their shell? Revealed mismatches between psychographic types and destinations (e.g. psychocentrics staying at Malaysian homestays) are common, and may indicate the influence of intervening

factors such as financial necessity, time limitations, or preferences of other family members (Litvin 2006).

Motivation

Travel **motivation** is different from travel purpose (see chapter 2) in that it indicates the intrinsic reasons the individual is embarking on a particular trip. Thus, a person might be travelling for VFR purposes, but the underlying motivation is to resolve a dispute with a parent, or to renew a relationship with a former partner. A stated pleasure or leisure purpose often disguises a deeper need to escape routine. In all these cases, the apparent motivation may itself have some even more fundamental psychological basis, such as the need for emotional satisfaction or spiritual fulfillment. Motivation is implicit in the psychographic spectrum, in that allocentrics are more driven by curiosity than psychocentrics, who in turn are more likely to be motivated by hedonism. Top motivations for older residents of Changsha, China (55 or older) who define as 'frequent' travellers (at least two leisure tourism trips per year) are depicted in table 6.2.

TABLE 6.2 Reasons for taking a holiday, frequently travelling Changsha residents (55+), 2011			
Reason	**Mean[1]**	**Reason**	**Mean[1]**
Seek intellectual enrichment	4.44	Have new things to tell friends	3.99
Visit historical sites	4.40	Reduce loneliness	3.96
Enjoy life	4.36	Experience new things	3.94
Visit new places	4.30	Visit old friends	3.87
Seek spiritual enrichment	4.29	Meet people and socialise	3.78
Rest and relax	4.26	Spend time with immediate family	3.73
Engage in physical exercise	4.13	Attend festivals/special events	3.04
Escape the daily routine	3.99	Be with the opposite sex	2.73

1 Based on a 5-point scale where 1 = not at all important and 5 = very important

Source: Chen & Gassner (2012)

There are numerous theories and classification schemes associated with motivation. One of the best known is Maslow's hierarchy of human needs (in Hsu & Huang 2008), which ranges from basic physiological needs (e.g. food, sleep, sex) to the needs for safety and security, love, esteem, self-actualisation, knowledge and understanding, and finally, aesthetics (see figure 6.7). A complex experience such as participation in volunteer tourism demonstrates how these needs can all factor into a single tourism experience. The volunteer tourist might be motivated by the need to achieve something important and to grow personally as a result. Being a member of a volunteer team fulfils a need to belong, while an experience is selected that is safe and provides for basic physiological needs.
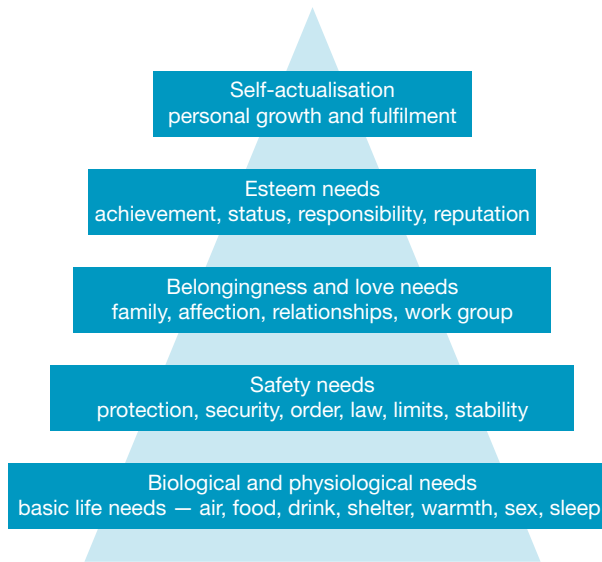
FIGURE 6.7 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs

Behavioural segmentation

The identification of distinct tourist markets on the basis of activities and other actions undertaken especially during the tourism experience is an exercise in **behavioural segmentation**. In a sense, it employs the *outcomes* of prior destination or product buying decisions as a basis for market segmentation, and therefore omits the non-travelling component of the population (unless non-travel behaviour is itself included as a 'travel' category). Basic behavioural criteria include:

• travel occasion
• destination coverage (including length of stay)
• activity
• repeat patronage and loyalty.

Travel occasion

Travel occasion is closely related to purpose. Occasion-based segmentation differentiates consumers according to the specific occasion that prompts them to visit a particular tourism product. Birthdays, anniversaries, funerals and other rites of passage are examples of individually-focused travel occasions, while Schoolies Week and sporting spectacles are mass participation variants. An intermediate example is the family reunion, which is becoming increasingly popular as a way of maintaining direct contact with extended families widely separated by geographical and generational drift. It has been estimated that 72 million Americans travel each year to participate in family reunions, and many destinations and businesses are providing specialised facilities and services to serve their needs (Kluin & Lehto 2012).

Destination coverage

Destination coverage can be expressed by length of stay, and also by the number of destinations (as opposed to stopovers and other transit experiences) that are visited during a particular trip. Visitors to Australia, for example, can be segmented by how

much their visits are focused on a single state (as in the case of Japanese package tours to Queensland) or a multistate itinerary (as in the case of backpackers from Europe). Both single-destination and multi-destination trips usually display a great deal of variety with respect to destination coverage, as described by Lew and McKercher (2006) (see figure 6.8). Numerous implications follow from these variants, including the extent to which tourists are concentrated or dispersed within a destination, the length of time (and thus amount of money) spent in different parts of the country, the configuration of transit regions, and the types of services that are accessed during the tourism experience. Multi-destination itineraries continue to grow in popularity as countries and regions pursue mutually beneficial bilateral and multilateral destination marketing and development initiatives. An excellent Asia–Pacific example is the emergence of a formal Mekong Tourism brand that encourages cross-border travel within the participating countries of Cambodia, China (Guangxi and Yunnan Provinces only), Laos, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam (Semone & Kozak 2012).

Point-to-point patterns

Single point-to-point

Repetitive point-to-point

Touring point-to-point

Circular patterns

Circular loop   Stem and petal

Complex patterns

Random exploratory   Radiating hub

◇ = Accommodation
○ = Attraction site or stop

FIGURE 6.8 Examples of destination coverage

Source: Lew and McKercher (2006)

Activity

Variables that can be segmented under the generic category of 'activity' include accommodation type, mode of transportation, total and per-day expenditure, attractions visited and types of tourist activities undertaken. An emerging topic of importance is the degree to which tourists behave in an environmentally and socially responsible manner during their travel (see chapter 11). Tourist activities, in particular, are extremely diverse. Relevant market segments in Australia include ecotourists, theme park visitors, honeymooners, beach bathers, bush walkers, visitors to Aboriginal sites and performances, backpackers (see Technology and tourism: Introducing the flashpacker), heritage tourists, festival attendees and wine tourists. Whether these activities are of primary or secondary importance to the relevant segment is also a critical factor.

A relevant issue is whether tourists are mainly interested in specific activities, and therefore choose their destination accordingly, or whether they are primarily interested in a particular destination, within which available activities are then pursued. The second scenario is less common than the first. This mainly involves tourists who are constrained by financial or time limitations to travel within their own state or country or, more rarely, who are motivated by patriotic considerations or a compelling desire to visit a particular destination that they encountered in a book or the media. The Queensland coastal resort community of Hervey Bay illustrates both scenarios. Some of its whale-watching tourists are there because they are primarily interested in that activity. Others are there because they are primarily interested in visiting Hervey Bay, and whale-watching happens to be one of the available activities.
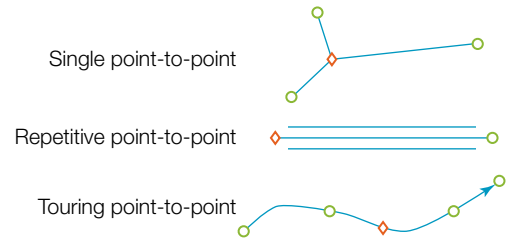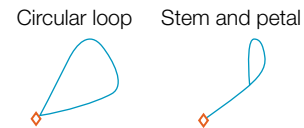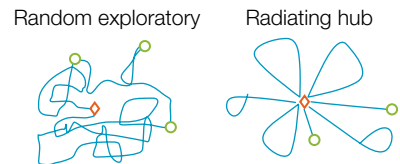
technology and tourism

INTRODUCING THE FLASHPACKER

Backpackers have long been a market segment of strategic interest for many destinations, and the advent of the information technology revolution has spawned an important variant known as **flashpackers**. These are backpackers who, during their travels, are hyper-connected to Facebook, blogs, Twitter and other social media that facilitate instantaneous communication within their social networks (Jarvis & Peel 2010). As such, the flashpacker combines the subcultures of backpackers and 'digital nomads' (i.e. people who use technology to facilitate a mobile lifestyle). An issue of interest to marketers is whether flashpackers are simply a sub-segment of the backpacker market, or distinctive enough to warrant their own target marketing strategies. Also, will they continue to diverge from other backpackers, or are they simply the vanguard of what the typical backpacker of the future will look like? Research on 493 backpackers in Cairns, Australia, sheds some light on these questions (Paris 2012). About 20 per cent were classified as flashpackers on the basis of higher technology use and expenditures during their travel. They were demographically distinctive in being more likely to be male and older (though still Gen Y), but were similar to other backpackers in their high levels of education, and student or part-time employment status. Being far more likely to carry a laptop and mobile phone, 90 per cent logged onto the internet at least once a day, compared with 75 per cent of other backpackers. They desired authentic and unique experiences, but were significantly more likely to agree that travelling alone is risky, time matters when travelling, carrying a laptop is an acceptable part of 'real' backpacking, and being on the internet a lot does not diminish the travel experience. Despite these differences, however, Paris (2012) identifies a common overall cultural model in which flashpackers represent the innovative future of backpacking. In this scenario, it is the 'purists' — preferring face-to-face communication with other backpackers — who will then form a new reactionary backpacker sub-culture.

It is important for destinations to determine what proportions of their visitors fall into each category in order to better understand both their markets and their competitors. In attracting tourists mainly interested in whale-watching, Hervey Bay is competing with destinations in other parts of the world (e.g. New Zealand, Canada) and potentially in other parts of Australia. In attracting tourists in the second category, Hervey Bay is competing with the Sunshine and Gold Coasts, as well as other destinations that happen to be located within Queensland but do not necessarily offer whale-watching.

Repeat patronage and loyalty

As with any type of product, high levels of repeat visitation (i.e. repeat patronage) are regarded as evidence of a successful destination, hence the critical distinction between first-time and repeat visitors. One practical advantage of repeat visitation is the reduced need to invest resources into marketing campaigns, not only because the repeat visitors are returning anyway, but because these satisfied customers are more likely to provide free publicity through positive word-of-mouth and electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM)

contact with other potential visitors. Use frequency is an important segmentation variable that essentially quantifies repeat patronage by indicating the number of times that a product (e.g. a destination or an airline flight) is purchased over a given period of time. Frequent flyer and other repeat-user programs are perhaps the best example of an industry initiative that responds to and encourages high use frequency. Moreover, they provide an excellent database for carrying out relevant marketing and management exercises. At the opposite end of the continuum, there is increased interest in understanding the nontravel segment, or those defined as not having taken a recreational trip over a given period of time, usually 2 or 3 years. Litvin, Smith and Pitts (2013) emphasise the enormous size of this market (around 40 per cent of Australians, for example) and note that their generally more sedentary lifestyles constrain efforts to encourage a higher level of travel.

Repeat patronage and lengthy stays are often equated with product **loyalty**. However, the concept of loyalty goes beyond this single factor to incorporate the psychological attitudes towards the products that compel such behaviour. When both attitudinal and behavioural (repeat purchase) dimensions are taken into account, a four-cell loyalty matrix emerges (see figure 6.9):

- Consumers who demonstrate a pattern of repeat visitation and express a high psychological attachment to a destination (or any other tourism-related product), including a willingness to recommend the product to others, belong in the 'high' loyalty category.
- Conversely, those who have made only a single visit, and indicate negative attitudes about the destination, are assigned to the 'low' loyalty cell, as they are unlikely to visit again.
- 'Spurious' loyalty is a paradox, occurring when a pattern of repeat visitation is exhibited along with a weak psychological attachment. This could result when someone feels compelled to make repeat visits to a destination due to family or peer group pressure, or because financial limitations prohibit visits to more desired destinations.
- 'Latent' loyalty is also paradoxical, describing the opposite scenario where someone regards a destination very highly, but only makes a single visit. The commonest example of this behaviour is a 'once-in-a-lifetime' visit to an exotic but expensive location.
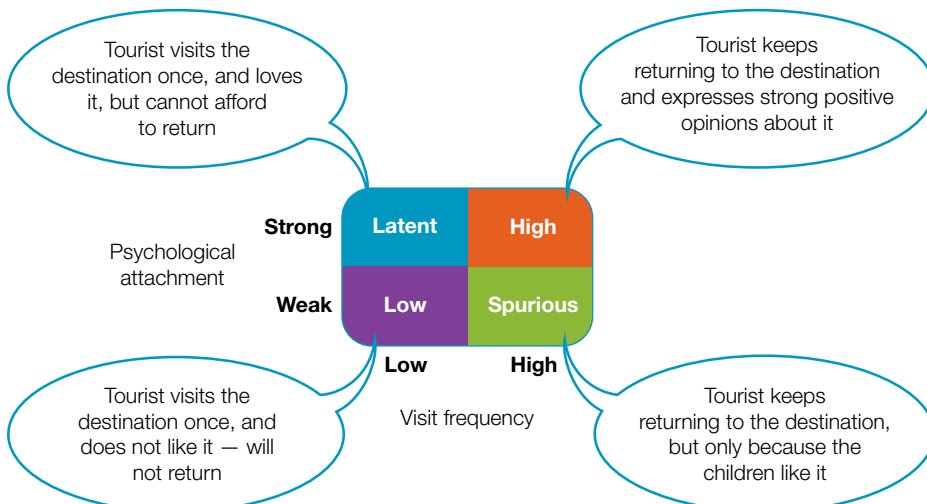
FIGURE 6.9 The loyalty matrix

The loss of the spuriously loyal clientele usually does not indicate any serious problem for a business, since their visits are mainly a matter of habit, convenience or coercion rather than conviction. In contrast, high-loyalty visitors are highly valued by destinations because of their predictability, and because they are more likely to continue their patronage for longer even if the situation in the destination, or in their personal circumstances, begins to deteriorate (i.e. they are more resistant to the erosion of relevant push and pull factors). These tourists, then, constitute an important indicator group, in that the loss of this group's patronage may show that the product is experiencing a very serious level of deterioration or change — as, for example, in association with changing destination lifecycle dynamics (see chapter 10). Failure to foster or retain high loyalty traits in some markets, however, may simply indicate a failure to understand cultural characteristics such as 'face' and 'harmony' that give rise to loyalty (Hoare & Butcher 2008).

CHAPTER REVIEW

Since the 1950s there has been a shift in the perception of the tourist market from a homogeneous group of consumers to increasingly specific or niche market segments. This has occurred in part because of the growing sophistication and size of the market, which has added complexity to the demand for tourism-related products and made it viable for operators to serve ever more specialised groups of consumers. In addition, technologies have emerged to readily identify these specialised segments and facilitate the development and marketing of appropriate niche tourism products. The culmination of this process has been the ability of marketers and managers to regard each customer as an individual segment, or market of one.

All consumers experience a similar decision-making process when selecting destinations and other tourism products. However, the specifics of the process (and subsequent tourism behaviour) vary according to many push and pull forces as well as personal characteristics such as culture, personality and motivations. Many of these forces and characteristics are therefore potentially useful as segmentation variables, though their relevance in any given situation depends on factors such as measurability, size, homogeneity and compatibility.

Four major categories of market segmentation are widely recognised. Geographic segmentation considers spatial criteria such as region or country of origin, subnational origins and the urban–rural distinction. This type of segmentation is the most commonly employed, and is becoming more sophisticated due to the development of GIS technologies. Sociodemographic segmentation includes gender, age, disability and family lifecycle as well as the highly interrelated criteria of education, occupation and income. Gay and lesbian tourists, along with retiring baby boomers and women, are three market segments that have attracted sustained industry attention due to their growth and purchasing power. Psychographic segmentation is the most difficult to identify. The distinction between allocentrics, psychocentrics and midcentrics is the best-known example, although motivation is also commonly used. Finally, behavioural segmentation considers such experiential factors as travel occasion, the number of destinations visited during a trip, activities, and repeat patronage and loyalty.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Allocentrics according to Plog's typology, 'other-centred' tourists who enjoy exposing themselves to other cultures and new experiences, and are willing to take risks in this process

Behavioural segmentation the identification of tourist markets on the basis of activities and actions undertaken during the actual tourism experience

Family lifecycle (FLC) a sequence of stages through which the traditional nuclear family passes from early adulthood to the death of a spouse; each stage is associated with distinct patterns of tourism-related behaviour associated with changing family and financial circumstances

Flashpackers backpackers who are hyper-connected to technology during their travel, thereby creating behaviour that is substantially distinct from conventional backpackers

Gender segmentation the grouping of individuals into male and female categories, or according to sexual orientation

Geographic segmentation market segmentation carried out on the basis of the market's origin region; can be carried out at various scales, including region (e.g. Asia), country (Germany), subnational unit (California, Queensland), or urban/rural

GIS (geographic information systems) sophisticated computer software programs that facilitate the assembly, storage, manipulation, analysis and display of spatially referenced information

Loyalty the extent to which a product, such as a destination, is perceived in a positive way and repeatedly purchased by the consumer

Market segmentation the division of the tourist market into more or less homogenous subgroups, or tourist market segments, based on certain common characteristics and/or behavioural patterns

Market segments portions of the tourist market that are more or less distinct in their characteristics and/or behaviour

Markets of one an extreme form of market segmentation, in which individual consumers are recognised as distinct market segments

Midcentrics 'average' tourists whose personality type is a compromise between allocentric and psychocentric traits

Motivation the intrinsic reasons why the individual is embarking on a particular trip

Multilevel segmentation a refinement of simple market segmentation that further differentiates basic level segments

Niche markets highly specialised market segments

Pink dollar the purchasing power of gay and lesbian consumers, recognised to be much higher than the average purchasing power (sometimes used to describe the purchasing power of women)

Psychocentrics 'self-centred' tourists who prefer familiar and risk-averse experiences

Psychographic segmentation the differentiation of the tourist market on the basis of psychological and motivational characteristics such as personality, motivations and needs

Simple market segmentation the most basic form of market segmentation, involving the identification of a minimal number of basic market segments such as 'female' and 'male'

Sociodemographic segmentation market segmentation based on social and demographic variables such as gender, age, family lifecycle, education, occupation and income

Tourist market the overall group of consumers that engages in some form of tourism-related travel

Zero-commission tours package tour arrangements in which no commissions are paid and profits are realised through aggressive and captive sales strategies; often associated with Chinese outbound tourism

◼ QUESTIONS

1 For managers and marketers, what are the advantages and disadvantages, respectively, of treating the tourist market as a single entity or as a collection of markets of one?

2 (a) To what extent do you believe that tourists in a given destination are obligated to behave in a manner that does not offend conservative local residents? Why?

(b) To what extent should local residents be willing to compromise their own norms to satisfy tourists? Why?

3 What strengths and weaknesses are associated with 'country of residence' and 'region of residence' as criteria for identifying tourist market segments?

4 Should airlines have the right to discriminate against obese people in their pricing and seating policies? Explain your reasoning.

5 (a) What non-traditional family segments are becoming more widespread, and hence call into question the dominance of the traditional family lifecycle as a segmentation variable for the tourist market?

(b) What different kinds of restraints might characterise these different non-traditional segments?

6 (a) What criteria should a destination use in deciding whether to target specific racial, religious or ethnic groups?

(b) What are the risks in targeting specific racial, religious or ethnic markets?

7 What difficulties are associated with the operationalisation of psychographic segmentation criteria?

8 (a) What is the difference between trip purpose and trip motivation?

(b) What are the strengths and weaknesses of each as segmentation criteria?

9 (a) How can the 16 specific motivations depicted in table 6.2 be combined into three or four more general categories?

(b) What is the relative importance of each of these broader categories, based on the frequencies indicated in table 6.2?

10 How can the loyalty matrix be operationalised to assist in the management and marketing of destinations?

■ EXERCISES

1 Assume that you are the manager of a local theme park and that you have obtained funding to identify your market through the use of a questionnaire. Because these funds are very limited, you must keep your questionnaire to only two pages, which allows you to obtain no more than 15 customer characteristics.

(a) List the 15 characteristics of your market base that you believe to be most important to the successful management of your attraction.

(b) Indicate why you selected these particular characteristics.

(c) Design the questionnaire.

(d) Prepare an accompanying 500-word report that explains your choices as well as the metrics you use to measure each of these characteristics.

2 (a) Design a 300-word travel brochure for a destination of your choice that attempts to attract as many visitors as possible by appealing to all levels of Maslow's hierarchy (as shown in figure 6.7).

(b) Explain how the brochure evokes this hierarchy.

■ FURTHER READING

Aitchison, C. (Ed.) 2011. *Gender and Tourism: Social, Cultural and Spatial Perspectives.* **London: Routledge.** A comprehensive perspective on the role of gender in tourism is provided in this text, which considers how gendered identities are represented in exclusionary spaces, practices and policies.

Darcy, S. 2013. *Disability and Tourism.* **Wallingford, UK: CABI.** Tourism businesses are increasingly recognising people with disabilities as a large, growing and viable market segment. This text addresses the definitions of disability and considers issues of demand, marketing, accessibility and future trends.

Guichard-Anguis, S. & Moon, O. (Eds) 2011. *Japanese Tourism and Travel Culture.* **London: Routledge.** Notwithstanding the rapid growth of the

Chinese tourist market, Japanese tourists continue to situate as an important inbound market for many destinations, including Australia. This text considers the distinctive characteristics of Japanese tourism and their implications for destination management and marketing.

Kozak, M. & Decrop, A. (Eds) 2012. *Handbook of Tourist Behavior.* **London: Routledge.** The chapters in this text consider various aspects related to tourist decision-making and behaviour-related market segments. International case studies illustrate the concepts.

Schänzel, H., Yeoman, I. & Backer, E. (Eds) 2012. *Family Tourism: Multidisciplinary Perspectives.* **Bristol: Channel View.** Family travel is a prevalent type of tourist group, but one that is poorly understood. This is the first text to systematically analyse this critically important travel group segment, thereby providing a foundation for further study.

case study

UNDERSTANDING CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS

Australian tourism enterprises are focusing increasingly on Chinese outbound tourism because of its seemingly limitless growth potential. Targeted management and marketing strategies, however, need to correctly 'read' this market (or markets) so that satisfied visitors initiate a virtuous cycle of word-of-mouth recommendations and repeat visitation intentions. Such a cycle would reduce the costly need to recruit first-time visitors. Assuming that the Chinese have already been identified by a destination's strategic plan as a desirable target segment, the ability to attract a desired share of this rapidly emerging market depends on exploiting a strategic 'window of opportunity' during which the market is properly identified, understood and cultivated. This is achieved by identifying and monitoring:

- evolving push factors that motivate the Chinese to travel internationally
- pull factors of the destination and the capacity of destination stakeholders to isolate and enhance those pull factors that appeal most effectively to these motivations
- the image of the destination already held
- external factors (e.g. financial, geopolitical, transportation, environmental) that might positively or negatively affect the resultant flow of Chinese outbound tourists to the destination
- visitor satisfaction (Prideaux et al. 2012).

In assessing the resultant destination opportunities and the relevant market research, it is critical to emphasise that there are multiple Chinese markets. For example, Chinese visitors can be situated along a continuum from high volume/low yield (e.g. package tourists) to low volume/high yield (e.g. free and independent travellers (FITs)). At a relatively superficial level, a survey of higher yield Chinese tourists in the northern Queensland city of Cairns found that the Great Barrier Reef and other wildlife fulfilled motivations to

experience Australia's iconic natural environment, and produced high levels of satisfaction. Hence, an effective push–pull relationship is evident here that may help to explain an expected increase in Cairn's inbound Chinese visitation from 70 000 in 2010 to more than 244 000 in 2015 if direct air services to China are opened (Prideaux et al. 2012). At a more psychographic level, a large survey of Chinese tour group participants from throughout Australia found very high 'sensation seeking' motivations based on a search for adventure, excitement, new experiences, meeting new people and exploring the local culture. However, 'security consciousness' was also widespread, and evident in concerns about personal safety (Chow & Murphy 2011). Weiler and Yu (2006) similarly identified a desire for more contact with locals (88 per cent) and a more flexible itinerary (93 per cent) among Chinese visitors to Victoria, but less interest in having a more challenging or adventurous holiday experience (49%). Younger visitors, however, had a much higher desire for adventure.

Within a wider context of attitudes, constraints and influences, Sparks and Pan (2009) found that Shanghai residents who were enquiring at travel agencies about overseas travel were influenced more by social norms and influences than personal attitudes; that is, they were more likely to intend to visit a place if friends, family, co-workers or travel agents thought it was a good idea to do so, rather than if they personally wanted to visit. Females were more susceptible to this social effect. Images about Australia were shaped primarily by television programs, while friends, the internet and magazines were also influential. Television played a particular role in shaping an image of Australia as inspiring, providing opportunities for self-enhancement, being a place where one can interact with locals, and providing shopping opportunities. As with the Victoria study, younger respondents (and especially those who were single) were more adventurous in their motivations and desired greater autonomy and flexibility. Important external barriers included exchange rates, distance and lack of fluency in English.

Qualitative research techniques are often especially useful for gaining insight into the complex arena of human attitudes and behaviour, and focus groups of Chinese visitors to Australia (including tourists from Hong Kong and Taiwan) revealed the extent to which dining out is regarded as a peak experience rather than just a mundane regular necessity (Chang, Kivela & Mak 2011). Participants explained that authentic Australian dining experiences were highly valued, and that a mediocre or unpleasant taste was not a problem as long as they could boast to friends and family that they had tasted crocodile or kangaroo. This represented for them the accrual of cultural capital. It was also very important to experience a diversity of food, and to receive a very high level of service that conformed to perceptions of Australia as a highly developed country. Simultaneously, they expected a good service attitude from attending staff, and did not mind the communication gap as long as a 'cultural broker' was present to explain (i.e. add value to) the various dishes. However, Chinese visitors — even adventurous and experienced travellers — still assessed exotic Australian foods according to Chinese standards of flavour and cooking method.

Zero-commission tours are a characteristic aspect of Chinese outbound tourism that can have negative effects on the tourists as well as destination stakeholders. These occur when inbound tour operators in a destination such as the Gold Coast charge no commissions to their Chinese outbound tourist operator

counterparts, but in exchange receive their high volume business on monopolistic or similarly advantageous terms. To make a profit, the inbound operators take their clients to particular shops where aggressive sales tactics are used to sell often overpriced and low quality goods. Clients might also be charged entry fees to beaches and other free public spaces, or be forced to pay 'tips' to their tour guides. Such tours have been associated with perceived coercion and bullying, deception (for example, saying that the strict controlling of tourist actions is required because the streets are unsafe), poor quality, and ineffective complaint handling. This can result in damage to the destination brand in countries such as Thailand where such practices are common, and poor impressions of Chinese inbound operators on the part of other local companies who receive no benefits from the participating Chinese tourists (Zhang, Yan & Li 2009). Some Chinese tourist segments — such as first-time outbound travellers on a limited budget — may tolerate zero-commission tours because of their attractive low cost, but reputational damage to the destination may dissuade high-yield segments, who demand quality and flexibility.

QUESTIONS

1 What conclusions about the validity of Plog's psychographic model to the Chinese outbound market can be reached based on the results from the empirical studies described in this case? Explain your reasons for reaching these conclusions.

2 (a) Design a memorable and satisfying one-week itinerary to an Australian destination (e.g. Gold Coast, Outback, northern Queensland, Tasmania, etc.) for the Chinese FIT market, based on the characteristics of this market identified in the case study.

 (b) Identify the main constituent experiences of this itinerary and explain why they are likely to be memorable.

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7

Tourism marketing

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 appreciate the scope of marketing as an essential component of tourism systems

2 list and describe the key characteristics of services marketing and explain how these are different from goods marketing

3 identify the strategies that can be adopted to address imbalances between tourism supply and tourism demand

4 explain when and why market failure occurs in tourism marketing

5 describe the role of destination tourism organisations in tourism marketing

6 outline the rationale for and the stages involved in strategic tourism marketing

7 define the basic components of the 8P marketing mix model

8 explain the pricing strategies that tourism businesses can use to set prices

9 identify the costs and benefits associated with the various forms of media that are used in tourism promotion.

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INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 examined market segmentation, or the process whereby consumers are divided into relatively uniform groups with respect to their attitudes and behaviour. This is a critical component of tourism product management in that different market segments, distinguished by one or more geographical, sociodemographic, psychographic or behavioural criteria, are likely to have distinct impacts upon the tourism system. They also have different implications for tourism marketing, which is the subject of this chapter. Following a discussion of the nature and definition of marketing in the next section, the key characteristics of services marketing, and tourism marketing in particular, are examined. The need to maintain a balance between supply and demand is then discussed, while the phenomenon of market failure is addressed in the section that follows. This section also considers the approaches and strategies that can be used to overcome this problem. Strategic marketing, and in particular the components of a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis, forms the core of the 'Strategic tourism marketing' section. The final section presents an overview of the elements involved in the product-focused marketing mix.

THE NATURE OF MARKETING

Marketing is popularly perceived as involving little more than the promotional advertisements that are displayed through television and other media. However, these advertisements are only one form of promotion, and promotion is only one aspect of marketing. Advertising and promotion, and the people who work in these industries, are important, but marketing implicates *everyone* in the tourism and hospitality sector, including tourists, potential tourists and residents of destinations. Thus, marketing is explicitly or implicitly pervasive throughout the tourism system.

Definition of marketing

There are numerous definitions of marketing (see, for example, Kotler & Keller 2012; Morrison 2009). The following definition, which combines elements of the most commonly cited definitions, is used in this book:

> Marketing involves the interaction and interrelationships among consumers and producers of goods and services, through which ideas, products, services and values are created and exchanged for the mutual benefit of both groups.

In place of the popular perception of marketing as a one-way attempt by producers (e.g. the tourism industry and destinations) to sell their products to the market, this definition emphasises the two-way interactions that occur between these producers and the actual as well as potential tourist market. Successful marketing, for example, depends on feedback (e.g. customer satisfaction, proclivity to purchase new products) flowing from the market to the producer. In addition, it recognises the importance of financial and other benefits to both parties, and includes interactions among the 'internal customers' within a company, organisation or destination.

SERVICES MARKETING

Services marketing applies to service-sector activities such as tourism and is fundamentally different from the marketing of goods. This holds true even though the tourism sector interfaces with goods such as souvenirs and duty-free merchandise,

and notwithstanding the fact that many important marketing principles are equally applicable to both goods and services. In general, the key marketing characteristics that distinguish services from goods are (a) intangibility, (b) inseparability, (c) variability and (d) perishability (Kotler, Bowen & Makens 2009).

Intangibility

In contrast to physical products, services have **intangibility**. This means that they can be experienced in only a very limited way prior to their purchase and consumption. Furthermore, customers usually have only a receipt, a souvenir or other memorabilia such as photographs as evidence that they actually had that experience. Customers purchase tourism and hospitality services for the first time with little more than knowledge of the price, some pictures of the destination and its facilities, endorsement by some well-known personality, friends or relatives or the sales intermediary (e.g. travel agent) and, in some instances, their own prior experiences. If they observe the delivery of those services to other customers, they may also develop some insight into the experience. In the service industry, the concept of compensation for an unsatisfactory purchase is also distinctive. As with goods, money can be refunded or compensating products made available free of charge, but the product itself cannot be returned once it has been consumed.

Because of the intangible nature of the service sector, word of mouth is especially important as a source of product information, as this involves direct or indirect access to those who have already experienced a particular destination or hotel. Accordingly, word of mouth has a high degree of influence among potential customers as an image formation agent (Morrison 2009). However, word of mouth can also be problematic. Circumstances regarding the product may have changed from the time of the informant's experience, or the information may be third- or fourth-hand (e.g. the informant knows someone who knows someone who travelled to Bali and did not like it). In addition, the psychographic profile and tastes of the informant may be different from the person who is receiving the information (see chapter 6).

Thus, even with access to word-of-mouth information, the level of perceived risk in purchasing a service, especially for a first-time purchaser, is relatively high compared to goods (although this is not to say that goods purchasing is risk free). To reduce this risk perception, service providers offer tangible clues as to what the customer can expect from the product and the producer, thereby creating confidence in the service. For example, outdoor cafes often attract passers-by who see and smell the foods that are being served. Clues may also include articulate and uniformed personnel, a clean and professional office setting, glossy brochures that convey attractive images to the potential buyer, and websites that take advantage of virtual reality technologies.

Inseparability

Tourism services are also characterised by **inseparability**, meaning that production and consumption occur simultaneously and in the same place. This is demonstrated by a passenger's flight experience (i.e. the flight is being 'produced' at the same time the passenger is 'consuming' it), or by a guest's occupancy of a hotel room. Because the consumers and producers of these products are in frequent contact, the nature of these interactions has a major impact on customer satisfaction levels. Customer-oriented staff training and initial staff selection should thus ensure that frontline employees such as airline attendants and hotel receptionists display appropriate and positive **emotional labour** attributes such as empathy, assurance and responsiveness (Kim et al. 2012).

Tourists also need to respect applicable protocol and regulations, since misbehaviour on their part can also negatively affect the product. For example, patrons who smoke in a smoke-free restaurant detract from the quality of the experience for non-smoking customers. Tourists who walk into a church wearing shorts and talking loudly or filming may offend local residents or other visitors. While it is assumed that frontline service staff should receive training to be made aware of appropriate standards of service behaviour, the same assumption is seldom if ever applied to tourists, even though these two examples clearly demonstrate the negative ramifications of inappropriate tourist behaviour. At the very least, it is incumbent on the service sector to make any relevant rules and regulations evident to tourists in a diplomatic but unambiguous way.

Variability

Tourism services have a high level of **variability**, meaning that each producer–consumer interaction is a unique experience that is influenced by a large number of often unpredictable factors. These include 'human element' factors such as the mood and expectations of each participant at the particular time during which the service encounter takes place. A tourist in a restaurant, for example, may be completely relaxed, expecting that their every whim will be satisfied, while the attending waiter may have high levels of stress from overwork and expect the customer to be 'more reasonable' in their demands. Such expectation incongruities are extremely common in the tourism sector, given the tourist's perception of this experience as a 'special', out-of-the-ordinary (and expensive) occasion, and the waiter's contrasting view that this is just a routine experience associated with the job. The next encounter, however, even if the same waiter is involved, could involve an entirely different set of circumstances with a more positive outcome.

The problem for managers is that these incongruities can lead to unpleasant and unsatisfying encounters, and a consequent reduction in customer satisfaction levels and deteriorating employee attitudes towards tourists. Often, just one such experience can have a disproportionate influence in souring a tourist's view about a particular destination, offsetting a very large number of entirely satisfactory experiences during the same venture that, because they were expected, do not make the same impression. This is why a tourist returning to the same hotel may have a completely different experience during the second trip — the combination of moods, expectations, experiences and other factors among all participants is likely to be entirely different from the first trip.

This uncertainty element, combined with the simultaneous nature of production and consumption (which renders it more difficult to undo any mistakes), makes it extremely difficult to introduce quality control mechanisms in tourism similar in rigour to those that govern the production of tangible goods such as cars and clothing. For tourism destinations and products, it is again a matter of decreasing the likelihood of negative outcomes by ensuring that employees are exposed to high-quality training opportunities, and that the tourists themselves are sensitised to standards of appropriate behaviour and reasonable expectations that pertain to a particular destination.

Perishability

Tourism services cannot be produced and stored today for consumption in the future. For example, an airline flight that has 100 empty seats on a 400-seat aircraft cannot compensate for the shortfall by selling 500 seats on the next flight of that plane. The 100 seats are irrevocably lost, along with the revenue that they would normally

generate. The smaller number of meals that needs to be served does not compensate for this lost revenue. Because some of this loss is attributable to airline passengers or hotel guests who do not take up their reservations, most businesses 'overbook' their services on the basis of the average number of seats that have not been claimed in the past. This characteristic of **perishability** also helps to explain why airlines and other businesses such as wotif.com offer last-minute sales or stand-by rates at drastically reduced prices. While they will not obtain as much profit from these clients, at least some revenue can be recouped at minimal extra cost. For a tourism manager, one of the greatest challenges in marketing is to compensate for perishability by effectively matching demand with supply. An optimal match contributes to higher profitability, and therefore the supply and demand balance is discussed more thoroughly in the following section.

MANAGING SUPPLY AND DEMAND

Tourism managers will attempt to produce as close a match as possible between the supply and corresponding demand for a product. This is because, all other things being equal, resources that are not fully used will result in reduced profits. When considering the supply and demand balance, there are two main cost components that must be taken into account.

- **Fixed costs** are entrenched costs that the operation has little flexibility to change over the short term. Examples include taxes, the interest that has to be paid on loans, and the heating costs that are incurred throughout a hotel during the winter season. In the latter case, these must be paid whether the rooms are occupied or not, as otherwise building and contents damage could result.
- **Variable costs** are those costs that can be adjusted in the short term. For example, during the low season hotels can dismiss their casual nonunionised staff and cut back on their advertising, thereby adjusting to low occupancy rates by saving on salaries and promotion. It may also be possible to obtain cheaper and smaller supplies of food if the hotel is not already under an inflexible long-term contract with a specific supplier.

Scenario A

100% occupancy over a one-month period

REVENUES
50 rooms @ $2000 each = $100 000

COSTS $64 000 fixed $16 000 variable

$20 000 profit
(= $100 000 revenue –
$80 000 costs)

= $80 000

Scenario B

80% occupancy over a one-month period

REVENUES
40 rooms @ $2000 each = $80 000

COSTS $64 000 fixed $12 800 variable

$3200 profit
(= $80 000 revenue –
$76 800 costs)

= $76 800
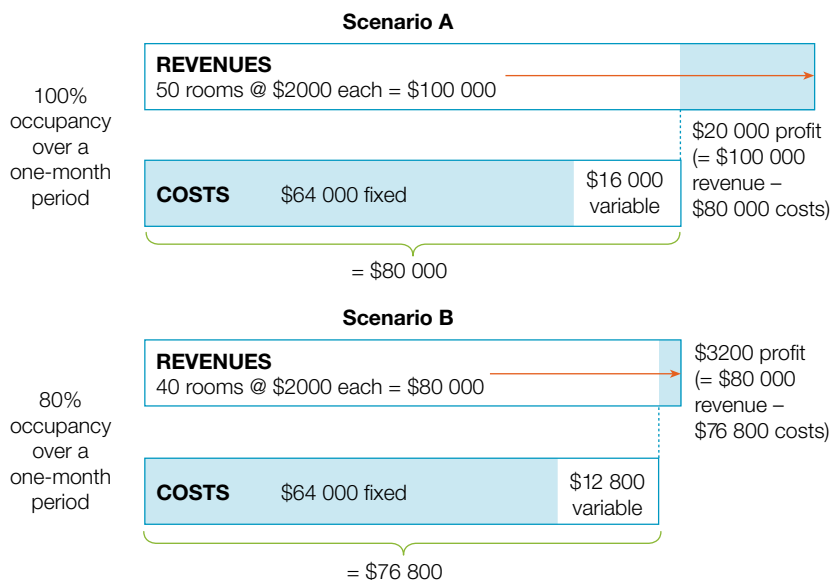
FIGURE 7.1 Effect of a high fixed cost structure on hotel room profits

There is no set boundary between these two categories, and it is helpful to think of costs as falling along a fixed-to-variable spectrum that varies from one operation to another. Tourism businesses tend to have a relatively high proportion of costs concentrated in the fixed segment of the spectrum, implying that large amounts of money have to be budgeted whether a flight or hotel is fully booked or almost empty. As a result, even small shortfalls in occupancy can lead to significant declines in profit. Figure 7.1 demonstrates this problem by showing the contrasting profits that result from two different levels of occupancy in a hypothetical hotel with 50 rooms and monthly fixed costs of $64 000. In scenario A, full occupancy results in a $20 000 monthly profit when costs are subtracted from revenues. However, in scenario B, with just a 20 per cent decline in occupancy, the corresponding profit declines by 84 per cent to $3200. This is because the variable costs fall by 20 per cent (the same as the occupancy rate fall), but the $64 000 fixed costs cannot be moved at all. Being able to maintain a high occupancy rate is therefore absolutely critical for the hotel. Demand for tourism-related services such as accommodation, however, is usually very difficult to predict, given the complexity of the destination or product decision-making process (chapter 6), and the uncertainty factor associated with unexpected internal or external events (see Managing tourism: Getting them to visit after the bushfire). To help achieve a better understanding and thus a higher level of control over the demand portion of the supply/demand equation, daily, weekly, seasonal and long-term patterns in demand can be identified.

managing tourism

GETTING THEM TO VISIT AFTER THE BUSHFIRE

Natural and human-induced disasters affect all destinations sooner or later, yet marketers tend to take an ad hoc approach to promoting damaged destinations in the wake of such events. In 2009, the Black Saturday bushfires in Victoria collectively killed 200 people, displaced another 7500 and

Gippsland countryside devastated by bushfire

destroyed 3500 structures (Naidoo 2013). Following the initial period of mourning and attending to the needs of survivors, questions arose as to the content and timing of promotional material that would be most effective in attracting tourists back to affected areas to accelerate their recovery. Walters and Mair (2012) used an experimental design shortly after the bushfires to test the effectiveness of nine different taglines on potential visitors to Gippsland, one of the regions worst affected by the bushfires. Participants were 672 residents of other parts of Victoria, and they judged celebrity endorsement to be the most effective on the dimensions of ethos (i.e. trust and credibility), logos (i.e. facts and figures) and pathos (i.e. emotional response). Short-term discounts were least effective on ethos and pathos, while 'open-for-business' messages were least effective on logos. Also effective (although to a lesser extent) were 'solidarity/empathy' ('Gippsland needs you...'), community readiness, challenging misperceptions ('all roads are open'), curiosity enhancement ('come see for yourself'), visitor testimonials, and festivals and events. While there was no significant relation between the type of tagline and the timeframe of a return visit, those who had visited Gippsland five times or

more in the past were more likely to say that they would visit within six months of the bushfire, suggesting continuing loyalty. Tellingly, over 80 per cent agreed or strongly agreed that it was appropriate for affected destinations such as Gippsland to engage in post-disaster promotion sooner rather than later. A well-chosen celebrity — one, for example, who has a well-known association with the affected destination — appeared to be the most effective medium for capturing attention, providing credibility, and promoting awareness. In contrast, the open-for-business tagline was seen to lack credibility because of the dissonance between claims of a return to normality and relentless popular images of devastation released by the media.

Daily variations in demand

The level of demand for most tourism services changes throughout the day. For example, in a hotel reception area, the peak check-out time is in the morning between approximately 7am and 10 am, and in large hotels queues commonly form during that period if an efficient online check-out procedure has not been implemented. Similarly, late afternoon and early evening is a busy time, as guests arrive to check in. However, for the housekeeping department, the intervening period is usually the busiest time as rooms are cleaned and prepared before the next guests arrive. Different types of hotels also have different demand patterns. An airport hotel, for example, often faces unpredictable demand surges at any time of the day or night if flights are delayed or cancelled. In theme parks, a peak often occurs between midday and late afternoon, while country markets usually experience peak visitation in the early morning. Music festivals usually experience peak demand in the evening. When analysed from the perspective of daily demand, salaries are a fixed cost unless there is provision for sending staff home early without compensation.

Weekly variations in demand

Differential demand patterns on a weekly basis are illustrated in the hotel industry by the distinction between the 'four-day' and 'three-day' market. The four-day market is a largely business-oriented clientele that concentrates in the Monday to Thursday period. Hotels that focus on this market tend to experience a downturn on the weekend. Conversely, the three-day or short holiday market peaks on the weekend and during national or state holidays. Tourist shopping villages that draw much of their tourist traffic from nearby large cities, such as Tamborine Mountain and Maleny in Queensland, also tend to experience weekend peak use periods.

Seasonal variations in demand

Variations can also be identified over the one-year cycle, with a distinction being made between the high season, the low season and shoulder periods in many types of destinations and operations. 3S resort communities and facilities often experience 100 per cent occupancy rates during the high season, which is in the summer for high-latitude resorts and in the winter for tropical or subtropical pleasure periphery resorts. This may then be offset by closures during the low season due to very low occupancy rates, with subsequent negative impacts throughout the local community if appropriate adjustments have not been made (see chapter 8). In contrast, business-oriented city hotels and urban attractions often experience their seasonal downturn during the summer, when business activity is reduced.

Long-term variations in demand

The most difficult patterns to identify are those that occur over a period of several years or even decades. Long-term business cycles, which have been identified by many economists (Ralf 2000), do not necessarily affect the usual daily, weekly and seasonal fluctuations, but can result in lower-than-normal visitation levels at all of these scales. Some tourism researchers have also theorised that destinations and other tourism-related facilities, irrespective of macro-fluctuations in the overall economy, experience a product lifecycle that is characterised by alternating periods of stable and accelerated demand. This very important concept is discussed more thoroughly in chapter 10.

Supply/demand matching strategies

Most tourism managers operate in an environment that is largely capacity restrained — that is, supply is fixed and cannot be expanded rapidly. They therefore concentrate on optimising the volume of demand, although there is usually some scope for modifying supply as well. There are two broad circumstances in which a manager needs to take action — when supply exceeds demand and when demand exceeds supply — each of which is accompanied by its own set of strategies (see figure 7.2). The strategies that are adopted depend in large part on whether the imbalances are daily, weekly, seasonal or long term in nature.

If supply exceeds demand:

- increase demand
- reduce supply
- redistribute supply.

If demand exceeds supply:

- reduce demand
- increase supply
- redistribute demand.
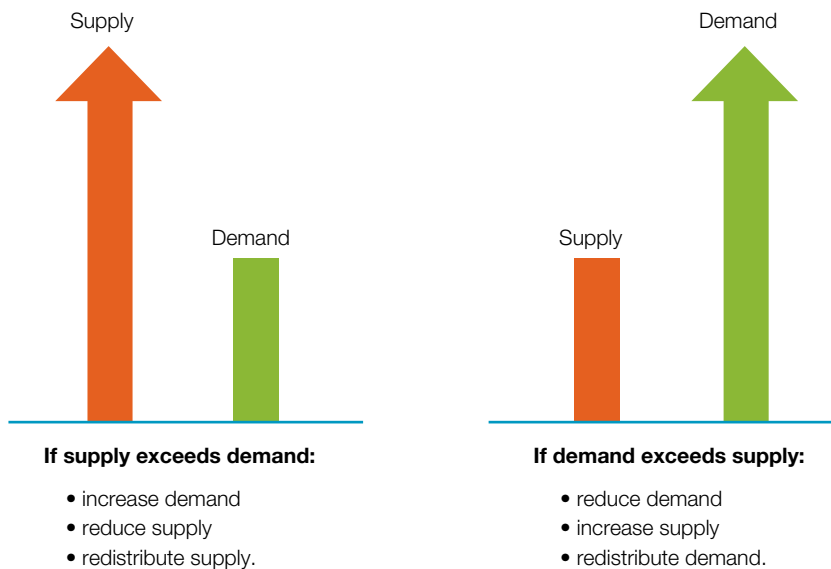
FIGURE 7.2 Supply/demand imbalances and appropriate strategies

If supply exceeds demand: increase demand

The assumptions underlying this strategy are that either the total demand is below capacity or the demand is low only at certain times. Potentially, demand can be increased through a number of strategies.

Product modification or diversification is illustrated by attempts since the mid-1990s to incorporate the rainforests and farms of the Gold Coast's exurban hinterland into that destination's tourism product. To prevent supply from exceeding demand, during the 1990s many casinos in Las Vegas developed 'family-friendly' attractions and ambience

to diversify their client base beyond hardcore gamblers, but then returned to an edgier approach with the slogan 'What happens in Vegas stays in Vegas' when growth in the family market slowed. Another strategy is the *alteration or strengthening of distribution channels*, as when a small bed and breakfast operation is linked with a large tour operator through its membership in a bed and breakfast consortium. Attempts since the early 2000s to cultivate the Chinese tourist flow to the Gold Coast, and to encourage domestic tourism within Australia, indicate the *identification of new or alternative sources of demand*, without necessarily modifying the existing product to any great extent. Another example is the increasingly popular practice of targeting people whose ancestors originally lived in the destination (see Breakthrough tourism: Going full circle with roots tourism). *Pricing discounts*, such as those provided by wotif.com (see preceding section), and *redesigned promotional campaigns* that focus more effectively on the existing product and market mix are other options.

breakthrough tourism

GOING FULL CIRCLE WITH ROOTS TOURISM

The term 'diaspora' refers commonly to the movement of people away from their ethnic homeland, or the people themselves who have been affected in this way personally or through the migration of their ancestors. **Roots tourism** — the travel of diaspora members back to their ancestral lands as tourists — is a particularly attractive marketing option for a destination when diaspora numbers greatly exceed resident numbers, a strong sense of ethnic identity persists through the generations, and much of the diaspora resides in wealthy countries. All three criteria apply to Ireland. Globally, people with Irish ancestry are estimated to number 80 million (Simpson 2012), compared with Ireland's current resident population of about five million. Most of these diaspora Irish live in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia or other wealthy countries, and many retain a very strong sense of 'being Irish'. Although the diaspora has long been an important inbound tourist market in Ireland, Tourism Ireland recently made an ambitious year-long attempt to attract this market in its *Gathering 2013* campaign (www.thegatheringireland.com). This involved clan gatherings, festivals, sporting events and concerts conducted throughout the year in different parts of the country. It was billed as a 'spectacular celebration of what it means to be Irish' (Simpson 2012). Not all Irish, however, were enthusiastic about the initiative, which some labelled as a cynical attempt by the financially struggling country to exploit cashed-up diaspora Irish who really don't have that much of a connection with Ireland. Despite such dissent, many countries are assessing Ireland's experience to see how their own large diaspora can be attracted. Notably, the neighbouring Scots launched their own Homecoming year in 2014 to attract some of the estimated 50 million overseas Scots. As more people move to other countries, and as interest grows in discovering one's ancestral roots, roots tourism is likely to become a more prominent feature of destination marketing throughout the world.

Reduce supply

This strategy assumes that it is not possible or desirable to increase demand in any substantial way, and that it is desirable or essential to reduce costs. Supply can be reduced in hotels by closing individual rooms or wings, or by closing the entire hotel in the low season as an extreme measure to reduce fixed and variable costs. This strategy is commonly adopted in the Caribbean at the level of individual operations. Airlines react in a similar fashion by putting certain aircraft out of service, leasing these out to other companies, or cancelling flights.

Redistribute supply

Redistribution or restructuring of supply is necessary when the existing product is no longer suited to the demand it was originally intended to satisfy. In the case of a hotel, rooms can be modified to better reflect contemporary demand. This could involve the conversion of two rooms into an executive suite, or other rooms into 'courtesy suites' (used only during the day for showers and resting). New non-smoking rooms can also be provided. The conversion of hotel rooms into timeshare units is an illustration of a long-term adaptive strategy in the accommodation sector. Theme parks usually introduce new rides or renovate old rides periodically to sustain demand, while the conversion of scheduled flights to charter flights in the airline industry is another example of adaptive supply redistribution.

If demand exceeds supply: reduce demand

Where demand for a product exceeds its capacity, tourism product managers can raise the price of a seat or room, thereby reducing demand while obtaining additional revenue per unit. A similar demand reduction strategy is to increase entrance fees in national parks that are being negatively impacted by excessive visitation levels (see chapter 9). Another option often applied to protected areas and other natural or cultural sites but seldom to countries or municipalities is a formal quota on the number of visitors allowed per day, month, season or year. Peak season whitewater rafting on the Colorado River in Grand Canyon National Park (United States), an extremely high-demand experience, is regulated by a dual waiting list/lottery system that can result in a 20-year period between registration and participation. Some destination managers may also take the controversial move of proactively discouraging visits from some or all tourists on a temporary or permanent basis. This **demarketing** can be 'general' when it attempts to restrict visits by all potential tourists, or 'selective' when it focuses on a particular (usually undesirable) segment such as football hooligans or sex tourists (Armstrong & Kern 2011).

Increase supply

As an alternative to induced demand reduction, managers can accommodate higher demand levels by expanding current capacity. Many 3S resort communities respond effectively to short-term demand fluctuations by making their patrolled beaches available on the basis of daily or weekly patterns of demand. A hotel can build an additional wing, acquire new facilities or utilise external facilities on a temporary basis. To increase bed capacity in a single room, cots and convertible sofas are often provided. Primitive hut-type accommodations, such as the *bures* provided by some Fijian hotels, have the great advantage of being highly attractive to 3S tourists. However, at the same time, they can be erected and disassembled rapidly depending on seasonal fluctuations.

A similar principle applies to the tent-like structures available commercially at various eco-resorts in Australia and elsewhere. At Karijini Eco Retreat in the Pilbara region of Western Australia, deluxe 'eco tents' can be easily erected and dismantled

with minimal environmental disturbance (see figure 7.3), but include a private ensuite bathroom, front and rear decks and other high end features (see figure 7.4). Solar power, natural ventilation and recycled timber flooring add to their strong environmental credentials. As with bures, they are an effective means of meeting the problem of high fixed costs associated with 'permanent' facilities.

FIGURE 7.3 Deluxe eco tent at the Karijini Eco Retreat, Western Australia

Source: Christian Fletcher (Photographer) & Karijini Eco Retreat

FIGURE 7.4 Typical interior configuration of a deluxe eco tent

Source: Christian Fletcher (Photographer) & Karijini Eco Retreat

Redistribute demand

This strategy works by transferring demand from times of excess use to times of low demand. The differential seasonal price structure in many Caribbean resorts, for example, is an attempt to redistribute demand from the high-demand winter period to the low-demand summer season. At the weekly scale, many attractions attempt to divert traffic from the busy weekend period to the rest of the week by offering weekday discounts on entrance fees and other prices.

MARKET FAILURE

Tourism is an industry where **market failure** occurs frequently. Mainstream economic theory suggests that market demand and product supply will attain equilibrium in the long term. Companies that identify a need for promotion to fill their hotel rooms or aircraft seats, therefore, will spend the necessary funds on that promotion. In return, they will benefit financially from their investment when the anticipated increase in demand materialises. In destination marketing, however, the case is not so straightforward. It is widely recognised that tourists usually decide first on a particular destination, and then select specific tourism products (e.g. accommodation) within that destination. However, specific tourism operators are rarely willing to invest money directly in destination promotion, since this type of investment will provide benefits to their competitors as well as to themselves. Hence, the situation arises where financial investment is required for destination promotion to achieve demand/supply equilibrium but operators are unwilling to contribute since the returns do not accrue directly to the individual companies. The market therefore does not function as it should in taking action to attain supply and demand equilibrium.

Destination tourism organisations

Destination promotion, as a result, is normally the responsibility of **destination tourism organisations (DTOs)** established as government or quasi-governmental agencies at the national, regional, state or municipal level. This is a role that serves to reinforce the importance of destination governments within the overall tourism system. Historically, such bodies have been funded from general tax revenues, and therefore individual tourism operators receive direct benefits from destination promotion that the wider community (including the tourism businesses) has funded. However, this public funding is usually justified by the tax revenues, jobs and other economic benefits that trickle down from prosperous tourism businesses to the broader community (see chapter 8).

Market failure has implications not only for destination promotion and marketing but also applies to the provision of infrastructure (i.e. the roads and airports that benefit businesses but are also funded through general tax revenues), specific tourism facilities (e.g. convention centres) and tourism research. However, in the present context of tourism marketing it is the area of promotion and those related activities that are particularly relevant. The following subsections will therefore discuss some of the marketing functions that are usually performed by DTOs such as Tourism Australia (www.tourism.australia.com), Tourism and Events Queensland (www.tq.com.au) and Gold Coast Tourism (www.visitgoldcoast.com), depending on mandate and level of available funding.

Marketing functions of destination tourism organisations

Historically, the principal marketing role of DTOs was promotional. However, despite widespread funding reductions, this is changing as the contemporary international tourism industry becomes more competitive and complex, and tourists become increasingly sophisticated in their destination choice behaviour. Progressive elements within the tourism industry, accordingly, recognise the importance of collaboration between the public and private sector in implementing effective marketing strategies.

The following sections describe the activities ideally carried out by a well-funded and collaborative destination tourism organisation.

Promotion

Advertising directed at key market segments is a core activity and is often focused on fostering **destination branding**, or efforts to build a positive destination image that represents that destination to certain desired markets (Tasci 2011). The extremely successful '100% Pure New Zealand' campaign, for example, employs the common logo and slogan but different activities and images in the key inbound markets of Australia, Japan, the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany and Singapore. For example, the '100% Pure New Zealand' website for Australia emphasises the capital city of Wellington, the Te Papa national museum, native animals, wineries, boat cruises on the Marlborough Sounds and the Queen Charlotte Track. It links to the Qantas website to facilitate the online flight bookings. Six entirely different experiences are recommended on the Singapore website — that is, Milford Sound boat cruises, the beaches of the Coromandel Peninsula, Rotorua's geothermal features, glaciers, Waitomo's glow worm caves, and jet boating. More recently, this campaign has been applied in a highly successful way to New Zealand's association with the *Lord of the Rings* and the *Hobbit* movie trilogies (see the case study at the end of this chapter). To expedite these campaigns, larger DTOs often maintain offices in the major cities of key market countries. Related activities include participation in domestic and international tourism trade shows, the organisation of familiarisation tours for media and industry mediators, handling media inquiries and coordinating press releases. DTOs also produce and distribute or coordinate the production and distribution of promotional material and work to promote a favourable destination image in key origin regions. Some organisations engage in joint promotion with other jurisdictions.

Research

Research, or the informed acquisition of strategic knowledge (see chapter 12), is an increasingly important activity pursued by destination tourism organisations. This can focus on visitation trends and forecasting, identification of key market segments and their expenditure and activity patterns, perceptions of visitor satisfaction and effectiveness of prior or current promotional campaigns. If resources are available, these bodies may also try to identify the key threats and opportunities presented by external environments.

Direct support for the tourism industry

Although the tourism industry and its constituent subsectors maintain their own representative bodies, DTOs often provide support to new and existing tourism businesses, advise on their product development and otherwise assist in educating and encouraging the industry (see Technology and tourism: E-helping small businesses with the tourism e-kit). They may also function as a lobby group to represent the interests of their constituents in relevant political or industry arenas.

technology and tourism

E-HELPING SMALL BUSINESSES WITH THE TOURISM E-KIT

Web Strategy – Assessment and Components

Very simple webpage no social media
- I don't have access to my website so cannot modify its content
- People can contact me via email but I can't tell if it is because they saw my website
- I have no idea if my website is really performing
- I feel that I am not computer savvy
- I am left in the dark with regards to how to tackle the online world
- I am not involved in social media

Basic website and social media
- I have access to my website's content management system and can modify my content
- Emails from the website are rare
- I am not quite sure if I show on search engine listings
- I have very limited knowledge of online marketing
- I have a personal Facebook profile but do not use Facebook for business
- I do not manage my reviews on TripAdvisor

Standard website and social media
- I add new content regularly and add pages using my content management system
- I can track who visits my site but need assistance to utilise this knowledge to improve my site
- I get regular enquiries/bookings from my site
- I understand basic search engine optimisation principles
- I have a Facebook page for the business but don't do much with it
- I encourage past guests to review us on TripAdvisor but do not generally respond

Manageable online strategy incl. web and social media
- I update my website regularly using a content management system
- I have a structured plan with goals and objectives to increase the conversions from my website
- My website is search engine optimised
- I show up on search engines for the keywords my target market uses
- A large proportion of my bookings come from my website
- I use my Facebook page to communicate with my fans and potential visitors
- I respond to online reviews on TripAdvisor

2.   What is the next stage I can reach?

Tick your current level in the first line of check boxes and aim to increase it by one within the next 12 months. When you read the other tutorials the abundance of information could be a little overwhelming. Come back to this tutorial and re-focus: you are only going to aim for the

Web Strategy – Assessment and Components

next level.

| Very simple webpage no social media | Basic website and social media | Standard website and social media | Manageable online strategy and social media | Expert |

Level my web strategy is currently at:

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Level I am planning to reach in the next 12 months:

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. Components of an online strategy

Now that you have assessed your current level, let's look further into the elements of a successful online strategy.

A web or online strategy is achieved by balancing three components, which will be further analysed in the paragraphs below:

Website & Content management system
- Graphic design of website
- Programming of website
- Copywriting
- Integration into a content management system
- Hosting
- Domain name

Search engine optimisation
- Initial keyword research and search engine optimisation of content
- Weekly development of new content
- Monthly assessment of search engine rankings

Online marketing and social media
- Email marketing
- Online reviews
- Photo and video sharing
- Facebook - Twitter
- Other online marketing

The Australian Tourism Data Warehouse (ATDW) was established in 2001 as a joint initiative of Tourism Australia and all Australian State and Territory Government tourism organisations to fill an identified need to market a comprehensive range of Australian tourism products. As a service to industry the ATDW developed the Tourism e-kit, a free online tool which helps business operators maximise their online marketing capabilities (ATDW 2012a). The e-kit is a self-paced adult learning tool which can be consumed online, in print, in video and through formal and informal

workshops held by qualified trainers. The product is divided into 64 tutorials across 9 subject areas, available as PDF files or as YouTube videos downloadable from the Tourism e-kit microsite (www.tourismekit.com.au).

Initial content is concerned with introductory topics such as an evaluation of the viewer's current website, formulating an overall web-based marketing strategy, considerations of cost and timing, finding good professional assistance, and best practice for effective use of email. Subsequent tutorials focus on developing an effective website and include topics such as registering a domain name, Web 2.0, visual design, content management and catering to smart phone users. Other tutorials focus on search engine optimisation, e-marketing, analysis and statistics of site use, online distribution options and online bookings (which has proven to be the most popular tutorial to date). One of the largest segments covers social media topics such as online tourism communities, Facebook, Twitter, online reputation management, TripAdvisor, YouTube, Flickr and blogging. The final five tutorials all deal with working digitally to access the China market, emphasising, for example, how Chinese search engines and social media usage differ from their Western counterparts. Tutorials average about 20 minutes each, with a total time of 15 hours, and no prior knowledge of or experience with online technology is required. These characteristics make the e-kit especially appropriate for small businesses that lack specialised expertise, available time or the financial resources to access this type of information elsewhere.

With the fast-changing digital environment, it is critical that the e-kit maintains its relevance and accuracy. This is achieved through 6-monthly updates by ATDW and expert contributors. Since its inception, the e-kit has grown and new topics have been added, based on regular industry consultation and feedback. As of 2013 the e-kit has been downloaded over 300 000 times, indicating effective exposure to the intended market. The e-kit was awarded first place at the 2011 and 2012 Queensland Tourism Awards in the Education and Training category (ATDW 2012b) and was also awarded Silver in the National Tourism Awards in 2012.

Information for tourists

This function is distinct from promotion in its emphasis on providing basic information to tourists who are already in the destination through tourist information centres at key destination sites and gateways. Related functions are usually informed by and directed towards the overriding strategic objectives of the DTO. In the case of Tourism Australia, a national DTO, the latter include:
- influencing tourists to travel to Australia to see sites as well as to attend events
- influencing visitors to travel as widely as possible throughout Australia
- influencing Australians to travel within Australia, including for events
- fostering sustainable tourism within Australia, and
- helping to realise economic benefits for Australia from tourism (Tourism Australia 2013a).

Such broad objectives are usually shared and/or developed in conjunction with the **destination tourism authority (DTA)**, which is the government agency (usually a department or office within a department, and sometimes the same agency as the DTO) that is responsible for broad tourism policy and planning.

National DTOs are normally mandated to promote the country as a whole, which can generate conflict with states or provinces that perceive an imbalance in coverage with respect to their own jurisdiction. For example, South Australia and Western

Australia might complain that Tourism Australia places too much emphasis on iconic attractions such as the Sydney Opera House, the Great Barrier Reef and Uluru, thereby reinforcing the tendency of inbound tourism to concentrate at these locations. While DTOs are sympathetic to such concerns and do try to integrate less frequented locations into their publicity and strategic planning (as per the mandate of Tourism Australia), the presentation of icons serves to reinforce distinctive and positive images that are pivotal for inducing potential tourists to favour Australia over its competitors. One way that DTOs can compromise between the more popular and less-known internal destinations is to portray generic lifestyles and landscapes that do not evoke specific places. Frequently, these images are varied to target particular markets identified by segmentation research. As of 2013, Tourism Australia focused on seven core 'experiences' that each apply to most states or territories. These were 'Aboriginal Australia', 'Nature in Australia', 'Aussie Coastal Lifestyle', 'Outback Australia', 'Food and Wine', 'Australian Major Cities', and 'Australian Journeys' (Tourism Australia 2013b).

STRATEGIC TOURISM MARKETING

Whether undertaken nationwide by a DTO and/or a DTA, or by a business just for itself, effective tourism marketing must take into account the basic mission statement of the organisation, and both the internal and external environment of the destination or company (see figure 7.5). The mission statement is usually some very basic directive that influences any further statement of objectives or goals. For example, a DTO's mission statement usually espouses a viable, sustainable and expanding tourism industry as a means of improving the national economy, and hence quality of life for citizens. A business, in contrast, may have a mission of offering the highest quality products within a particular sector.

SWOT analysis and objectives

SWOT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) is a popular and proven method for facilitating **strategic marketing** and management. The strengths and weaknesses component refers to the internal environment of the destination or business, while opportunities and threats are factors associated with the external environment. Internal and external factors, however, often overlap.

The external environment includes not only elements of the general environment (i.e. the external technological, political, social, cultural and physical environments of tourism systems, as discussed in chapters 2, 3 and 4), but also an analysis of competing destinations or businesses. Key questions when examining the external environment include the following:

• Who are our competitors? (For example, New Zealand is a competitor of Australia, but Queensland competes with New South Wales within Australia.)
• What strategies are being employed by our competitors?
• What are *their* strengths and weaknesses?
• Who are their customers, and why do they purchase their products?
• What are their resources?
• What kind of relationships do we maintain with these competitors?
• What nontourism external environments are affecting or are going to affect us? How much can we influence these environments?
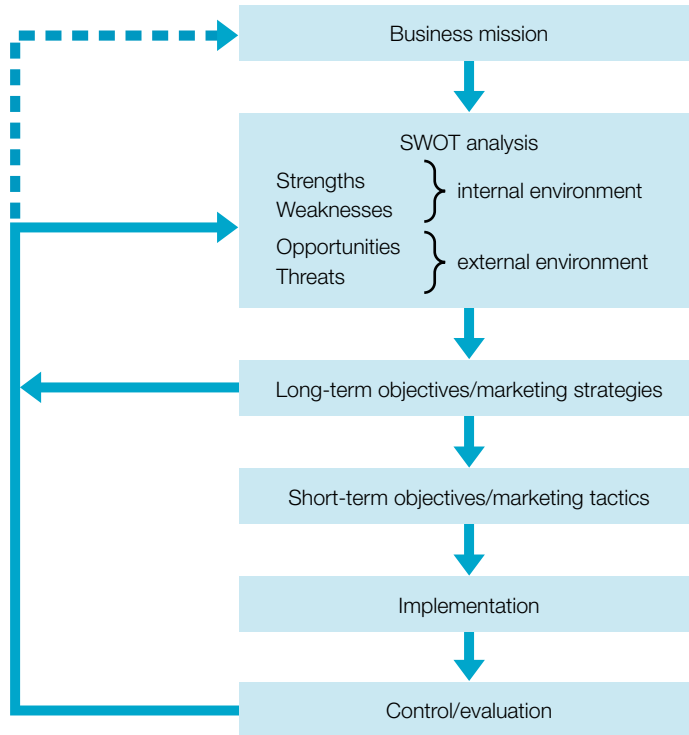
FIGURE 7.5 Strategic tourism marketing

Questions that are pertinent to the internal environment of the destination or company include the following:
• What is the current level of our visitation or patronage, and how does this compare with past trends?
• What products do we have available, currently and potentially?
• Who are our customers, and how are they segmented?
• What are the activities and behaviour of our customers?
• How satisfied are our customers with our available products?
• What are the reasons for these satisfaction levels?
• How effective are our current destination branding efforts?
• What are our available financial and human resources?

Objectives

A SWOT analysis assists in the identification of long-term objectives for the company or destination. Such horizons may extend to the next ten or 15 years, but are usually not less than five years. Given the complex and unpredictable nature of the factors that will influence tourism over that timeframe, it is not sensible to stipulate specific long-term objectives. Rather, the objectives should reflect characteristics that are likely to remain desirable in ten or 15 years whatever else transpires. Relevant long-term objectives for a destination might include:
• increase the average length of stay
• increase average visitor expenditures per day
• increase the proportion of inputs (e.g. food, labour) that are obtained from within the destination, in order to assist other local businesses

- achieve a more dispersed distribution of the tourism sector
- diversify the market base to reduce dependence on the primary markets
- ensure that tourism development occurs in an environmentally and socioculturally sustainable way.

Given a different set of priorities, the long-term objectives for a company are likely to be very different to those identified by destination managers — for example, to be the most highly capitalised company and to capture the largest share of consumer dollar in the sector.

Based on the broad and deliberately vague objectives and goals that are formulated for this extended timeframe, more specific short-term goals and marketing tactics should be established that have a horizon of six months to three years, depending on feasibility. Short-term goals that parallel the long-term objectives noted above might include:

- increase the average length of stay from 2 days to 3 days within the next two years
- increase average expenditures from $100 to $150 per day over the next two years
- initiate legislation within the next year that requires hotels to obtain at least one-half of their food inputs from local suppliers
- increase the promotional budget for regional tourism attractions by 10 per cent in the next financial year
- open three new tourist offices in large but nontraditional markets over the next three years
- limit the increase in annual arrivals to 5 per cent a year over the next two years.

Control/evaluation

These precise figures and target dates inform the implementation process, and allow for a performance evaluation — have they been achieved or not? The control/evaluation process provides feedback for further SWOT analyses, which reassess the internal and external environmental factors that have helped or hindered the attainment of the objectives. This in turn may lead to a reassessment of the long-term and short-term objectives, as well as associated marketing strategies and tactics. It is also useful to periodically evaluate the SWOT procedures themselves to ensure that the best methodologies are used to assess the best quality information.

Strategic marketing recognises that a tourist destination or company does not exist in a vacuum. Such entities are just one component in complex tourism systems that are in turn affected by myriad factors generated in environments that are external to those systems. It also recognises that the managers of successful destinations, however success is defined, must have a vision for the future, an awareness of the strategies that are required to achieve success and the will and means to carry out those strategies. Only with long-term thinking will destinations and businesses minimise negative impacts and attain a sustainable tourism sector (as discussed in the following four chapters).

■ MARKETING MIX

The critical components that determine the demand for a business or destination product are collectively known as the **marketing mix**. Several different marketing mix structures have been proposed, a popular one being the **8P model** (Morrison 2009), which includes the following:

- place
- people
- packaging
- promotion
- product
- price
- programming
- partnerships   → pull

All these components need to come together in a mutually reinforcing way to achieve maximum effectiveness. In many respects the marketing mix factors discussed below overlap with the pull factors that were considered in chapter 4 and — if successful — have the cumulative effect of 'pulling' tourists to the destination. One major difference is that the 8P model reconfigures those factors in a way that facilitates marketing and promotional efforts. That is, they are conceptualised as factors that can be marketed and managed to the greatest possible extent. In addition, the marketing mix is applicable to individual companies and products as well as destinations.

Place

As indicated in chapter 4, place is essential because tourists must travel to the destination in order to directly consume the tourist product. Relative location (proximity to actual and potential markets and competitors) is a critical element of place, as is coverage (the other places that are identified or not identified as target markets for marketing and promotional efforts). Australia, for example, maintains a highly visible presence in East Asia, New Zealand, western Europe and North America, but places a low priority on emerging markets in Africa, eastern Europe and Latin America. Accessibility represents the extent to which the markets and destinations are connected, and this too must be taken into account in marketing strategies. Essentially, these three elements encompass the three geographical elements of tourism systems, as discussed in chapter 2 — destination regions, origin regions and transit regions.

An increasingly important concept in the marketing mix is sense of place (see chapter 5), which brands the destination as a unique product offered nowhere else, thereby enhancing its competitive advantage by positioning it at the 'unique' pole of the scarcity continuum. This strategy, moreover, has important implications for a destination's environmental and sociocultural sustainability, because it counteracts the tendency towards uniformity and community alienation that characterises many destinations as they become more developed (see chapters 9 to 11) (Moskwa 2012). A desirable outcome from sense of place is place attachment, which is associated with high loyalty.

Product

The product component encompasses the range of available goods and services, their quality and warranty and aftersales service. 'Range' is a measure of diversification, and can be illustrated by a tour operator that offers a broad array of opportunities, as opposed to a niche operator. Similarly, a destination may provide a large number of diverse attractions, or just one specific attraction. The concepts of quality and warranty must be approached differently when comparing a destination with a specific operator. In the case of a specific operator, the manager of the business exercises considerable control in ensuring that the customer receives certain specific services in a satisfactory way, and that some kind of restitution is available if the customer is unsatisfied. In a destination, however, there is relatively little that the manager can do about litter-strewn streets, unfriendly residents and the persistence of rainy weather during a tourist's entire visit. This is because much of the 'product' consists of generic, public resources over which the tourism manager has minimal control and no scope or direct obligation to provide any warranties for unsatisfactory quality. Similarly, the notion of aftersales service is difficult to apply to tourism services or destinations, and is mainly restricted to determining tourists' post-trip attitudes about their tourism experience.

People

People enter the marketing mix equation in at least three ways:

- service personnel
- the tourists themselves
- local residents.

The service personnel issue was considered earlier under the topics of inseparability and variability, which demonstrated the critical role of highly trained employees and emotional labour at the consumer/product interface. The importance of fostering tourist sensitivity and awareness was also stressed, since inappropriate tourist behaviour can reduce the quality of the product for all participants. For many destinations, the local residents also fall into the category of product, since tourists may be attracted by the culture and hospitality of the resident population. Again, tourism managers can attempt to control public behaviour towards tourists through education programs, but there is very little that can be done in the way of quality control if some local residents maintain a hostile attitude, unless this is expressed in unlawful behaviour.

It has been argued that the treatment of residents as a mere element of 'product' that can be manipulated for the benefit of the tourism industry and tourists is an approach that breeds hostility and resentment within the local community. As a result, a community-based approach to tourism management and planning, which gives first priority to the needs and wants of residents and acknowledges their lead role as decision makers, has become more popular — however, it is also more difficult to implement than conventional models (Iorio & Wall 2012). High-level input from the community is, additionally, more conducive to the development and presentation of a product that effectively conveys the destination's sense of place.

Increasingly sophisticated computer software and data analysis techniques have greatly facilitated the incorporation of the 'people' component into the marketing mix by allowing a comprehensive array of behavioural and demographic tourist characteristics to be compiled and analysed. Such developments make possible the identification of the niche markets and markets of one described in the previous chapter, and also allow managers to identify and target market the type of consumer who is most likely to patronise their products. Loyalty schemes such as airline frequent flyer programs, promoted as a concession to loyal customers, greatly benefit their sponsors through the customer databases that they generate (Vogt 2011).

Price

Affordability is a critical pull factor in drawing tourists to particular destinations. Airlines, attractions and hotels commonly reduce their prices until a desirable level of occupancy is achieved (i.e. a strategy of increasing the demand), given the profit implications of empty seats or rooms for products that have high fixed costs (see figure 7.1). However, the relationship between reduced price and increased patronage is not entirely straightforward, as many consumers perceive price as an indicator of quality — if the price is too low, this might indicate a poor-quality product. For this reason, reduced price may dissuade wealthier travellers who can afford higher prices, and may convey a lasting image of poor quality. Permanent or temporary discounts, nevertheless, are often used to target specific groups who are sensitive to high prices, including older adults, families and students.

Given the importance of price in a high fixed cost environment, it is important for tourism managers to be aware of the pricing techniques that can be employed by businesses. The emphasis here is on companies, since the cost of a destination is mostly based on the cumulative pricing decisions of the businesses and operations, public and private, that function within that destination. Destination managers might possibly influence those prices through tax concessions, grants, regulations and other means, but cannot by themselves determine the pricing structure. The pricing techniques can be separated into four main and largely self-explanatory categories as follows.

Profit-oriented pricing

Pricing techniques that are oriented towards profit include typical approaches such as the maximisation of profits and the attainment of satisfactory profits (however these might be defined) and target return on investment. Such strategies do not place the priority on what the competition is doing.

Sales-oriented pricing

There are many varieties of pricing techniques that focus on consumer sales. These include basing the strategy on the prices that the market, or some target segment thereof, is willing to pay for a product, maximising the volume of sales, increasing market share through (for example) aggressive promotion and reduced prices, gaining market penetration through low initial entry prices, and maintaining high prices as a signal of outstanding quality (prestige pricing).

Competition-oriented pricing

The emphasis here is on competitor behaviour as the major criterion for setting prices. This reactive approach can involve the matching of a competitor's prices, or the maintenance of price differentials at a level above or below the competitor's prices, depending on the type of market that is being targeted.

Cost-oriented pricing

These strategies base pricing structures on the actual cost of providing the goods or services. First, costs are established, and then an appropriate profit margin is added. This margin can be either a fixed sum (e.g. $50 per ticket) or a relative amount (e.g. 10 per cent profit per ticket). It is a common practice in cost-oriented pricing to calculate break-even points — that is, combinations of price and occupancy where revenues and costs are equal (e.g. $100 per room at 84 per cent occupancy, or $120 per room at 70 per cent occupancy). Any incremental increase in occupancy above the break-even point represents a profit margin.

Packaging

Packaging refers to the deliberate grouping of two or more elements of the tourism experience into a single product. This is best illustrated in the private sector by the provision of set-price package tours that integrate transportation, accommodation, visits to attractions and other complementary tourism components (see chapter 5). For destinations, the packaging element can be more ambiguous and informal, involving attempts by NTOs or subnational tourism organisations to market the destination as an

integrated 'package' of attractions, activities, relevant services and other tourism-related opportunities. For Australia's Gold Coast, the 'Green Behind the Gold' campaign in the 1990s was an explicit attempt to package the rainforest experience with the beach experience.

According to Morrison (2009), packaging is popular because it provides greater convenience and economy for customers, allows them to budget more easily, and eliminates the time required to assemble the constituent items themselves. From an operator perspective, packages can stimulate demand in off-season periods (e.g. 'summer special packages'), attract new customers, encourage the establishment of partnerships with operators offering the complementary services, and make business planning easier (in part because packages are often paid for well in advance of the experience). Interestingly, the package tour became a symbol of standardised mass tourism in the modern tourism era, although it is now increasingly approached as a 'boutique' service in which unique packages are assembled for individuals according to their specific wants and needs.

Programming

Programming is closely related to packaging in that it involves the addition of special events, activities or programs to a product to make it more diverse and appealing (Morrison 2009). Examples include the inclusion of scuba diving lessons or academic lectures on a cruise, 'chance' encounters with historical impersonators at a heritage theme park, broadcasting live rugby matches at a sports bar and the periodic announcement of prizewinners at a convention. For the theme park or sports bar (or, potentially, the destination), such program add-ons allow the operator to alter their product package frequently and inexpensively without having to undertake risky and costly actions such as introducing new rides or menus. Moreover, the programs could be altered to draw specific market segments (e.g. broadcasting women's hockey to attract young adult females). An unusual application of programming is found at Heart Attack Grill, a chain of restaurants in the United States which unapologetically offers extremely high calorie and unhealthy food (e.g. the Triple Bypass Burger) (see figure 7.6). Customers are required to wear hospital gowns and have their temperature and blood

FIGURE 7.6 The Heart Attack Grill

pressure periodically taken by waitresses dressed as nurses. Customers who manage to eat the Triple or Quadruple Bypass Burger are escorted out to their car in a wheelchair by their 'personal nurse'.

Promotion

As indicated earlier, many people see promotion as being synonymous with marketing. Promotion attempts to increase demand by conveying a positive image of the product to potential customers through appeals to the perceived demands, needs, tastes, values and attitudes of the market or a particular target market segment.

Promotion consists of:

- presentation
- personal selling
- sales promotion
- publicity
- merchandising
- advertising.

Presentation can include the provision of uniformed and well-groomed staff and an attractive physical environment, which give potential customers a favourable impression of the company. Personal selling entails a direct approach to a particular client, usually a large corporation whose potential patronage justifies the added costs of this individual approach. Sales promotions are short-term strategies that promote a product through temporary discounts (e.g. special discount of 80 per cent off a product for one day only in order to increase exposure to consumers).

Publicity

Publicity can occur through press releases and is one of the least expensive means of promotion, and one that can be readily used by destination managers. Even better is coverage by way of a *National Geographic* magazine article or television special accessed by millions of consumers. However, there is a higher risk in such unsolicited media coverage that the publicity, and resulting product image, will be negative. One example is the negative national media coverage that attends the annual Schoolies Week event on the Gold Coast, which forces the destination managers to engage in damage control by releasing its own counterbalancing publicity.

Merchandising

Merchandising can be used very effectively as a promotional tool when it involves the sale of products, at on-site gift shops or online, that are readily associated with a particular company or destination (Schauder 2012). This might involve items of clothing on which a resort or tour operator's logo is prominently displayed, or custom furnishings used in a hotel room. There are several advantages associated with well-formulated merchandising strategies.

- First, unlike other forms of promotion, merchandising also generates direct income, and all the more so since logo products often sell at a premium.
- Second, since such products are usually purchased as souvenirs, they tend to be prominently displayed as status symbols back in the origin region, thereby maximising exposure to potential customers.
- Third, it is commonly the more frequently worn items of clothing, such as baseball caps and T-shirts, that are merchandised, and therefore the purchasers of these products are likely to spend more time acting as walking billboards for the company or destination.

Hard Rock Café illustrates the effective application of merchandising to the tourism sector. More of the company's revenue is generated from the sale of Hard Rock Café-branded merchandise than from food and beverages. The range of available items has expanded from simple but enormously popular T-shirts to lapel pins, teddy bears and beer glasses. Because of their desirability as collectables, many consumers purchase two items — one for display as a status symbol (e.g. a T-shirt or key chain) and one preserved in mint condition for its future resale value. More ingeniously, names of individual locations (e.g. Surfers Paradise, Las Vegas) are included on certain items of merchandise, making each one a discrete collectable, prompting dedicated collectors to obtain specimens from every Hard Rock Café worldwide.

Advertising

Advertising is the most common form of promotion, and constitutes a major topic of investigation and management in its own right. An important distinction in advertising can be made between a 'shotgun approach' and a 'rifle approach'. In **shotgun marketing**, an advertisement is placed in a mainstream media source that is accessed by a broad cross-section of the tourist market. As with a shotgun, much of the delivery will miss the target audience altogether (unless the market is an inclusive one, as in the case of a Disney theme park), but the high level of saturation will ensure that the target audience will also be reached. For example, an advertisement for a backpacker hotel in *Time* magazine will be ignored by most readers, but will almost certainly reach a large number of backpackers who read this magazine. Shotgun marketing also attracts new recruits to the product, that is, non-backpackers whose interest is aroused by a compelling advertisement. The high costs associated with the mainstream media, however, are a major drawback to this approach, as is the steady loss of customers to more specialised online media.

In contrast, **rifle marketing** occurs when the advertisement is directed specifically to the target market, like a single bullet fired from a rifle. This would occur if the aforementioned hotel advertisement were placed in a backpackers' magazine or posted on the online forum of a specialty organisation or online community. Its major disadvantages are the lack of product exposure to the broader tourist market and competition with the advertisers of similar products. Beyond the shotgun/rifle dichotomy, a major decision in advertising and public relations dissemination is the selection of a media type that will best convey the desired message to the target market. Major media outlets will now be discussed, (with the exception of travel guides, which were discussed in chapter 5 as a form of merchandise).

Internet and social media

The internet and social media are rapidly overtaking traditional media outlets such as television and hard copy newspapers in magnitude, although this is difficult to quantify because of their diffuse nature. The creative use of the internet as a promotional tool and distribution channel is illustrated by the rapid development of **webcasting** technologies, which deliver interactive multimedia (video and audio) in real time. Configured effectively, webcasting can help to overcome the intangibility dilemma discussed earlier. Other internet platforms that are being increasingly implicated in formal and informal marketing of tourism products and destinations include Facebook, Twitter, wikis and microblogs. Given the rapid development of such technological innovations, it is not surprising that the internet continues to grow in popularity as a means of accessing information about potential destinations and other tourism-related goods and services.

An extremely important characteristic of the internet is its democratising effects. That is, almost anyone can develop and update a website due to their low cost and technical simplicity, which means that even the smallest operator or destination can obtain the same potential exposure as any large corporation. Similarly, internet features such as blogs and chat rooms allow almost anyone to expose their opinions to a potentially large audience. In both senses, the internet is therefore instrumental in levelling the promotional 'playing field' through electronic word-of-mouth communication, or **eWOM** (Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan 2008). One practical implication is that consumer reviews on many products can influence their pricing (see Contemporary issue: Good reviews = higher prices).

contemporary issue

GOOD REVIEWS = HIGHER PRICES

The magnitude of social media's influence on travel-related decisions is well established; for example, online reviews from reputable websites such as TripAdvisor attract more user trust in regard to hotels than advice from travel agents (Gill 2010). Consumers value such reviews because they are up-to-date and express the opinions of actual product users who do not have a vested interest in making a sale (Ong 2012). Until recently, however, the effect that online reviews have on the prices operators charge for the reviewed services was unclear. The Centre for Hospitality Research at Cornell University investigated this issue by examining data provided by ReviewPro, STR, Travelocity, and TripAdvisor to calculate the return on investment (ROI) from social media reviews of hotels in selected US and European cities (Anderson, Chris 2012). The first finding was that the proportion of consumers who consult TripAdvisor reviews before booking a room is steadily increasing along with the number of reviews that are read. Second, transactional information from Travelocity revealed that a one-point rating improvement on a five-point scale (for example, from 3.9 to 4.9) translates into an ability to raise the room cost by 11.2 per cent without suffering any decline in occupancy rate. Finally, the data from ReviewPro and STR demonstrated that a one per cent increase in a hotel's online reputation score translates into a 0.89 per cent increase in price, an occupancy increase of 0.54 per cent and a 1.42 per cent increase in revenue per available room. Notably, it wasn't just online sales that improved, but also reservations made over the phone, lucrative group bookings and corporate negotiated rates. Despite such evidence, many operators do not have clear strategies for influencing or responding to online review information, including whether the hotel should itself maintain a customer review section and/or links to third party travel sites such as TripAdvisor (Ong 2012).

Television

The attraction of television as a media outlet is based in part on its ubiquity and frequency of consumer use, even within less affluent societies. Moreover, television is more effective than any other contemporary mainstream media in conveying an animated, realistic image of a product. To be cost-effective (since television advertising time is relatively expensive), television-oriented advertisements must capture the viewer's attention quickly (else the viewer may leave to visit the kitchen or toilet) and convey the message within a short period of time (e.g. 30 seconds). Also, they should be timed to optimise exposure to the target audience. For example, it is a wasted effort to target young children during the late evening hours. Similarly, it is critical to match the product with the program. Highly educated viewers, for example, are more likely to watch news programs or documentaries. A major trend is the expansion of television from a small number of standard networks to a large number of specialised networks accessed through cable or satellite. One implication is television's increasing transformation from a shotgun marketing to a target marketing medium.

Radio

As a mass media outlet, radio has long been overtaken by television, but it is still important in Phase Two and Three societies as a promotional device. In Phase Four societies radio remains important as a source of information during work time, either through advertisements or through the pronunciations of popular talk show hosts. From 9 am to 5 pm radio may reach as many potential customers as television. Although less expensive than television, a major disadvantage of radio is the inability to convey visual information. Effective auditory stimuli, however, can evoke desirable and attractive mental images.

Newspapers and magazines

Newspapers and magazines have the advantage of containing messages that can be accessed at any time, and may persist for many years in the form of accumulated or circulating copies. However, this also means that the advertisement becomes obsolete as prices increase and the product is modified. In addition, the images are static and the quality of reproduction can be quite crude in newspapers, even when colour is used. Print media also assumes a literate market, which is a serious impediment in Phase Two and some Phase Three societies. An added complication in highly literate countries is the abundance of newspaper and magazine options, which requires marketers to conduct extensive research in order to identify the most effective target outlets. During 2012, Australians purchased 161 million magazines with a retail value of $843 million, a growing proportion of which is being delivered digitally (Magazine Publishers of Australia 2013).

Brochures

Tourism brochures are perhaps the most utilised form of promotion across the tourism industry and within destinations, and are an important and high-credibility means through which package tours and products within particular destinations are selected (Molina & Esteban 2006). A characteristic that distinguishes brochures from television or other printed media is their specialised nature — they are not provided as an appendage to a newspaper article or a television program, but concentrate 100 per cent on the promotional effort. Brochures are usually printed in bulk quantities, and made available for distribution through travel agencies, tourism information centres, hotels, attractions and other strategic locations, as well as by mail. Brochures can range in complexity from a simple black-and-white leaflet to a glossy booklet, such as those commonly available from large tour operators. Brochures are often retained as trip souvenirs, especially if acquired in the visited destination.

A way of making brochures more attractive and of minimising their disposal is to include practical information (e.g. safety suggestions, directions) and discount coupons or to treat the brochure itself as a means of gaining discounted entry at qualifying attractions. Nevertheless, research among Swiss consumers indicates that they are preferred by older and less educated consumers rather than the more educated potential visitors sought by many destinations (Laesser 2007).

Partnerships

As illustrated by the formation of airline alliances (e.g. Star Alliance and oneworld) and credit cards that feature a particular business or organisation (e.g. the Marriott Rewards VISA card), mutual benefits can result when similar or dissimilar but complementary businesses embark in cooperative product development and marketing on a

temporary or longer-term basis (Zach 2012). These include exposure to new markets, expanded product packages, greater ability to serve customer needs, more efficient use of resources through sharing, image improvement through association with well-regarded brands and access to partners' databases and expertise (Morrison 2009).

Partnerships are especially important for small operations that lack the economies of scale to engage in these efforts efficiently and effectively on their own. For example, 'farm stays' in certain countries, such as Austria, have formed consortiums of ten or more operators who all benefit from the collective pooling of resources. Another illustration at the multilateral scale is the Mekong Tourism initiative pursued by countries in South-East Asia. Partnerships can also be created between suppliers of products and their customers, as demonstrated by repeat-user programs.

CHAPTER REVIEW

Marketing involves communication and other interactions among the producers and consumers of tourism experiences. The marketing of a service such as tourism differs from goods because of the intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability of the former. These qualities present challenges to managers and marketers in their attempt to match the supply of tourism products with market demand. For example, intangibility means that the consumer cannot directly experience the product before its consumption, while inseparability implies that production and consumption occur simultaneously, thus limiting the scope for employing quality control mechanisms. Because profit margins in the tourism sector are narrowed by high fixed costs, and because demand varies considerably over a daily, weekly, seasonal and long-term time-frame, managers must be aware of the strategies that can be implemented to foster equilibrium between demand and supply. Depending on the circumstances, these involve the reduction, increase or redistribution of supply or demand.

Conventional macro-economic theory suggests that equilibrium between supply and demand will eventually be achieved, but market failure (i.e. the failure to attain this balance) often occurs in the marketing of 'public goods' such as an entire tourist destination. To compensate for market failure, destination tourism organisations (DTOs) are established (usually by government) to market and promote specific regions, countries, states or municipalities. Whether undertaken by these public authorities or private companies, strategic marketing procedures should be practised in order to achieve optimum outcomes. This includes the use of a SWOT analysis to inform long- and short-term objectives. In strategic marketing, demand can be gauged and manipulated through the use of marketing mix frameworks such as the product-focused 8P model, which takes into account place, product, people, price, packaging, programming, promotion and partnerships.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

8P model a product-focused marketing mix model that incorporates place, product, people, price, packaging, programming, promotion and partnerships

Demarketing the process of discouraging all or certain tourists from visiting a particular destination temporarily or permanently

Destination branding the process of fostering a distinctive and integrated image about a destination that represents that destination to one or more target markets; usually undertaken by a destination tourism organisation

Destination tourism authority (DTA) the government agency responsible for broad tourism policy and planning within a destination entity

Destination tourism organisations (DTOs) publicly funded government agencies that undertake promotion and other forms of marketing; these are distinct from the government departments or bodies, or government tourism authorities, that dictate tourism-related policy

Emotional labour a characteristic of services marketing, involving the expression of the willingness to be of service to customers, as through demonstrations of assurance, responsiveness and empathy

e-WOM electronic word-of-mouth communication disseminated through blogs and other forms of social media

Film-induced tourism the tourism activity that results from the publicity generated by a particular movie, benefiting mainly the settings where the movie is filmed

Fixed costs costs that the operation has little flexibility to change over the short term, such as interest costs on borrowed funds and basic facility maintenance costs

Inseparability a characteristic of services marketing, where production and consumption of tourist services occur at the same time and place and are thus inseparable

Intangibility a characteristic of services marketing, where the actual tourism service cannot be seen, touched or tried before its purchase and consumption

Market failure the failure of market forces to produce a longer-term equilibrium in supply and demand, such as when individual businesses in the tourism industry are unwilling to provide the funds for destination promotion (to increase demand) because such investment will provide benefits to their competitors as well as to themselves

Marketing the interactions and interrelationships that occur among consumers and producers of goods and services, through which ideas, products, services and values are created and exchanged for the mutual benefit of both groups

Marketing mix the critical components that determine the demand for a business or destination product

Perishability a services marketing characteristic; because production and consumption are simultaneous, services cannot be produced and stored in advance for future consumption (e.g. empty aircraft seats are a permanent loss that cannot be recouped)

Rifle marketing a mode of promotional advertising that is aimed just at the target market

Roots tourism when persons of a particular ethnic group travel to their ancestral ethnic homeland as cultural or heritage tourists; also called 'genealogy tourism'

Services marketing the marketing of services such as those associated with the tourism industry, as opposed to the marketing of the goods industry

Shotgun marketing a mode of promotional advertising where the message is disseminated to a broad audience on the assumption that this saturation will reach target markets and perhaps attract new recruits

Strategic marketing marketing that takes into consideration an extensive analysis of external and internal environmental factors in identifying strategies that attain specific goals

SWOT analysis an analysis of a company or destination's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats that emerges from an examination of its internal and external environment

Variability a services marketing characteristic, where service encounters, even if they involve a similar kind of experience, are highly variable due to the differences and rapid changes in mood, expectation and other human element factors that affect the participants

Variable costs costs that can be readily reduced in the short term, such as salaries of casual staff

Webcasting the delivery of interactive multimedia to customers through the internet on either an 'on demand' or 'real-time' basis

■ QUESTIONS

1 In what ways does marketing go beyond the simple presentation of advertisements through various forms of media?

2 (a) Why is 'emotional labour' especially important in the tourism industry?
   (b) What negative types of emotional labour should be avoided by frontline
       employees? Why?
3 What different marketing strategies could be used to respectively target the
   'three-day' and 'four-day' hotel guest markets?
4 Bures and eco tents are temporary accommodation types that help to address
   a hotel's problem of high fixed costs. What are the potential disadvantages
   associated with their use?
5 (a) What are the risks of using general or selective demarketing as a tactic for
       reducing the demand for a particular destination?
   (b) How can these risks be minimised?
6 How should DTOs determine how they proportionally promote locations and
   products within their jurisdiction?
7 How could a manager prioritise the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and
   threats in a SWOT analysis in terms of devising management and marketing
   strategies?
8 For tourism businesses, what are the opportunities and threats associated with
   eWOM?
9 What are the relative strengths and weaknesses associated with television and the
   internet (including social media) as product promotion channels?

■ EXERCISES

1 Write a 1000-word report for a destination of your choice in which you describe
   how each of the eight stakeholder groups in the tourism stakeholder system
   (figure 1.1) can be constructively involved in the marketing of that destination to
   potential visitors.
2 (a) Conduct a SWOT analysis of a particular destination. Each of the four
       destinations should be located adjacent to one another either at the
       international scale (e.g. Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand) or
       at the subnational scale (e.g. Gold Coast, Brisbane, Sunshine Coast and
       Hervey Bay).
   (b) Show how the other three destinations fit into the SWOT analysis of each
       destination.
   (c) Indicate ways in which the competition-related threats of these other
       destinations can be converted into opportunities.

■ FURTHER READING

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Workers in the Tourism and Hospitality Industries for the Performance of
Emotional Labour'.** *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management* **10: 1–12.**
The authors present the concept of emotional labour as a way of compensating for
the problem of inseparability in the hospitality industry.

**Kim, T-G., Yoo, J., Lee, G-H & Kim, J-M. 2012. 'Emotional Intelligence and
Emotional Labor Acting Strategies Among Frontline Hotel Employees'.**
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management **24: 1029–46.**
This Korean study considers the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour
strategies in the hotel industry. Emotional intelligence, emotional exhaustion and
service recovery performance are some of the key concepts discussed.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. & Makens, J. 2013. *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism.* **Sixth Edition. USA: Pearson.** This is an adaptation of Kotler's classic marketing text for the hospitality and tourism sector. It provides a systematic overview of the issues involved in marketing, although the tourism component is not featured as prominently as the hospitality component.

Morrison, A. 2009. *Hospitality and Travel Marketing.* **Fourth Edition. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers.** This is a key textbook in the area of tourism marketing, and one of the few that emphasises a tourism rather than a hospitality perspective. It makes extensive use of systems theory.

Pike, S. 2004. *Destination Marketing Organisations.* **Oxford: Elsevier.** Written by a former destination marketer, this text bridges industry and theory by synthesising a wealth of academic literature of practical value to destination-marketing organisations.

Tasci, A. 2011. 'Destination Branding and Positioning'. In Wang, Y. & Pizam, A. (Eds). *Destination Marketing and Management: Theories and Applications.* **Wallingford: CABI, pp. 113–29.** Destination branding is contextualised within the broader marketing framework, and relevant concepts are discussed including management of the brand, stakeholder roles, positioning, monitoring and promotion.

case study

MIDDLE-EARTH AND NEW ZEALAND — AN ENDURING FELLOWSHIP

Enduring and endearing memories associated with popular films and TV programs have spawned major **film-induced tourism** destinations in places where such mass media productions are filmed (Beeton 2005). New Zealand offers one of the best examples of a destination that has successfully capitalised on this phenomenon in its tourism marketing and product development. Of particular importance is Peter Jackson's Academy Award–winning *Lord of the Rings* (LOTR) trilogy, which was filmed from the late 1990s to the early 2000s, and the *Hobbit* prequel trilogy which was filmed between 2010 and 2013. Both trilogies are based on the fictional setting of Middle-earth created by 'high fantasy' author J.R.R. Tolkien. In 2004, following the release of the final film in the LOTR trilogy, 6 per cent of all visitors to New Zealand cited LOTR as one of the main reasons for visiting the country (Tourism New Zealand 2012a). Moreover, 1 per cent said it was the *main* reason, and the expenditure of this dedicated segment alone was estimated at NZ$33 million (Tourism New Zealand 2012a). Overall, inbound tourism increased from 1.7 million in 2000 to 2.4 million in 2006, which might be reasonably attributed to global interest in the LOTR trilogy and awareness of its connection to New Zealand, though no studies have been conducted to confirm and quantify such a link. By one estimate, LOTR injected

A tourist enjoying the Hobbiton filming site near Matamata, New Zealand

NZ$700 million into the NZ economy in 2004 through direct and indirect (or flow-on) effects (Anderson, Chris 2012). It is also estimated that an average of 47 000 people per year since 2004 have visited one or more of the LOTR filming locations scattered throughout the country (Tourism New Zealand 2012a). The film set site of Hobbiton, the main settlement of the Shire (a region of Middle-earth), has received more than 300 000 visitors since its 2002 opening to the public, and expected 100 000 additional visitors in 2013 in conjunction with the release of the first film of the *Hobbit* trilogy. (New Zealand Tourism 2013).

Since the early 2000s, New Zealand's tourism marketing agencies have actively incorporated LOTR and *Hobbit* themes into their international tourism promotions. Notable among the related initiatives has been Air New Zealand's 'Airline to Middle-earth' campaign (Buchmann, Moore & Fisher 2010). More predictably, a '100% Middle-earth, 100% New Zealand' campaign was introduced in 2012 as the latest instalment of the ongoing and hugely successful '100% Pure New Zealand' initiative. To greet any international visitors still unaware of the Middle-earth–New Zealand connection (research confirms that the majority *are* aware of this connection (New Zealand Tourism 2012a)), a 23-metre lenticular display was erected at Auckland International Airport that blended LOTR fantasy scenes with real-life contemporary photos of tourism experiences (Tourism New Zealand 2012b). Several high-level political interventions affirm the importance attached in New Zealand to the two Middle-earth trilogies. For example, the launch of the '100% Middle-earth' campaign in Japan in mid 2012 was personally attended by the Prime Minister, who also personally intervened during a labour dispute to ensure that filming of the *Hobbit* trilogy prequel would remain in New Zealand. This was after economists from New Zealand's largest bank estimated that the new trilogy could produce flow-on effects of as much as NZ$1.5 billion for the country (Kodoom 2010).

Whether recognition of consumer psychology plays an active role in the marketing of New Zealand as a Middle-earth destination is an intriguing question. Peaslee (2011: 45) argues that marketers have consciously emphasised a 'parallel between the intrepid Hobbits and those who would make the physically and economically arduous flight Down Under to "discover" Middle-earth', capitalising on and affirming New Zealand's longstanding status as an alluring and exotic destination. This is especially evident in the parallel promotional imagery in Auckland airport and elsewhere. Research conducted among visitors to Hobbiton provides additional clues. Unsolicited visits began to occur following the conclusion of LOTR trilogy filming in 2001, and sustained interest led to additional product development and marketing. Interviewed visitors appear to regard their visit as a highly meaningful and memorable experience, expressing profound feelings of delight, awe, and timelessness. Peaslee (2011) describes how visitors cross successive thresholds that evoke increasingly close contact with the enduring myths of Middle-earth. For example, the initial arrival in New Zealand represents the arrival in faraway Middle-earth (amplified by the lenticular display at the airport). After driving through the scenic landscape of the 'Shire', the arrival at the visitor centre generates excitement over the imminent prospect of entering the heart of the main Hobbit settlement. The culminating experience is a visit to Bag End, the home of Bilbo Baggins, which Peaslee describes as the 'final point of supreme experiential satisfaction'. All the original 'Hobbit holes' of the film set are open to visitors.

It may be that many of the visitors to Hobbiton and other LOTR/*Hobbit* sites are devoted Tolkien fans and therefore self-selected in their enthusiasm to the point where their visits take on the characteristics of a spiritual pilgrimage (Buchmann, Moore & Fisher 2010). However, broader segments of the market also praise the perceived authenticity of such sites, indicating a merging of the Middle-earth and New Zealand identities. Feelings of authenticity may appear perverse, considering that they are applied to the movie sets of a fictitious work of literature. However, they may really derive from the authentic *feelings* of loyalty, sacrifice, and nobility conveyed by those fake settings and longed for by those who despair of the cynicism and shallowness of modern society. Buchmann, Moore and Fisher (2010) summarise this as a contemporary longing for 'immersive myths' that serve as an antidote to modernity. Similar dynamics have been detected among visitors to sites associated with the fantasy-drama film *Field of Dreams* in the United States' Midwest, which also evoke feelings of idealism, nostalgia and lost innocence (Aden, Rahoi & Beck 1995). For an increasing number of places, attracting such iconic films, and then exploiting their enduring popularity, is an important part of the long-term destination planning strategy.

QUESTIONS

1 View the '100% Middle-earth, 100% New Zealand' online advertisements (e.g. via YouTube) and describe how they could be amended to attract potential visitors from China.

2 (a) Design a one-week Middle-earth–focused New Zealand itinerary that appeals to the 'interested' (rather than the 'disinterested' or 'devoted') Tolkien fan.
   (b) Explain how this itinerary takes into consideration the 8P model.
   (c) Describe a strategy for promoting this itinerary through social media.

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8

Economic impacts of tourism

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 name the top destination countries in terms of tourism revenue earnings, compare these with the top stayover-receiving countries, and explain any discrepancies

2 outline the main positive and negative economic impacts of tourism and describe how each negative impact acts as a counterpoint to one or more of the positive impacts

3 explain the concept of the tourism multiplier effect and describe the circumstances under which a high or low multiplier effect is likely to occur

4 describe how tourism can function as a propulsive activity within a growth pole strategy

5 differentiate between the informal and formal sectors and describe the positive and negative implications of each for destination management

6 identify the circumstances under which a destination is more likely to experience negative rather than positive economic impacts from tourism

7 discuss the negative consequences of revenue leakages for a destination and explain where and why they occur

8 explain the fluctuating patterns of demand that characterise tourism and the economic implications of these fluctuations for destinations

9 indicate the circumstances under which tourism can move from a competitive relationship with agriculture to a complementary one

10 discuss employment-related problems that are associated with tourism.

■ INTRODUCTION

Marketing, as discussed in chapter 7, is a pervasive process which includes attempts to attract and retain a customer base for individual tourism-related businesses or entire destinations. Once the customer–product link is established, however, a range of potential positive and negative impacts is possible and these must be taken into account in the strategic management and planning undertaken by destination managers. It is common in the tourism literature to distinguish between economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts. This tendency to use discrete categories, however, should not distract from the fact that impacts are often closely interrelated. For example, negative social reactions to tourism could result from residents' perceptions of accompanying economic and environmental costs. The placement of economic impacts as the first topic of discussion in this chapter does not imply that these are inherently any more important than the sociocultural or environmental dimension. Rather, this reflects the primary importance that destination managers and politicians have tended to place on economic benefits as a primary rationale for pursuing tourism. The structure of this chapter is straightforward, with the following section examining the potential economic benefits of tourism and the final one considering the potential economic costs.

■ ECONOMIC BENEFITS

When tourism emerged as a significant economic sector in the decades after 1950, most researchers and government administrators assumed its growth to be an inherently positive and desirable process. Conspicuous by its absence through the 1950s and 1960s was any concerted critique of tourism, prompting the description of this period as the era of the advocacy platform (see chapter 1). It is essentially this perspective that is conveyed in the following discussion of economic benefits.

Direct revenue

The prospect of substantial tourism-derived **direct revenue** has long been the most compelling incentive for destinations to attract and support tourism activity. Fuelling this incentive are the global tourism revenue figures reported since 1950. **International tourism receipts** are defined by the UNWTO (2013) as encompassing all consumption expenditure, or payments for goods and services, made for (or during) trips by international tourists (stayovers and excursionists) for their own use or to give away. Due largely to inflationary effects, these receipts have increased at a substantially higher rate than the actual global intake of international stayovers, and exceeded one trillion US dollars in 2012 (see table 3.1). In 2010, the top 20 revenue-generating countries each gained at least US$12 billion in receipts from international tourism (see table 8.1).

TABLE 8.1 World's top 20 tourism earners, 2007 and 2010

Rank			Tourism receipts (US$ billion)		% share of receipts worldwide	
2007	2010	Country	2007	2010	2007	2010
1	1	United States	96.7	103.5	11.3	10.6
2	2	Spain	57.8	52.5	6.8	5.4
3	3	France	54.2	46.3	6.3	4.7
5	4	China	41.9	45.8	4.9	4.7
4	5	Italy	42.7	38.8	5.0	4.0
7	6	Germany	36.0	34.7	4.2	3.5
6	7	United Kingdom	37.6	30.4	4.4	3.1
8	8	Australia	22.2	30.1	2.6	3.1
15	9	Hong Kong	13.8	23.0	1.6	2.3
10	10	Turkey	18.5	20.8	2.2	2.1
11	11	Thailand	15.6	19.8	1.8	2.0
9	12	Austria	18.9	18.7	2.2	1.9
14	13	Malaysia	14.0	17.8	1.6	1.8
13	14	Canada	15.5	15.8	1.8	1.6
19	15	Switzerland	11.8	14.8	1.4	1.5
20	16	India	10.7	14.2	1.3	1.4
29	17	Singapore	8.7	14.1	1.0	1.4
26	18	Japan	9.3	13.2	1.1	1.3
16	19	Netherlands	13.4	13.1	1.6	1.3
12	20	Greece	15.5	12.7	1.8	1.3

Source: UNWTO (2008, 2011a)

These figures do not reflect all expenses that are incurred by tourists, but only those that accrue to the destination itself. The first component of these accruing expenditures involves those paid in advance in the origin region, as through a package tour arrangement with an Australian tour operator, while the other component involves money spent in the actual destination. The latter is usually characterised by a diverse array of expenditure categories. In the Australian inbound context, food, drink, accommodation, transport and shopping are revealed as major areas of expenditure (see figure 8.1). These proportions are usually calculated based on exit surveys subject to a high margin of error; however, emerging technologies have the potential to reduce this error through more accurate expenditure monitoring of an increasing array of goods (see Technology and tourism: Brave New World of RFID). Education fees are also extremely important with regard to average expenditures, but skew the overall pattern because they pertain only to the relatively small cohort of inbound tourists who are international students.

Entertainment Other

Organised
tours

Shopping
(used in
Australia only)

Shopping
(to take
home only)

$1496
45%

Food, drink and
accommodation

$133
4%

$86
3%

$102
3%

$163
5%

$276
8%

$504
15%

$581
17%

Transport
(in Australia
only)

Education fees
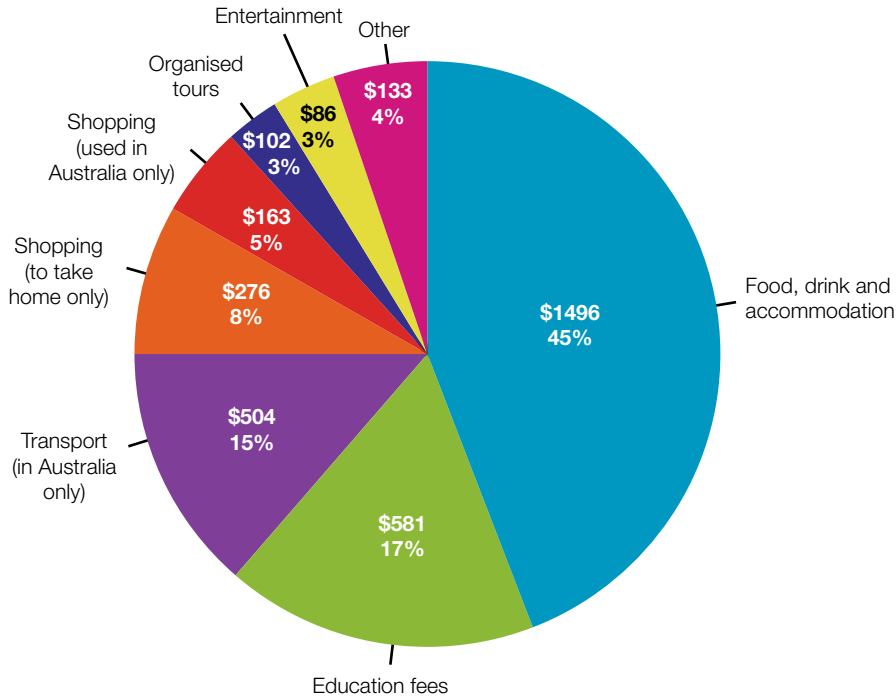
FIGURE 8.1 Average expenditure for all visitors to Australia by expenditure category, year ending September 2012

Source: TRA 2012

technology and tourism

BRAVE NEW WORLD OF RFID

RFID (Radio Frequency IDentification) is a technology that involves devices attached to or embedded within an object or person to facilitate tracking and monitoring. Such devices have existed since the 1960s, but in the 2000s they became sufficiently inexpensive and sophisticated to warrant large-scale application. Common uses of this technology include inventory and supply chain management, and placement in animals to locate lost pets or stolen livestock. In tourism, RFID has the potential to greatly improve calculations of economic impact by its capacity to track all movements and expenditures of enabled tourists within a designated area (e.g. a hotel or a municipality). Information that can be collected includes the description of the good or service, its price, location and time of purchase. Cumulatively, this would yield extremely accurate information that would help to justify further tourism investments and identify 'hotspots' of direct economic impact. Also, demographic and other information about the purchaser can be correlated with purchasing information to facilitate market segmentation and target marketing. Other tourism-related applications include control of tourist access to areas (e.g. via wristbands

worn by passengers on cruise ships), service customisation through database marketing, and devices that give users information about nearby attractions and services (Öztayşi, Baysan & Akpinar 2009). Currently, RFID has not yet been widely adopted in the tourism sector. However, as such applications expand, concerns are being raised. For some, greater convenience and more accurate accounting are offset by the invasion of privacy. To what extent do companies and governments have the right to monitor the behaviour of people and collect personal data without their knowledge or permission? The Orwellian scenario sees RFID embedded in all people so that the Big Brother state can monitor and control all activity — creating the ultimate surveillance system. This perhaps is not a far-fetched possibility, given widespread fears of terrorism and crime, and the subsequent willingness of many people to sacrifice much of their personal freedom to feel more secure.

Taxation revenue

Subsumed under the umbrella of tourism receipts are government levies such as the Australian passenger movement charge (PMC) — a departure tax that comprises a $55 fee (as of 2013) paid by all departing inbound visitors and outbound Australians. Governments regard taxes as an attractive form of revenue generation, and one that costs little to collect. Taxes are often hidden as part of a package tour arrangement, as part of an airline ticket price (in the case of the PMC) or within the overall cost of a good or service, so that the consumer is unaware of their existence. In addition, taxes can be increased substantially without bringing about a significant negative response from the tourist market. This is because taxes usually comprise only a very small portion of the overall trip expenditure. For example, a 100 per cent increase in a $10 departure tax will not add significant costs to a $3000 trip. Governments, on the other hand, stand to gain a substantial increase in revenue from the cumulative intake of such a doubled levy (e.g. 500 000 inbound tourists paying a departure tax of $20 each instead of $10 equates to added revenue of $5 million). Nevertheless, the Tourism and Transport Forum (TTF), a major Australian industry lobby group, estimates that the PMC reduces inbound visitor expenditures by $814 million per year (Creedy 2012).

Common examples of tourism-related taxation include airport departure taxes (e.g. the PMC), bed (or hotel room) taxes, permits for entry to public attractions such as national parks, entry or transit visas, and gaming licences. Tourists also generate taxation revenue through the purchase of goods and services subject to sales tax (e.g. Australia's GST) and other levies, although some of this can be recovered by departing tourists taking advantage of tax rebate programs such as Australia's Tourist Refund Scheme. Bed and sales taxes are examples of *ad valorem* taxes (that is, they are set as a percentage of price), while departure taxes and visas are specific (that is, they are set at a given price for each tourist). More unusual are taxes directed at the outbound tourist flow, which are usually implemented to reduce the loss of foreign exchange.

Influence of other government departments

One potentially frustrating aspect of taxation from the destination manager or tourism department's perspective is the control exercised by destination government departments not directly related to tourism, which may not always be sympathetic to the interests of the tourism sector. For example, the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC) is the Australian federal body responsible for issuing and pricing visas and for establishing qualification requirements. A possible decision to ease or

tighten these requirements, to greatly increase the visa costs or to take more time in processing applications could thus create a major deterrent to travel that the tourism stakeholders have little power to control, except perhaps through the lobbying of groups such as the TTF. Conversely, the introduction of the Electronic Travel Authority (ETA) in 1996 and the more recent eVisitor program for European visitors illustrates how agencies such as DIAC can facilitate tourism by expediting application procedures. The ETA can be obtained by potential visitors from qualifying countries (e.g. major markets such as the United States, Canada, Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong and South Korea) in just a few minutes from the agency website for a small fee ($20 in 2013). It replaces the visa stamp normally affixed to the traveller's passport, and when the tourist arrives at the airport to board their flight to Australia, check-in staff can quickly confirm electronically whether they are ETA approved. In general, however, concerns continue to be expressed within the tourism industry in Australia and elsewhere over the increasing tendency of governments to regard tourism as a revenue-generating 'cash cow', with little of the revenue typically re-invested within the tourism industry itself.

Strategies to increase direct revenue

Tourism receipts (taxes aside), can be expanded by increasing:
- the number of visitors
- their average length of stay
- their average daily expenditure (see figure 8.2).
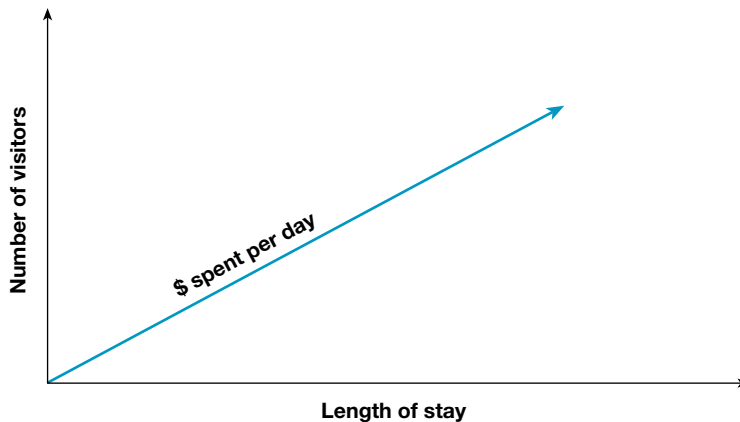
FIGURE 8.2 Factors influencing tourism revenue in a destination

Most basic is the visitor intake, and it is the fluctuation in this statistic that usually attracts the greatest attention. However, it is the average length of stay and the amount spent per day that determine the amount of revenue generated by these tourists. The impact of these factors among different market segments is demonstrated by the contrasting length of stay and spending patterns of Japanese and Chinese inbound tourists to Australia. As depicted in table 6.1, Chinese visitors spend less per day, but more overall due to their much longer stay. Accordingly, many destinations devise strategies that encourage longer vacations and high-spending (or 'high yield') market segments (see Contemporary issue: Making South Australia a lifestyle destination). In some cases, a 'quality' over 'quantity' approach is deliberately implemented to reduce the social and environmental impacts of high visitation levels (see chapter 9).

contemporary issue

MAKING SOUTH AUSTRALIA A LIFESTYLE DESTINATION

South Australia has long been disadvantaged in the competition with other states for tourists by the lack of large gateway cities, an exceptionally dry climate, and a poorly articulated destination image. In response, government marketing strategies have recently focused on the culinary based lifestyle tourism that is supported by the excellent food and wine produced in the state's regions that share a southern Mediterranean climate. A recent marketing campaign, 'South Australia. A brilliant blend', captures this culinary focus and suggests a complementary combination of different types of attractions or 'ingredients' (South Australia 2012). This culinary focus not only capitalises on a competitive advantage, but cultivates a high-yield market that is deemed to have high destination loyalty and fewer proclivities to confine visits to a particular season. A survey of 476 tourists collected in Adelaide, Barossa Valley, Flinders Range, Kangaroo Island, McLaren Vale and the Fleurieu Peninsula supported this assumption (Gross, Brien & Brown 2008). The majority of survey respondents were domestic; however, the international component was dominated by high-spending Europeans. Most arrived in South Australia by car, over one-half had a university degree, and their mean annual income was higher than the Australian average. The survey found that tourism was an important part of their lives that facilitated self-expression. South Australia's food and wine provided a desired kind of experience that entailed high levels of involvement and authenticity, and led to expressions of place identity and loyalty. This suggests a higher probability of longer trips and repeat visits, perhaps even in off-season times when different food and wine products might be available. Occupancy rates in 2011 for hotels, motels and serviced apartments with at least 15 rooms indicate relatively minor seasonality effects, ranging from just under 60 per cent in July to just over 70 per cent in October (SATC 2012).

Contribution of tourism to GDP

Tourism receipts, while a crucial indicator of the sector's size, cannot be used on their own to compare tourism's relative importance from one destination to another or within the overall economy of a particular destination. To facilitate such comparisons, the value of international tourism receipts is commonly calculated for a one-year period as a percentage of a country's gross domestic product (GDP) (see appendix 2). There is no definitive percentage threshold that differentiates the countries where tourism is a critical component of the economy. However, a 5 per cent figure can be taken to indicate a highly significant contribution in the absence of more sophisticated techniques, such as the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), that more accurately measure tourism's economic contribution but are just starting to be widely adopted.

The most recent statistics on the contribution of international tourism receipts to GDP, available for 155 countries or dependencies, are shown in appendix 2. Of these, at least 52 (or 34 per cent) met or exceeded the 5 per cent criterion. However, about one-half of these destinations are pleasure periphery SISODs (see chapter 4), some of which display a pattern of 'hyperdependency' on tourism. Extreme cases included Macau (98.9 per cent), Anguilla (44.4 per cent), Aruba (51.6 per cent), Maldives (33.8 per cent) and St Lucia (33.5 per cent). Notably, many destination countries with large absolute

tourism receipts, such as the United States and France, had a relatively small GDP contribution from tourism (1.1 per cent and 1.8 per cent, respectively). This apparent anomaly reflects the immense and highly diverse economies of these countries, wherein even a very large tourism industry still represents only a small portion of overall economic output. This also applies to Australia, which derived 2.8 per cent of its GDP from international tourism receipts in 2011–12 (ABS 2013a). Such statistics are critical in determining the allocation of government resources to the tourism sector, and therefore any policies or initiatives that reduce the percentage contribution to GDP constitute a serious threat to destinations.

Indirect revenue

The economic impact of tourist expenditures on a destination does not end once the tourists have paid their money directly to the supplier of a commercial tourist product. Rather, **indirect revenues** continue to be generated by the ongoing circulation of these expenditures within the economy of the destination (Cooper et al. 2008). This **multiplier effect** has both an indirect and induced component that come into play once the **direct (or primary) impact**, that is the actual spending of money by the tourist, has taken place (see (a) of figure 8.3). The first-round **indirect impacts**, (b), occurs when the business (e.g. a hotel) uses a portion of these direct expenditures to purchase goods (e.g. food, pool-cleaning equipment) and pay wages to its employees. Second-round indirect impacts, (c), then occur when the suppliers of these goods and services use a portion of revenues received from the hotel to buy goods and services for *their* own use. This process continues into subsequent rounds, (d), although the revenues involved by this time are substantially diminished and often very difficult to trace.
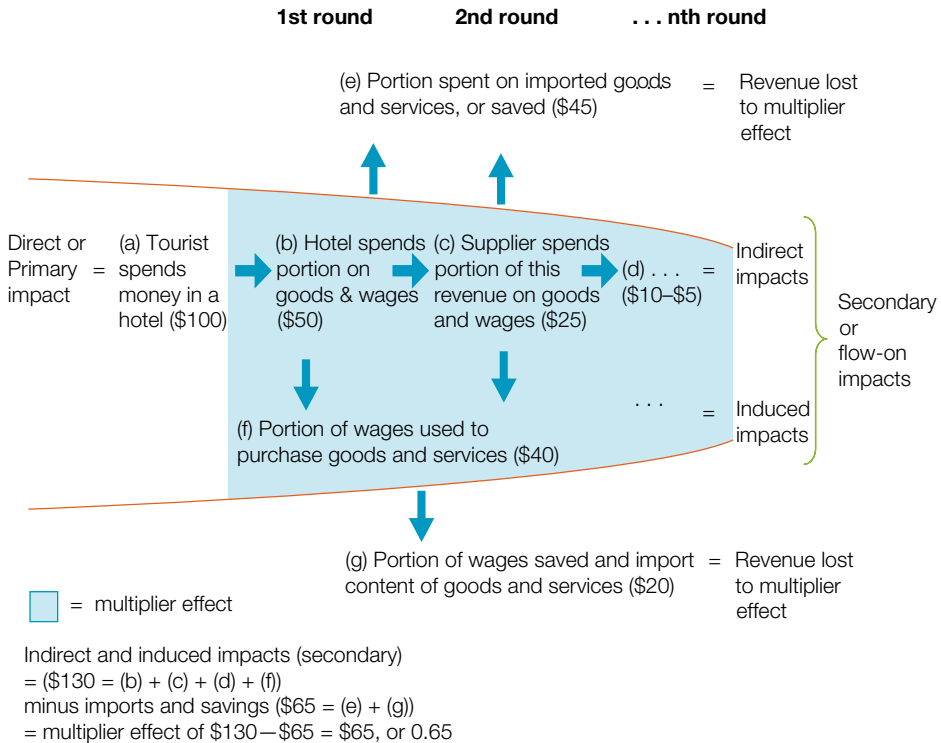
FIGURE 8.3 The multiplier effect in tourism: a simplified example

Through each round of indirect impact, revenues are lost to the destination multiplier effect due to the purchase of imported goods and services, and the allocation of money to savings, (e). If the initial hotel purchases in stage (a) are all allocated to imported goods and services, then essentially no multiplier effect takes place (i.e. there is no circulation of any portion of the revenue within the destination). Also in each indirect impact round, the multiplier effect is increased by **induced impacts** that take place when wages paid by the hotels and their suppliers are used by employees to purchase goods and services such as televisions, food, cars and haircuts, (f). However, as in (e), the multiplier effect of these wages is also eroded by savings, and by the import component of the goods and services they purchase, (g). In simple terms (since its actual calculation is complicated), the multiplier effect is obtained by adding together the sequential rounds of the indirect and induced impacts (i.e. **secondary (or flow-on) impacts**), and subtracting the revenue that is lost through allocations to imports and savings. The hypothetical $100 initial expenditure shown in figure 8.3 thereby produces an additional multiplier effect of $65, or 0.65.

Higher multiplier effects as a general rule are associated with larger and more diverse destination economies, since these have the capacity to provide the array and magnitude of goods and services consumed by tourists, and hence allow for the sustained internal circulation of direct tourism revenue. An analysis of multiplier effect studies by Cooper et al. (2008) revealed a multiplier value range of 2.00–3.40 for medium to large industrialised destinations, but only 1.12–1.35 for rural economies. Relatively low figures, however, may be elevated and attained sooner through strategies that emphasise the consumption of local goods and services (see Breakthrough tourism: Faster multiplier effects through slow tourism).

breakthrough tourism

FASTER MULTIPLIER EFFECTS THROUGH SLOW TOURISM

The concept of **slow tourism** emerged as a reaction to the perceived economic, social and environmental costs of conventional mass tourism. Like its 'slow food' predecessor, slow tourism seeks to counter the fast-paced, homogenised, pleasure-seeking character of mass tourism with high quality, lingering experiences that feature the local sense of place, foster discovery and learning, and benefit the local community (Heitmann, Robinson & Povey 2011). Destinations, accordingly, are situated as 'places' rather than 'resorts' or 'holiday spots'. The primary way through which community benefits are obtained is through the consumption of local goods and services that are unique to that area. Thus, tourists consciously seek out distinctive local foods, accommodation and cultural performances, and in so doing keep these products viable while providing an incentive for increasing their supply and quality. Conway and Timms (2010) advocate slow tourism as an appropriate alternative for remote Caribbean destinations which lack the resources or desire to pursue conventional 3S resort tourism. They suggest further that the Caribbean diaspora in North America and the United Kingdom could make a valuable contribution as tourists and as returning entrepreneurs. The southwest coast of Jamaica, north-eastern Trinidad and central Barbados are identified as regions that, because they were left behind by conventional tourism development, can serve as potential slow tourism prototypes. However, as the concept begins to acquire traction, more questions emerge.

For example, is slow tourism a *substitute* for mass tourism, more suitable for areas where the latter is not practical (Dodds 2012)? Also, if a destination's slow tourism practices become popular, is there a risk that it will transform into mass tourism as more efforts are made to cater to a larger number of visitors? If so, would this be a negative development? It may be the case that most local people actually prefer mass tourism because of the larger gross economic benefits that it provides. These issues need to be considered as slow tourism moves to a more prominent aspirational position in tourism planning and management.

Economic integration and diversification

The multiplier effect is closely linked to the idea of **backward linkages**, which encompass the goods and services that 'feed into' the tourism industry through the indirect impacts described earlier. The link occurs when these goods and services are obtained from within the destination rather than through imports. The sectors that typically account for most of the backward linkages in tourism include agriculture and commercial fisheries, transportation, entertainment, construction and manufacturing. The full list of backward linkages in tourism is extensive and complex, attesting to tourism's great potential to stimulate local economic integration and diversification, provided that these goods and services can be supplied from within the destination. For example, the manufacturing component in tourism ranges from the furniture and appliances used in resort hotels, to pool-cleaning equipment, kitchen utensils and bathroom sinks. In Australia, tourism accounted for about 3 per cent of the gross value added in the manufacturing sector, and about 2 per cent of agriculture, forestry and fishing during the early 2000s (TTF 2008a).

Employment (direct and indirect)

From the perspective of the destination community, the creation of jobs is an especially relevant reason for a destination to promote its tourism sector. Just how much employment tourism generates, however, is a subject of controversy. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimated a figure of 255 million jobs worldwide for 2012 (WTTC 2012), but such an impressive figure is only credible if calculated as the full-time equivalent of all tourism employment; that is, by combining the cumulative hours of several part-time and contractual employees to generate one full-time job equivalent and then adding all of these together to the actual full-time jobs. In 2010–11, there were 289 000 full-time and 224 000 part-time jobs in Australia directly associated with tourism (ABS 2011). Earlier research revealed that perhaps another 350 000 or more full-time job equivalents are indirectly associated with tourism, represented, for example, by the hours spent by construction workers building hotels, or by surgeons occasionally performing emergency operations on tourists (TTF 2008b). Both examples illustrate the multiplier effect that pertains to employment.

Regional development

Proponents of the advocacy platform, and other stakeholders, emphasise the effectiveness of tourism in stimulating the development of regions where economic options are otherwise constrained. The classic example is 3S (sea, sand, sun) tourism, wherein 'unspoiled' natural sites and regions possessing little value for most conventional economic activities have been redefined as valuable resources for the tourism industry.

Environmental consequences aside, the rapid physical development of the European Riviera, the small islands of the Caribbean, Australia's Gold and Sunshine coasts and other parts of the pleasure periphery is fundamentally an outcome of the sustained global demand for 3S tourism. A similar effect is evident in the ecotourism sector, which places a high value on rainforests, national parks and other natural settings as tourism venues (see chapter 11).

Other types of tourism product suited to marginal settings include the farm tourism sector (Ollenburg 2008) and 'industrial tourism' that valorises manufacturing relics of the past. Skiing and other winter sports have a substantial economic impact on Australia's small alpine region and other peripheral mountain regions. Casinos, as noted in chapter 5, contribute substantially to the economic development of economically underdeveloped locations such as Native American reservations in the United States. In the Australian and New Zealand context, nature-based and cultural tourism are providing a stimulus for the economic development of historically marginalised indigenous communities as well as rural areas traditionally dependent on vulnerable primary sector activities such as forestry and fishing (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

Growth pole strategy

In most cases, the development of tourism in a peripheral area occurs as a spontaneous, market-driven process. However, there are countries where tourism is deliberately mobilised as a **propulsive activity** in a so-called **growth pole strategy**. Examples are found in Mexico (e.g. Cancún) and Indonesia (e.g. Bintan). In essence, this involves the establishment of resorts at a strategically selected location (i.e. the growth pole) as a way of stimulating economic development in the region. A growth pole strategy in tourism entails a sequence of stages along the following lines.

1 An appropriate site (the growth pole) is identified by government, usually in an economically marginal area that is deemed suitable for sustaining some predetermined form of tourism development such as 3S resorts.
2 Through government initiative and incentives, public and private investment is injected into this area, commonly in the form of subsidised facilities and infrastructure. These incentives reduce financial risk for investors.
3 This investment attracts employees, supportive services and other tourism facilities, often induced by continuing government incentives.
4 Economic growth eventually becomes self-sustaining and independent of tourism in a direct sense when a critical mass of residential population is attained (i.e. new investment and settlement is attracted by the large local market rather than by tourism opportunities *per se*). At this point, government incentives are normally withdrawn. At the same time, the developmental benefits of tourism 'trickle down' from the growth pole into the surrounding region.

The growth pole principle can also be applied at a local or micro-scale, for example by fostering the development of a single attraction to serve as a nucleus to attract additional investment and employment.

Formal and informal sectors

Managers and governments within most destinations usually assume that economic benefits are most efficiently achieved through a strong **formal sector** — that is, the component of the economy that is subject to official systems of regulation and taxation. Because the formal sector includes the largest and most technologically sophisticated

businesses, it is seen as the primary generator of wealth and indicator of economic development.

In contrast, the **informal sector** is unregulated and external to the formal institutions of society. Participating businesses generally:

- operate beyond the legal system
- are not subject to formal quality control measures
- are not registered or enumerated
- do not provide regular working hours for their employees, and
- do not officially pay any regular wages or taxes (Smith & Henderson 2008).

Because the informal sector cannot be measured or regulated easily, and because it does not generate tax revenue for government, public officials often try to suppress, or at best ignore, this element. A large informal sector, in addition, is psychologically perceived as an indicator of economic underdevelopment, and its incorporation into or replacement by the formal sector is therefore generally seen as a prerequisite for attaining Phase Four status as per Burton's model (see table 3.2).

Within the tourism industry, the informal sector is often criticised by the formal sector and government for its 'harassing' and 'unprofessional' attitude towards tourists, who are thought to be offended by the often aggressive behaviour of souvenir hawkers and other itinerant businesspeople. This argument relates directly to the concept of inseparability, and the consequent importance of service quality control, as discussed in chapter 7. However, the formal sector also opposes the informal sector because it captures a significant portion of tourist expenditures and may be perceived by many tourists as a more authentic form of host–guest encounter. This is a valid argument in many emerging economies, where a substantial and highly visible informal sector paralleling the mainstream tourism system is evident in tourism subsectors such as guest houses, services and crafts-related activities, souvenir vending (see figure 8.4), prostitution, guiding, pedicab driving, markets, beach hawking and food stalls.

FIGURE 8.4 Souvenir vendors at the Great Wall

Government authorities often harass and discourage such operations, and only in a few isolated instances — such as the Indonesian city of Yogyakarta (Dahles 2001) — have they attempted to work out a mutually-beneficial strategy of peaceful coexistence or cooperation. In the case of Yogyakarta, the positive attitude was prompted by the realisation that street vendors are a major tourist attraction in their own right, as well as a major employer that forms robust backward linkages with local industry and has great resilience in adapting to changing conditions. This resilience was demonstrated during the post-tsunami recovery of tourism in Phuket, Thailand (see the case study at the end of chapter 2). The informal tourism sector also exists within many MDCs, but is less visible and less of a 'problem' because of the overwhelming dominance of formal sector businesses.

ECONOMIC COSTS

As the size and scope of the global tourism industry continued to increase through the late 1960s and 1970s, evidence accumulated that the economic benefits of the sector were accompanied by various costs. It was in response to this evidence that the

cautionary platform emerged within the field of tourism studies to argue that the economic, sociocultural and environmental costs of unregulated tourism tend to outweigh its benefits. Destination managers, they argued, should therefore be extremely cautious about pursuing tourism in an uncritical way (see chapter 1). This section considers the major economic costs that are potentially incurred by tourist destinations, and is thus essentially a summary of the cautionary platform's economic critique.

Direct financial costs

Proper assessments of revenue intake from tourism should first of all take into account the **direct financial costs** that are necessarily incurred by the public sector to generate and sustain this intake in order to avoid market failure. To point out these particular costs is not to be critical, but merely to indicate that tourism, as with any other economic activity, requires financial investments to realise financial benefits. The situation in Australia illustrates the nature and magnitude of these costs. In the 2012–13 fiscal year, the federal Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism (DRET), the agency responsible for tourism during that period, committed about $168 million to tourism promotion and development. As depicted in table 8.2, the largest single allocation involved advertising through Tourism Australia.

TABLE 8.2 DRET funding allocations to tourism 2012–13	
Funding area	**Amount ($000)**
Tourism Australia 　Major items ($000): 　*Advertising* 　*Promotion and publicity* 　*Wages and salaries* 　*Research, service fees & travel* Other	 *69 039* *22 324* *21 364* *10 289* 7 162
Subtotal	130 178
Departmental expenses	21 173
Asia Marketing Fund	8 500
T-QUAL Grants	8 309
National Tourism Accreditation	50
Total	**168 210**

Source: Data derived from DRET (2012), Tourism Australia (2012)

To these amounts should be added a similar spectrum of cost allocations incurred at the state and territory level. For example, Tourism Queensland, which is similar to Tourism Australia in its mandate and responsibilities, reported expenses of $66.5 million in 2011–12 (Tourism Queensland 2012).

Direct incentives, usually disbursed by nontourism agencies within government, constitute a distinct set of costs in the development of the tourism sector (Wanhill 2005). Potential entrepreneurs are usually willing to commit their own resources into a project in anticipation of strong profits. However, in more uncertain situations, destination governments may have to entice these entrepreneurs with capital grants, labour and training subsidies or the provision of infrastructure at public expense (as demonstrated in growth pole strategies). Incentives are more likely to be necessary

when several destinations offer a similar product, such as a generic 3S experience, and therefore must compete with each other for investment. In such a situation, the entrepreneur will usually locate within the destination that offers the most lucrative incentive package, all other things being equal. Where a destination, in contrast, is in a monopolistic situation of offering iconic attractions (as with Niagara Falls, Uluru, the Sydney Opera House or the Eiffel Tower), the level of anticipated long-term demand is more likely to attract entrepreneurs even without the offer of incentives.

Indirect financial costs

A major thrust of the cautionary platform was its emphasis on the substantial **indirect financial costs** that are incurred by tourism in a destination. The best-known are the costs subsumed under the category of **revenue leakages**. Some or all of the following leakages may curtail the circulation of tourist receipts in the destination economy as depicted in segment (e) of figure 8.3, and thereby erode the multiplier effect:

- imported current goods and services that are required by tourists or the tourist industry (e.g. petrol, food)
- imported capital goods and services required by the tourist industry (e.g. hotel furnishings, taxis, architect's fees)
- factor payments abroad, including repatriated profits, wages and hotel management fees
- imports for government expenditure (airport, road and port equipment)
- induced imports for domestic producers who supply the tourist industry (e.g. fertiliser to grow the food consumed by tourists).

Serious revenue leakages, as suggested earlier, are more likely to occur in small and specialised economies, given their lack of capacity to supply the goods and services required by the local tourism industry. In addition, the relatively small populations of these destinations cannot normally supply sufficient investment capital to sustain desired levels of tourism development. Severe revenue leakages are associated with **enclave resort** situations, or self-contained facilities where patrons are discouraged from spending their money outside of the operation's confines, and where most of the goods are imported from beyond the local community (Anderson 2011). More broadly, the term **enclave tourism** has been used to describe formal sector tourism industries in particular regions, such as the Okavango Delta of Botswana that are controlled by foreign interests, include enclave resorts, and have weak linkages with the local economy (Mbaiwa 2005). They may also be induced more indirectly by the **demonstration effect** of tourism, where for status or role-model reasons, locals seek to emulate the behaviour of tourists by consuming the imported goods favoured by the tourists (Huybers 2007).

Problems with revenue leakage

Revenue leakages are regarded as insidious for several reasons, particularly when the leakages accrue to a different country rather than another region within the same country.

1 They siphon away circulation effects (i.e. the multiplier effect) that could benefit the economy of the destination.
2 The cumulative indirect component is less tangible and harder to measure than direct expenses, and therefore more difficult to quantify as a first step towards addressing the problem.

3 Even if they can be measured, their existence usually reflects basic shortcomings in the economic structure of the destination that are extremely difficult — if not impossible — to resolve.

4 Imports not only dissuade local entrepreneurs from supplying similar goods, but they may displace existing local (i.e. small-scale) producers who cannot match the quality, price or quantity provided by the exporter.

5 The presence of leakages implies, to a greater or lesser extent, an economic dependency of the destination on the exporter, which constrains the ability of destination stakeholders to manage their own affairs. This is especially problematic when businesses are dominated by expatriate managers and investors.

For all these reasons, integrated and long-term tourism management strategies should strive to build linkages between tourism and the destination economy, so as to reduce the potential for revenue leakage and maximise the multiplier effect.

Indirect incentives

Augmenting the direct incentives outlined in the 'Direct financial costs' section are various indirect incentives. These include preferential or reduced interest rates, the provision of land for sale or lease on favourable terms, depreciation allowances, tariff and quota exemptions on tourism-related imports, and tax holidays. An example of the latter is the ten-year tax-free period commonly offered to developers who construct hotels of a certain size in the Caribbean. Other indirect incentives include loan guarantees and special depreciation allowances on tourism-related capital goods. Such provisions are often more popular in governments than direct incentives because they do not involve the direct outlay of money. Rather, governments obtain less revenue than they would if the incentives were not offered (e.g. the interest realised at full market rates rather than at reduced interest rates).

Fluctuations in intake

A stable and predictable flow of inputs and outputs in many industries contributes to financial stability and facilitates the management process, as enormous investments in time and energy are not required to gauge and prepare for continual changes in the supply/demand equation (see chapter 7). The dairy industry is an example of a sector with low demand uncertainty. Demand in this sector is not significantly influenced by weather or other changeable factors, nor is the market likely to suddenly stop purchasing dairy products. In addition, since consumers in countries such as Australia consider dairy products to be a basic necessity, consumption patterns will not be seriously affected by a downturn in the economy.

Supply-side factors

Tourism is an example of an activity that is frequently at the opposite end of the spectrum to the dairy industry, being highly vulnerable in some manifestations to changes in weather, fashion and sociopolitical conditions. It is worth re-emphasising that the *in situ* nature of consumption inherent in tourism is one reason for this uncertainty in demand. Tourists must travel to the place of 'production' (i.e. the destination), whereas dairy products exhibit the opposite tendency; they travel from the place of production to the homes of consumers. Supply-side disruptions within the destination, such as political uncertainty or a disruption of infrastructure, thus have a major and sometimes overwhelming bearing on visitor intakes (see chapter 4). Factors that are not specific to particular destinations can also be influential, as indicated by

the 12–14 per cent decrease in global travel reservations that followed the terrorism actions of September 2001, and the 26 per cent decrease in the number of inbound tourists to Thailand in January 2005 (i.e. the month following the tsunami) over the same month in 2004 (ILO 2005). More recently, the 2011 Tōhoku tsunami and Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster contributed to a 24 per cent drop in foreign tourists to Japan for the year compared with 2010, aided by the stronger Japanese yen (Demetriou 2012).

Demand-side factors

Also by way of reiteration, demand-side factors such as the availability of discretionary income have a particularly harsh effect on tourism, given its status as an essentially luxury or discretionary product. Most consumers will direct their first cutbacks towards their tourism activities rather than basic food products should disruptions in the economy reduce their discretionary income or generate feelings of financial insecurity. As noted in chapter 7, tourism suffers an additional liability in that the products cannot be stockpiled — an empty hotel room produces no economic value, but is a fixed cost that still requires maintenance, mortgage repayment etc.

These cautionary comments about the instability of tourism demand and supply do not contradict earlier information in this textbook that claims a positive global outlook for the tourism sector. Rather, problems can arise for managers when the patterns and underlying factors that apply at the global level are assumed to be valid for individual destinations as well. In other words, the steady growth experienced worldwide represents a pattern of cumulative behaviour that does not necessarily indicate the performance of specific destinations, which varies greatly. For any individual destination country, a similar analysis of arrival trends since 1950 would likely reveal a much higher level of fluctuation.

Seasonality

The tendency to report destination arrival data for an entire year (as in table 3.1) is misleading for similar reasons, since such statistics usually disguise significant variations in intake that affect the supply/demand equilibrium over the course of the year. These temporal variations are caused partially by predictable demand-side factors such as holiday time availability in the origin markets (e.g. summer holidays, winter break). However, equally or more influential are supply-side factors such as changing opportunities in attractions and activities and how much the destination is dependent on these changeable products. Resorts that are dependent on winter sports or 3S-based activities readily come to mind as tourism products that are subject to obvious and significant seasonal variations in demand.

Australia is not plagued by seasonality to the same extent as pleasure periphery destinations such as the Caribbean, partly because of the diversity of major market sources and variations in their peak periods of outbound travel. Substantial variations in climatic conditions within Australia at any given time mean additionally that there is no particular season in which the country can be uniformly characterised as 'hot' or 'cold'. Yet, as depicted in figure 8.5, diverse seasonality effects are still evident within the inbound business, VFR and holiday segments. During May 2012, holiday and VFR visitors were at their lowest level of the year while business travel was above average. The opposite effect is evident in December, when holiday and VFR traffic was at its greatest level by far due to the Christmas and New Year holiday time. The three markets, in contrast, experience an almost identical pattern during March and November.

Where strong seasonal variations are part of the normal annual tourism cycle of a destination, a large amount of economic and social disruption can occur if appropriate compensating measures are not taken by tourism managers. The problem can be described as one of undercapacity and overcapacity, or to use an analogy from the farming sector, a 'drought-flood' cycle. In the context of the supply/demand matching strategies outlined in chapter 7, the off-season is a period when supply exceeds demand, while the high season is characterised by an excess of demand over supply. During the off-season, low occupancy rates result in reduced business, which subsequently reverberates in a negative way throughout the economy and labour force in a sort of reverse multiplier effect. In contrast, the high season is often characterised by overbookings, stress on infrastructure, overcrowding, and shortages of goods and services (which may in turn give rise to inflation).

| Business | VFR | Holiday |

[1]Percentage if visitation numbers are identical for each month
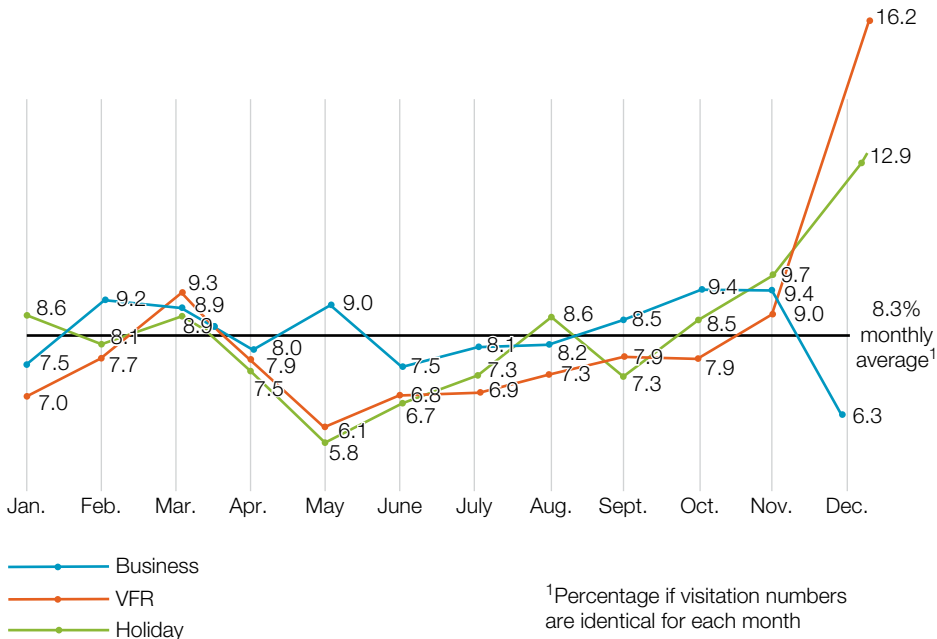
FIGURE 8.5 Seasonality in selected Australian inbound tourist segments in 2012 (Percentage distribution by month)

Source: Data derived from ABS (2013b)

Strategies that individual companies can adopt to address seasonal and other demand fluctuations have been outlined in chapter 7. Destination managers, however, are more constrained in their options, because they can only influence the strategies and tactics of the businesses that dominate the tourism sector, while controlling only a portion of the sector themselves. One option for destination governments is to stimulate alternative but complementary economic activities such as hi-tech industries, so that the off-season effect in tourism is offset by the continuing and more stable output from these other sectors.

Within tourism itself, local governments can withdraw or restrict certain variable cost services, such as beach patrolling and garbage collection. They can also promote their destination to markets that have unconventional or more evenly distributed patterns of seasonal travel. VFR tourists are an excellent example of a market that is not as susceptible to seasonality effects (Backer 2012). From the perspective of geographical

segmentation, Gold Coast tourism managers actively market in the United Arab Emirates and other Middle Eastern countries, recognising that their residents are more likely to visit Australia in the winter off-season when temperatures in the Middle East are at their highest. Other strategies include the development of attractions and activities that will draw visitors during the off-season. An example of off-season adaptation of infrastructure is found at the Australian ski resort of Thredbo, where otherwise unused ski lifts provide scenic rides to summer visitors as well as access to walking tracks in the high meadows around Mt Kosciuszko.

Fashion

Much less predictable than the seasonal variations are the effects of fashion. As discussed in chapter 4, this is demonstrated by the shifting perceptions in 'Western' societies towards sunbathing, beaches and water sports, which became popular during the Industrial Revolution but may eventually fall out of general favour due to concerns about skin cancer. This would force 3S destinations to develop and promote alternative tourism products.

Another perspective on fashion is the rise and fall of specific destinations. Places often become fashionable due to novelty and curiosity, but are soon superseded by newer destinations offering a similar (i.e. easily substitutable) product. Thus, St Lucia may have the status of being the 'in' Caribbean destination one particular year, only to be replaced, in turn, by Anguilla, St Martin and Grenada. This effect is experienced in many other industries, but one dilemma for tourism is the tendency in destinations to acquire an accommodation inventory commensurate with the level of near-peak demand. When visitor arrivals decline because of the fashion factor (as opposed to the cyclic seasonal effect), the specialised nature of hotels means that they are difficult to convert permanently to other uses when high fixed costs become too much of a burden. The fashion effect is closely associated with the resort cycle concept, which is discussed in chapter 10.

Vulnerability to instability

More uncertain and potentially harmful than the vagaries of fashion are the effects of social and political instability within or in the vicinity of a destination. This characteristic of tourism cannot be overstated. Especially insidious is the potential for just one random and completely unpredictable act of terrorism or sabotage to cripple a destination's tourism industry, as demonstrated by the September 11 terrorist attacks on the United States, as well as those on Bali and Mumbai in 2002 and 2008 respectively. Even though little can be done to prevent such occurrences, tourism managers need to be aware of this vulnerability, and of the possibility that very positive growth performance can be reversed in an instant. Accordingly, a holistic and resilience-focused strategy of broader economic diversification — both internal and external to tourism — would help to cushion such impacts, as it would with seasonal variations.

Competition with other sectors

The multiplier effect is attractive because it stimulates a diverse local, regional or national economy through the generation of significant linkages within the destination. In some cases, however, a competitive rather than a complementary relationship evolves between tourism and other sectors in the local economy. It was noted earlier, for example, that tourism-induced food imports may displace or dissuade local production if the scale economies of the exporter and the bilateral trade environment

are such that a cheaper, reliable and better quality non-local product can be offered to the hotels.

Further marginalisation of agriculture occurs because of tourism's status as a more competitive bidder for land. A golf course or resort hotel, for instance, represents a far more lucrative use of prime agricultural land than a sugar cane plantation. Where farming is already a marginal activity, as the sugar industry was on the Caribbean island of Antigua in the 1960s, tourism serves to accelerate its decline by offering strategically located land owners a viable alternative land use. Finally, the **opportunity cost** of using a resource for tourism over some other activity should be taken into consideration. Money or space allocated to tourism, in effect, is money or land denied to agriculture or other alternative sectors, which thus represents a forgone (and possibly better) opportunity for the destination. This effect has been noted along the coast of Kenya, where the protection of coral reefs for the benefit of high-yield foreign tourists has resulted in the loss of fishing opportunities for the local community as well as the loss of local knowledge and interest in managing this resource for such a purpose (Hicks et al. 2009).

Employment problems

It cannot be denied that tourism is an efficient generator of direct and indirect employment, but the nature of this employment may not always be conducive to the comprehensive economic development of the destination or the material wellbeing of its residents. Wages in the tourism sector tend to be low compared with other sectors, with 'accommodation and food services' workers in Australia earning average weekly wages of $539 in May 2012 compared with the national average of $1123, and $2388 in the mining sector (ABS 2013c). Several interrelated factors account for this wage differential and the resultant high turnover:

- the unskilled nature of most tourism jobs, with relatively few opportunities for upward mobility and few training opportunities
- the tendency of employers to treat jobs requiring higher levels of skill (as in the emotional labour component of customer service) as unskilled
- the weakness or absence of unionisation and collective bargaining arrangements
- the tendency of many employers to flout minimum wage regulations, sometimes through the employment of new or undocumented migrants (see Managing tourism: A magnet for migrants?)
- where there are few or no alternatives to tourism, local wages may be depressed because of the lack of competition for workers.

Because of the seasonal and cyclical nature of tourism, the sector is also characterised by a high incidence of seasonal, part-time and casual employment, thereby further contributing to the discrepancy between the actual number of people employed and the actual hours and wages achieved. Tourism in Australia and elsewhere has additionally been criticised, like certain other sectors, for fostering a ghetto-like environment that provides women with lower pay (ABS 2006b, Thrane 2008), poorer working conditions, less career mobility, less access to training programs and less effective trade union support. Ironically, the advocacy platform has interpreted many of these alleged shortcomings as advantages, in that low wages mean that more workers can be hired, and unskilled workers can find employment opportunities more readily. Furthermore, this platform contends that part-time and seasonal jobs may be more desirable among certain segments in the workforce, such as single mothers and international students (Barron 2007).

managing tourism

A MAGNET FOR MIGRANTS?

Economic analyses of tourism usually consider employment benefits in relation to existing resident populations, but less often they examine how tourism can alter those same populations and anticipated employment benefits through changed migration patterns. In the current era of globalisation, national boundaries are eroding as barriers to human movement, and tourism

is attracting not just those seeking natural and cultural attractions, but also those looking for employment opportunities that local residents often shun. Most Chinese inbound tourism in Europe, for example, appears to be mediated by travel agencies and inbound tour operators — many of which are in the informal sector — that employ migrant Chinese workers (Leung 2009). This may say something about the reputation of the Chinese for travelling in a **tourist bubble**; that is, in a sheltered environment mediated by other Chinese. An irony is that many of these participants arrive on tourist-type visas that may or may not sanction employment in the destination country (Leung 2009). More commonly, migrant involvement in tourism is not so obviously linked to culturally similar markets. In the United Kingdom, a large portion of the hospitality workforce is foreign born, with people from Poland being especially prominent. Local residents often perceive the Poles as an economic and cultural threat who take local jobs, depress wages and deliberately remain apart in their ethnic enclaves. In the workplace, there are fears that substandard English-language skills could also lead to service failure, while dissonant destination images may result when a Chinese or American tourist meets a 'British' host who happens to be Polish. It is counter-argued that Poles occupy jobs that local residents avoid, and that they are innovative and hardworking, sometimes establishing businesses that go on to employ local residents. Tourism also provides unique opportunities for cultural integration because of the exposure of frontline staff to British and other non-Polish tourists (Janta et al. 2011).

CHAPTER REVIEW

This chapter has considered the potential economic costs and benefits of tourism for a destination. The main argument for tourism, as expounded by supporters of the advocacy platform, is the generation of earnings through direct tourist expenditures and related taxation. Another important economic benefit is the generation of indirect local revenue through the multiplier effect, and the concurrent diversification and integration of the local economy through the stimulation of backward linkages with agriculture and other sectors within the destination. Tourism is also an effective stimulant for direct and indirect employment, and a vehicle for regional development in economically marginal locations. This can occur as a result of spontaneous processes (such as the development of most farmstays or nature-based operations), or as the consequence of a deliberate growth pole strategy, as with the Mexican resort of Cancún. When considering the economic benefits of tourism, it is generally assumed (although not necessarily correctly) that a strong formal sector is the best engine for achieving these benefits, rather than the unregulated informal sector.

The cautionary platform, in contrast to the advocacy platform, holds that the positive economic impacts of tourism may be exaggerated by its supporters. First, the direct financial costs involved in maintaining an effective administrative bureaucracy, marketing activities and providing incentives are substantial. Second, revenue leakages, which result from a high import content, profit repatriation and other processes, can drastically reduce the multiplier effect. Tourism, moreover, engenders economic uncertainty because of its vulnerability to fluctuations in intake arising from seasonal variations, the effects of fashion and social or political unrest, in both the destination and source regions. Tourism also has the capacity to foster a competitive rather than a complementary relationship with agriculture and other local sectors, and a tendency to create part-time, low-wage and low-skill employment — especially for females. How much a destination derives net economic benefits or costs from tourism depends on the circumstances that pertain to each particular place. In general, destinations with large and diverse economies are most likely to benefit from tourism, since these can generate the backward linkages that give rise to a strong multiplier effect. In contrast, small destination economies, such as those found in the SISODs, are most likely to incur the economic costs described in this chapter. Essentially, and ironically, the destinations that are most desperate to obtain economic benefits from tourism and are most dependent on it are those that are also most likely to experience its negative economic impacts.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Backward linkages sectors of an economy that provide goods and services for the tourism sector; includes agriculture, fisheries and construction

Demonstration effect the tendency of a population, or some portion thereof, to imitate the consumption patterns and other behaviours of another group; this can result in increased importation of goods and services to meet these changing consumer demands

Direct financial costs direct expenses that are necessarily incurred to sustain the tourism sector; within the public sector, typical areas of outlay include administration and bureaucracy, marketing, research and direct incentives

Direct (or primary) impact expenditure or direct revenue obtained from tourists

Direct revenue money that is obtained directly from tourists through advance or immediate expenditures in the destination and associated taxes

Enclave resort a self-contained resort complex; enclave resorts are associated with high revenue leakages because of their propensity to encourage internal spending on imported goods

Enclave tourism a mode of tourism characterised by external domination and weak linkages with the local economy

Formal sector the portion of a society's economy that is subject to official systems of regulation and remuneration; formal sector businesses provide regular wage or salaried employment, and are subject to taxation by various levels of government; the formal sector dominates Phase Four societies

Growth pole strategy a strategy that uses tourism to stimulate economic development in a suitably located area (or growth pole), so that this growth will eventually become self-sustaining

Indirect financial costs costs that do not entail a direct outlay of funds, but indicate lost revenue

Indirect impacts revenues that are used by tourism businesses and their suppliers to purchase goods and services

Indirect revenues revenue obtained through the circulation of direct tourist expenditures within a destination

Induced impacts revenue circulation that results from the use of wages in tourism businesses and their suppliers to purchase goods and services

Informal sector the portion of a society's economy that is external to the official systems of regulation and remuneration; dominant in many parts of the less developed world, informal sector businesses are characterised by small size, the absence of regular working hours or wage payments, family ownership and a lack of any regulating quality control

International tourism receipts all consumption expenditure, or payments for goods and services, made by international tourists (stayovers and excursionists) to use themselves or to give away

Multiplier effect a measure of the subsequent income generated in a destination's economy by direct tourist expenditure

Opportunity cost the idea that the use of a resource for some activity (e.g. tourism) precludes its use for some other activity that may yield a better financial return (e.g. agriculture)

Propulsive activity an economic activity that is suited to a particular area and thus facilitates the growth pole strategy; in the case of Cancún and other subtropical or tropical coastal regions 3S tourism is an effective propulsive activity

RFID (Radio Frequency IDentification) miniature devices that allow tracking of a good or person; tourism applications include tracking of travellers and their expenditures

Revenue leakages a major category of indirect financial costs, entailing erosion in the multiplier effect due to the importation of goods and services that are required by tourists or the tourist industry, through factor payments abroad such as repatriated profits, and through imports required for government expenditure on tourism-related infrastructure such as airports, road and port equipment

Secondary (or 'flow-on') impacts the indirect and induced stages of money circulation in the multiplier effect that follows the actual tourist expenditure

Slow tourism small-scale tourism that focuses on deep interaction with the authentic local culture of the destination; proposed as a more appropriate alternative to the fast-paced, homogenised, pleasure-seeking character of mass tourism

Tourist bubble the alleged tendency of some package tourists to travel in a way that keeps them sheltered from the destination and close to the culturally familiar elements of their home culture; it is a concept that is associated with high leakage effects

■ QUESTIONS

1 (a) As per table 8.1, which countries respectively gained or lost share in international tourism receipts between 2007 and 2010?
   (b) What patterns are evident in this analysis?
   (c) What factors might account for these patterns?
2 (a) Under what circumstances is a destination likely to have (i) a low income multiplier effect and (ii) a high income multiplier effect?
   (b) How can destinations with a low income multiplier effect increase this statistic?
3 (a) What factors would limit the implementation of a growth pole strategy in Australia and New Zealand?
   (b) How else could tourism development be induced in peripheral areas of Australia and New Zealand?
4 Are governments in emerging economies such as Thailand and Indonesia justified in favouring the formal tourism sector over its informal sector counterpart? Explain your reasons.
5 In countries such as Australia and New Zealand, which kinds of destination should seriously consider slow tourism as a strategic tourism priority? Why?
6 (a) What seasonal patterns are evident for the three target segments of Australian inbound tourism depicted in figure 8.5?
   (b) What factors might account for the differences within and between segments?
7 (a) What is the typical employment structure of the tourism industry?
   (b) What are the positive and negative impacts of this structure?
   (c) How could this structure be made more positive from the perspective of the host community?
8 To what extent should universities accommodate tourism and hospitality students who are working part-time during their study semesters?
9 (a) How does the tourist bubble effect contribute to a low multiplier effect?
   (b) How practical is it to modify the tourist bubble so that a higher multiplier effect results?

■ EXERCISES

1 (a) On a base map of the world, colour in red all countries and dependencies in which tourism accounts for at least 5 per cent of GDP and colour in blue all countries and dependencies where tourism accounts for less than 1 per cent of GDP.
   (b) Write a 500-word report in which you describe and account for the spatial patterns that emerge.
2 Write a 1000-word report in which you compare the economic benefits and costs to a remote rural destination of, respectively, a typical inbound package holiday tourist and a typical domestic VFR tourist.

FURTHER READING

Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Wanhill, S., Gilbert, D. & Fyall, A. 2008. *Tourism Principles and Practice*. **Fourth Edition. London: Prentice Hall.** The economic dimension of tourism is thoroughly covered in this general tourism textbook.

Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P. & Dwyer, W. 2010. *Tourism Economics and Policy*. **Bristol: Channel View.** The topics covered in this comprehensive text include demand forecasting, supply and pricing, tourism satellite accounts, cost–benefit analysis, taxation and destination competitiveness.

Gibson, C. & Connell, J. 2011. *Festival Places: Revitalising Rural Australia*. **Bristol: Channel View.** The role of festivals in contributing to the economic and social development of rural Australia is considered from a case study perspective.

Tribe, J. 2011. *The Economics of Recreation, Leisure and Tourism*. **Fourth Edition. London: Routledge.** Basic economic concepts and theories, as they apply to tourism and related activities, are discussed in this textbook using non-specialist language.

Wanhill, S. 2005. ‘Role of Government Incentives’. In Theobald, W. (Ed.) *Global Tourism*. **Third Edition. Sydney: Elsevier, pp. 367–90.** A comprehensive outline of government incentives to the tourism industry is provided in this chapter, which includes a short discussion of market failure.

case study

A NATURAL ALTERNATIVE FOR TASMANIA?

The decline of traditional primary and secondary sector industries in Tasmania brings into sharp focus the potential role of tourism as the future mainstay of the state's economy. In 2010 alone, major closures in the manufacturing sector included a shipbuilder (116 jobs lost), paper mills (over 400 jobs lost, leaving only one mill remaining), a vegetable processing plant (leading to a loss of 200 jobs) and a carpet manufacturer (accounting for 150 job losses) (Parliament of Tasmania 2011). Tasmania is already more dependent than any other Australian state on tourism, which in the year ending September 2010 directly accounted for just under 5 per cent of gross state product, and 8.5 per cent if indirect effects are included. This translated into 6.1 per cent and 11 per cent of all state employment respectively, as well as revenues of $1.53 billion from approximately one million visitors (Parliament of Tasmania 2011).

Characteristics of Tasmania that have helped to accelerate the demise of the traditional economy may help in turn to shape its status as a competitive nature-based tourist destination. These include an enormous area of temperate rainforest wilderness, most of which is designated as a World Heritage Area that covers 1.4 million hectares, or one-fifth of the state. Altogether, about 40 per cent of Tasmania is publicly protected land in which resource extraction is strictly

regulated or prohibited altogether. This level of land protection is amongst the highest in the world. Iconic attractions that are very appealing to the ecotourist, adventure tourist and backpacker include Cradle Mountain, the Freycinet Peninsula and Cataract Gorge. The isolation imposed by being an island is another contributing factor to the demise of manufacturing and has also been cited as an impediment to tourism development (Parliament of Tasmania 2011). However, if appropriately marketed, insularity can also be presented as a competitive advantage that confers authenticity, uniqueness, pristine air and water, exoticness, and a sense of getting away from the rat-race.

A significant pre-1830 European settlement heritage and abundant high-quality fresh food augment the nature-based core of the Tasmanian tourism product and enhance the potential for high-quality and high-yield visitor experiences that are differentiated from other Australian states. Yet, visitation levels have been stagnant in recent years. In addition to the issue of accessibility, one major external impediment has been the persistently high Australian dollar, which has attracted fewer international visitors to Australia while diverting many domestic tourists to relatively cheap international destinations such as Bali and Thailand. Internal problems include a low level of internet use for marketing and booking, variable quality of service provision, and inconsistent and restricted operating hours. All three of these problems are associated with the prevalence of small businesses throughout the state. Of the 2000 private enterprises that comprise the state tourism industry, 85 per cent employ five or fewer people, and more than 70 per cent have an annual turnover of less than $250 000. High industry wages and payroll taxes discourage businesses from hiring more permanent employees (Parliament of Tasmania 2011).

There is particular interest in attracting international tourists, who accounted for about 14 per cent of all visitors in the year ending December 2011 (around 150 000 per year) but 18 per cent of expenditures ($254 million). Notably, expenditures per visitor-night are well below domestic levels ($89 versus $205), but the longer stay translates into marginally larger total expenditures ($1696 versus $1649) (Tourism Tasmania 2012). Europe and New Zealand are both regarded as high-yield markets that would be attracted by the nature-based tourism product of Tasmania, but there is also interest in China and other East-Asian countries because of their remarkable growth and potential (Parliament of Tasmania 2011). The unique attributes of Tasmania appear to favour a product development strategy based on the principles of slow tourism and its emphasis on a long stay, and authentic and unique experiences focused on immersion into the local natural environment and lifestyle. In this context, the pattern of small business ownership could be an asset that more closely connects visitors to local residents and the Tasmanian way of life.

The transition of Tasmania from the primary/secondary mix of forestry and manufacturing to the emphasis on tourism and other tertiary activities, however, has not been conflict-free or a foregone conclusion. Since the mid-1970s, major battles have been fought in Tasmania and elsewhere in Australia between industrial interests wanting access to forests for woodchip production and environmentalists wanting to preserve old-growth and other native forests for their ecological and aesthetic value. It is perhaps too simplistic to characterise this as a fundamental conflict between anthropocentric and biocentric ways of thinking, since environmentalists also consider the recreational and other benefits of natural habitat for humans, while industry appreciates the need to consider the integrity

of the environment in the interests of their own long-term survival. Moreover, tourism and the forestry industry have a history of mutual reinforcement, with the latter earning substantial revenue from operating commercial attractions such as Air Walk, a treetop walkway. In turn, recreationalists rely on roads and bridges maintained by the industry for access to trekking paths and other recreational settings.

A mutually acceptable approach to the issue of resource access is evident in the Tasmanian Forests Intergovernmental Agreement signed in late 2012 which emphasised the need to develop a strong and sustainable forestry industry while protecting native forests. The agreement called for another 500 000 hectares of native forest (about one-half of the state's old-growth forest) to be permanently protected and for the industry to move production to tree plantations. Immediate financial and other relief was provided for forestry workers and their families to help with their readjustment, while $120 million of mainly federal money would be allocated over 15 years to fund appropriate regional development projects that improve productivity and income-earning capacity in the state economy (Australian Government 2011). Through such spatial differentiation, it is hoped that Tasmania can sustain both a dominant nature-based tourism sector as well as a robust forestry sector.

QUESTIONS

1 Write a 1000-word report in which you describe:
   (a) the economic advantages of targeting New Zealand as a major potential inbound market
   (b) the economic disadvantages of such an approach.

2 Prepare a two-week Tasmanian itinerary, designed for an adventurous two-income German couple in their mid-30s, that will:
   (a) be highly satisfying to these visitors in terms of the experiences and services provided
   (b) maximise the state multiplier effect for Tasmania.

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9

Sociocultural and environmental impacts of tourism

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 list the potential social and cultural benefits of tourism

2 describe how tourism can promote both traditional culture and the modernisation process

3 explain commodification and its positive and negative consequences, and understand how tourism can contribute to this process

4 differentiate between destination frontstage and backstage and discuss their implications for the management of tourism

5 explain the linkages that can exist between tourism and crime

6 identify the circumstances that increase or decrease the probability that a destination will experience negative sociocultural impacts from tourism

7 assess the nature of resident attitudes towards tourism

8 describe the potential positive and negative environmental consequences of tourism for destinations

9 cite examples of the environmental impact sequence using an array of stressor activities

10 discuss the utility of ecological footprinting as a means of measuring environmental impact.

INTRODUCTION

The basic aim of tourism management at a destination-wide scale is to maximise the sector's economic, sociocultural and environmental benefits, while minimising the associated costs. To meet this objective, destination managers must understand the potential positive and negative impacts of tourism, and the circumstances under which these are most likely to occur. Chapter 8 considered economic costs and benefits, and concluded that small-scale, developing destinations — that is, the ones which arguably need tourism the most — are most likely to incur high costs as a consequence of tourism development. Chapter 9 extends our understanding of tourism impacts by considering their sociocultural and environmental dimensions. The following section examines the alleged sociocultural benefits of tourism, while the 'Sociocultural costs' section considers its potential sociocultural costs as expressed through the phenomenon of commodification, the demonstration effect and the relationship between tourism and crime. The possible environmental benefits of tourism are then discussed, and this is followed by an examination of its potential environmental costs, as modelled through the environmental impact sequence. The consideration of the sociocultural dimension before the environmental dimension is not intended to suggest the greater importance of the former, but rather that the cautionary platform (see chapter 1) initially placed more emphasis on social and cultural issues in its critique of the tourism sector. The two dimensions, in reality, are often closely interrelated, and both are intimately related to the economic dimension.

SOCIOCULTURAL BENEFITS

Although supporters of the advocacy platform emphasise the economic benefits that could result from tourism for a destination, they also cite various affiliated sociocultural advantages. These include:
- the promotion of cross-cultural understanding
- the incentive value of tourism in preserving local culture and heritage
- the promotion of social stability through positive economic outcomes.

Counter-arguments are made for all of these impacts in the sections that follow, but the intention in this section is to present only the advocacy point of view.

Promotion of cross-cultural understanding

When individuals have had limited or no contact with a particular culture, they commonly hold stereotypical, or broad and usually distorted behavioural generalisations, about that culture and its members. In the absence of direct experience, stereotypes provide a set of guidelines that are used to indicate what can be expected when encountering members of that culture. It can be argued that direct contacts between tourists and residents dispel such stereotypes and allow the members of each group to perceive one another as individuals and, potentially, as friends (Tomljenovic 2010). Tourism is thus seen as a potent force for cross-cultural understanding because huge numbers of people come into contact with members of other cultures both at home and abroad. In Australia, direct contacts with Japanese and other Asian tourists have undoubtedly contributed to the erosion of stereotypes held by some Australians, while the same effect has also occurred in reverse through the exposure of outbound Australians to Asia and other overseas destinations. As such, tourism can be seen as a grassroots mechanism that contributes to improved relations between countries (Weaver 2010a).

A force for world peace

One manifestation of this cross-cultural perspective is the perception of tourism as a vital force for world peace. Aside from spontaneous day-to-day contacts, this considers the role of tourism in facilitating deliberate 'track-two diplomacy', or unofficial face-to-face contacts that augment official or 'track-one' avenues of communication. This phenomenon is illustrated by the way that cricket Test matches in 2004 helped to build rapprochement between India and Pakistan, which have fought three wars since 1947 (Beech et al. 2005). Preceded by confidence-building measures such as an agreement to resume normal diplomatic and civil aviation links, a decision was made in 2003 to hold a Test series between the countries in Pakistan the following year. The government of Pakistan issued visas for 10 000 Indians, whose warm and hospitable treatment by their Pakistani counterparts during the match was widely reported in the Indian press. More importantly, a regional television audience of 600 million was treated to a remarkable spectacle of incident-free sporting conduct and camaraderie throughout this 'proxy war', which ended in an Indian victory. Beech et al. (2005) speculate that this massive grassroots exposure to a sustained atmosphere of mutual goodwill has done and will do much to build the impetus for further improvement in the India–Pakistan bilateral relationship, a consideration that is of no small import given the nuclear-weapon capabilities of both countries.

Yet, such initiatives are inherently fragile. In 2008, cricket teams from Australia, England and New Zealand pulled out of Pakistan tours due to security concerns, while the country's sporting reputation was devastated in March 2009 by terrorist attacks against the visiting Sri Lankan cricket team. Within the tourism sector itself, initiatives that explicitly attempt to foster peace and cross-cultural understanding include Oxfam's Community Aid Abroad tours to Guatemala, and the reality tours offered by the human rights organisation Global Exchange (Higgins-Desbiolles 2010).

Incentive to preserve culture and heritage

Tourism has the potential to stimulate the preservation or restoration of historical buildings and sites. This can occur directly, through the collection of entrance fees, souvenir sales and donations that are allocated for this purpose, or indirectly, through the allocation of general tourism or other revenues to preservation or restoration efforts intended to attract or sustain visitation. This is best illustrated at a destination-wide scale by **tourist–historic cities** such as Prague (Czech Republic), Bruges (Belgium), Kyoto (Japan) and York (United Kingdom) where the restoration and revitalisation of entire inner-city districts has been induced and sustained at least in part by considerations of tourism potential (Munsters 2010). Australia does not have any urban places that would qualify as tourist–historic cities but has examples of tourism-related historical preservation ranging from relatively large sites such as the Port Arthur convict ruins in Tasmania and the Millers Point district of Sydney, to small sites such as the Springvale Homestead in Katherine, Northern Territory. Destination residents benefit from these actions to the extent that restored sites are more attractive to tourists and therefore generate additional revenues, and because they provide residents with opportunities to appreciate and experience their own history that might not otherwise exist.

The same principles apply to culture. Ceremonies and traditions that might otherwise die out due to modernisation are sometimes preserved or revitalised because of tourist demand. As with historical sites, the examples are numerous, and include the revival of the *gol* ceremony in Vanuatu, where boys and young men jump from tall wooden towers in a way that superficially resembles bungee jumping, and the revival of

traditional textile and glass crafts in Malta. Other examples are the expansion of Native American arts and crafts in the American Southwest and the revitalisation of traditional dances and ceremonies on Bali (Barker, Putra & Wiranatha 2006). In the case of the American Southwest, Native American artists acknowledge their creation of new themes to appeal to tourists, but maintain traditional manufacturing processes. Accordingly, they regard such art as an expansion rather than alteration of their authentic material culture (Maruyama, Yen & Stronza 2008). Similar dynamics pertain in northern Australia's Arnhem Land, where demand from tourists has contributed to the stimulation of traditional woodcarving but also the appearance of new designs (Koenig, Altman & Griffiths 2011).

Promoting social wellbeing and stability

Through the generation of employment and revenue, it is commonly assumed that tourism promotes a level of economic development that is more conducive to the ultimate goal of increased social wellbeing (see Breakthrough tourism: Gross national product or gross national happiness?). This promotion also occurs when a destination attempts to improve its international competitiveness by offering services and health standards at a level acceptable to visitors from more advanced economies. Although implemented because of tourism, local residents derive an obvious and tangible social benefit from, for example, the elimination of a local malaria hazard or the introduction of electricity, anticrime measures or paved roads to the district where an international-class hotel is located.

breakthrough tourism

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT OR GROSS NATIONAL HAPPINESS?

Among tourism researchers, Bhutan has been long recognised for strict visitor quotas and for focusing its economic development efforts around the seemingly facetious concept of **gross national happiness (GNH)**. However, in 2011, the United Nations endorsed the concept and established a panel to consider how its four principles of equitable social development, cultural preservation, environmental conservation and good governance could be integrated into the more conventional development strategies of other emerging economies (Kelly 2012). The significance of GNH is given some validity due to the fact that many of the wealthiest societies in terms of traditional gross national product (or GNP; the value of all goods and services produced in a given country during a given year) also suffer high rates of depression, crime, chronic medical problems and degraded natural environments. As such, they cannot therefore be considered 'developed' in ways that ultimately matter the most to people, despite the common assumption that happiness is a consequence of the materialism which results from high economic output. Indeed, the Bhutanese remain poor from a GNP perspective, but they are apparently rich in GNH. The maintenance of strict visitor quotas (just 4000 Western visitors were allowed in 1996) as part of a 'low-volume high-yield' strategy was a reflection of its GNH principles, so it is noteworthy that the government of Bhutan has now

embarked on a plan to dramatically increase the number of inbound tourist arrivals from Western countries. In 2011, 64 038 Western tourists visited the country, representing a 57 per cent increase over 2010. Notably, these visitors continue to be described as 'high-end' (Tourism Council of Bhutan 2012). It remains to be seen whether this apparent trajectory of high-end, high-volume inbound tourism can be maintained, and whether such growth-oriented tourism can reinforce the aspirations for high gross national happiness.

SOCIOCULTURAL COSTS

Supporters of the cautionary platform have acknowledged that tourism can produce positive sociocultural outcomes under certain conditions, but maintain that unregulated mass tourism development is more likely to result in substantial social and cultural costs to destination residents as well as tourists. This is especially true, it is argued, if those destinations are located in less developed countries or peripheral areas within emerging economies. The prospect of widespread dissatisfaction among local residents as a result of inappropriate tourism development is an extremely important consideration for destination managers, since this can lead to direct and indirect actions against tourists and tourism that can destabilise a destination and give rise to an enduring negative market image. The maintenance of support among local residents through the prevention and amelioration of negative impacts is, therefore, a prerequisite for the long-term wellbeing of the tourism sector managed from a resilient systems perspective. The following subsections examine the main sociocultural issues that influence the management of tourism destinations.

Commodification

The **commodification** of a destination's culture, or its conversion into a commodity in response to the perceived or actual demands of the tourist market, is commonly perceived as a major negative sociocultural impact associated with tourism (Matheson 2008). To the extent that this confers a tangible monetary value on a product (i.e. the culture) that already exists but otherwise generates no economic return, it may be regarded as a positive impact. The problem, however, occurs when the inherent qualities and meanings of cultural artefacts and performances become less important than the goal of earning revenue from their reproduction and sale. Concurrently, the culture may be modified in accordance with the demands of the tourist market, and its original significance eroded or lost altogether. While this was not seen as problematic among the aforementioned Native American artists in the American Southwest, there are several ways that less positive cultural commodification can occur as a result of tourism, and the following scenario gives one extreme possibility.

- *Phase 1*. Tourists are rarely seen in the community, and when they do appear, are invited as 'honoured guests' to observe or participate in authentic local ceremonies without charge. They may be given genuine artefacts as a sign of the high esteem in which they are held by the local community.
- *Phase 2*. Visiting tourists become more frequent and hence less of a novelty. They are allowed to observe local ceremonies for a small fee, and genuine artefacts may be sold to them at a small charge.
- *Phase 3*. The community is regularly visited by a large number of tourists. Ceremonies are altered to provide more appeal to tourists, and performances are made

at regular intervals suitable to the tourist market. Authenticity thus gives way to attractions of a more contrived nature. Prices are set at the highest possible levels allowed by the market. Large amounts of cheaply produced — and often imported — souvenirs are made available for sale.

• *Phase 4*. The integrity of the original culture is entirely lost due to the combined effects of commodification and modernisation. Commodification extends into the most sacred and profound aspects of the culture, despite measures taken to safe-guard it.

The residents of a destination may obtain significant financial returns from tourism by the fourth stage, but a widely-held contention is that serious social problems arise in association with the loss of cultural identity and the concomi-tant disruption of traditional norms and structures that maintained social stability (Swanson & Timothy 2012). In addition, conflicts can erupt in the community over the distribution of revenue, appropriate rates of remuneration for performers and producers (who may have formerly volunteered their services) and other market-related issues with which the society may not be equipped to cope. Compounding the issue is the possibility that the progression will occur over a relatively short time period, reducing the opportunity to devise and implement effective adaptive strategies.

Frontstage and backstage

Local residents are not powerless in the face of commodification pressures, and can adopt various measures to minimise their negative impact. Indicative of cultural and social resilience is the strategy of making **frontstage** and **backstage** distinctions within the destination (MacCannell 1976). The frontstage is an area where commod-ified performances and displays are provided for the bulk of visiting tourists. The backstage, in contrast, is an area set aside for the personal or in-group use of local people and, potentially, selected allocentrics, VFR or business tourists. The back-stage accommodates the 'real life' of the community and maintains its 'authentic' culture. As long as the distinctions are maintained and respected by the tourists and local residents, then the community can in theory achieve the dual objectives of income generation from tourism (mainly in the frontstage) and the preservation of the local way of life as sanctuaries where one can escape the tourists (mainly in the backstage).

The distinction between frontstage and backstage can be implicit or it can involve some kind of physical barrier or signage to differentiate the two spaces. These range from the crude canvas screens erected by Alaskan Inuit to shield their backyards from the gazing eyes of tourists (as described by Smith 1989), to walls, ditches and 'do not enter' signs that attempt to contain tourists within the frontstage. It is possible that the very same space can be differentiated as frontstage or backstage depending on the time, so that, for example, a beach is tacitly recognised as tourist space on weekdays during daylight hours, and as local space at other times. (This effect is observable in the Caribbean, where beaches occupied by tourists during the day often become cricket pitches for local youth in the evening.) Such distinctions can also be made on a seasonal basis. In some countries, the frontstage/backstage principle is applied as part of a comprehensive nationwide strategy for regulating contact between local residents and tourists. For example, all of Bhutan was effectively a backstage when the govern-ment strictly controlled the number of inbound Western tourists (Gurung & Seeland 2008). The government of the Maldives (an Indian Ocean SISOD) continues to con-fine 3S tourism development to selected uninhabited atolls as a means of curtailing

the influence of Western tourists on the country's conservative Muslim population (Shakeela & Weaver 2012).

The frontstage/backstage distinction, however, can have unexpected consequences and dimensions that raise difficult questions about cultural authenticity. In many indigenous communities, it is the frontstage that is occupied by traditional cultural artefacts and performances that have long been abandoned or modified by the community as items of everyday use, but are of great interest to tourists. The backstage, in contrast, is occupied by a cultural landscape that is similar in many respects to that found in nonindigenous communities of a similar size and location, reflecting the evolving and adaptive nature of the living indigenous culture. In such situations, determining the 'authentic' setting becomes more problematic.

Prostitution

Prostitution, arguably the extreme form of commodification, can of course thrive in non-tourism settings, but is encouraged by tourism characteristics such as host–guest (i.e. vendor–buyer) proximity, the suspension of normal behaviour by some holidaying tourists, and often large gaps in wealth between tourists and locals. Destination marketing that emphasises cultural and sexual stereotypes is a further facilitating factor. Examples include the use of the suggestive coco de mer fruit by tourism authorities in Seychelles, and an early promotional campaign in the Bahamas that used the phrase 'It's better in the Bahamas'. A sexually charged beach culture is also embedded in the promotion of Brazil to foreign tourists (Bandyopadhyay & Nascimento 2010). While successful in attracting some types of tourists, it is less clear whether this form of advertising actually leads tourists to expect sexual promiscuity among local women, or whether such demands, if they exist, are met through increased levels of prostitution. However, there is no doubt that prostitution is well established either formally or informally in many destinations as a result of tourist demand. The male prostitute, or 'beach boy', is a familiar figure on the beaches of the Caribbean and in parts of Africa, where competition for female tourists is associated with increased social and economic status for impoverished local males (Berdychevsky, Poria & Uriely 2013).

The sex industry is a very large and well-established formal component of tourism in European cities such as Amsterdam (see figure 9.1) and Hamburg, in South-East Asian destinations such as Thailand and the Philippines, and within some areas of Australia and New Zealand, such as the Kings Cross district of Sydney. Yet sex tourism is a complex phenomenon that should not automatically be condemned as unequivocally negative. Although coercive and child-focused sex tourism clearly are great evils that cannot be justified, some researchers controversially argue that sex tourism can be relatively benign under circumstances where it empowers and financially benefits sex workers (Bauer & McKercher 2003).

FIGURE 9.1 Sex workers and tourists in the red-light district of Amsterdam

The demonstration effect revisited

The concept of the demonstration effect as a potential economic cost for destinations was considered in chapter 8. From a sociocultural perspective, problems may occur when residents (usually the young) gravitate towards the luxurious goods paraded by the wealthier tourists or the drugs and liberal sexual mores demonstrated by some tourists. As a result, tensions result between the older and younger community members, as the latter increasingly reject local culture and tradition as inferior, in favour of modern outside influences (Mathieson & Wall 2006).

Case studies as diverse as the Cook Islands (Cowen 1977) and Singapore (Teo 1994) provide evidence for a tourism-related demonstration effect within local societies. However, as with most phenomena associated with tourism, this process is more complex and ambiguous than it first appears (Fisher 2004). Specifically:

- The overall role of tourism in conveying and promoting outside influences is usually relatively minor compared with the pervasive impact of television and other media, especially since the latter are also effective vehicles for the promotion of consumer goods. Hence, it is not easy to isolate the specific demonstration effect of tourism.
- The effect is not always unidimensional (i.e. tourists influencing locals), but may also involve the adoption of destination culture attributes by the tourists (see chapter 2).
- The demonstration effect can have beneficial outcomes depending on the motivations of the adopter and the elements of the tourist culture that are adopted.
- Exposure to tourists may cause traditional or 'anti-Western' local residents to become even more conservative, indicating the possibility of an 'anti-demonstration' effect.

The relationship between tourism and crime

The growth of tourism often occurs in conjunction with increases in certain types of crime, including illegal prostitution (Karagiannis & Madjd-Sadjadi 2012). The tourism-intensive Surfers Paradise neighbourhood of the Gold Coast, for example, reports significantly higher levels of crime than adjacent suburbs. It is tempting to conclude from such evidence that the growth in tourism is attracting increased illegal behaviour. As with most social and cultural impact issues, however, the linkage is more complicated. Like the demonstration effect, the growth of tourism may coincide with a broader process of modernisation and development that could be the primary underlying source of social instability and, hence, increased criminal behaviour. Yet tourism makes a good scapegoat because of its visibility, ubiquity and emphasis on 'others' as perpetrators. In addition, some tourism-related crimes are highly publicised, resulting in a disproportionate emphasis on tourism as the reason for such activity. Another perspective is that tourism growth is usually accompanied by growth in the resident population, so that the actual number of criminal acts might be increasing without any actual growth in the per capita crime rate.

The link between tourism and crime, with the aforementioned qualifications, can be discussed first with respect to tourism in general and then with reference to specific types of tourism that entail or foster a criminal connection. A further distinction can also be made between criminal acts directed *towards* tourists (i.e. mainly a sociocultural impact on the origin region) and those committed *by* tourists (i.e. mainly a sociocultural impact on the destination region).

Crime towards tourists

The general connection in the first scenario largely occurs because tourists are often wealthier than local people, and the two groups come into close contact with one another. As a result, tourists offer a tempting and convenient target for the minority of local residents that is determined to acquire some of this wealth for themselves, or who wish to exploit the tourists in some other way. Workers within tourism may be perpetrators, as evidenced by the widespread deviant behaviour that occurs among service workers in many destinations (Harris 2012). At one end of the spectrum where the element of illegality is vague or borderline are residents or workers who engage in deliberate overpricing or begging. Progressing towards the other end of the spectrum are unambiguously criminal activities involving theft, assault and murder, such as those connected with tourism-targeted terrorism. The attractiveness of tourists as targets of crime is increased by several factors, as depicted in figure 9.2.

Highly conspicuous due to race, clothing, speech, objects carried (e.g. cameras, backpacks)

More likely to inadvertently stray into unsafe areas or become lost on unfamiliar roads

Carrying and displaying objects of value (e.g. money, cameras, jewellery)

Status as 'strangers' in destination means that few are aware of their specific activity patterns or will notice if they do not return to their hotels after a certain period of time

Unfamiliar with local culture or services; hence delays in reporting crime, and higher chance of being taken advantage of

Likely to be in 'holiday mode' and less alert to potentially dangerous situations

FIGURE 9.2 Factors that make tourists targets of criminal activity

Crime by tourists

Criminal acts are also committed by the tourists themselves, either against the locals or other tourists. Where certain forms of tourism either encourage or cause criminal activities, tourists are often the initiator or lead players. Sex-related activity that is defined as illegal by destination authorities or under international law, such as that which involves children or human trafficking (Tepelus 2008), is a high profile example. In other cases, the tourism activity is not inherently illegal, but attracts criminal interest. Casino-related gambling is an example of this indirect relationship, given the involvement of organised crime elements, prostitutes and participants who steal or embezzle to feed their gaming addiction (Stitt, Nichols & Giacopassi 2005). Another involves student holiday events, such as the North American 'spring break' or Australia's 'Schoolies Week', which are associated with high levels of alcohol and drug consumption (Weaver & Lawton 2013). Rivalry situations involving biker gangs

or football fans also have a high potential for social unrest, as in the phenomenon of drunken English soccer hooligans (or 'lager louts') who travel to France with the explicit intent of fighting with French fans.

Factors contributing to the increased likelihood of sociocultural costs

For the managers of destinations, it is vital to know the circumstances under which negative sociocultural impacts are most likely to occur. This allows them to assess whether these circumstances are present in the destination, and if so, to implement appropriate demand- or supply- side ameliorative measures. If these actual or potential impacts are ignored, there is a danger that the social or cultural **carrying capacity** of the destination (or the amount of tourism activity that can be accommodated without incurring serious social, cultural and/or environmental damage) will be exceeded. Each of the factors outlined here should not be looked at in isolation, since it is more probable that negative effects will result from a combination of mutually reinforcing circumstances. Thus, the greater the number of factors present, the greater the probability of negative outcomes. No order of priority is intended in this inventory.

Extensive inequality in wealth between tourists and residents

As mentioned earlier, tourists who are visibly wealthier or assumed to be wealthier than the majority of the resident population, as in emerging economies, are more likely to generate resentment and induce a demonstration effect among some residents that cannot be fulfilled by conventional means (e.g. higher wages). Hence, there is a greater probability that these individuals will revert to tourist-directed crime to meet these perceived needs. A broader issue of relevance to this factor of wealth disparity is that residents are just as likely to rely on stereotypes as tourists, prompting many to assume that *all* tourists from Australia or the United States are extremely wealthy. A widespread sense of envy and resentment can emerge under such circumstances, especially if enclave effects result in minimal direct or indirect benefits to the destination (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

Cultural and behavioural differences between tourists and residents

Large cultural differences can result in the identification of tourists as a group distinct from the 'local' population, hence reinforcing the sense of the 'other' and, as already discussed, making them more vulnerable to crime and other forms of exploitation. Where the gap between the tourist and resident cultures is wide, the probability of culturally based misunderstandings is also increased, even if tourist actions are well-intended (see Managing tourism: Behold the voluntourist). The problem is exacerbated when tourists make little or no attempt to recognise and respect local sensibilities and persist in adhering to their own cultural norms. The same also applies to the attitudes of local residents, although more of an onus is justifiably placed on visitors since the latter cannot reasonably expect that a destination will transform itself just for their convenience. Inappropriate behaviour has been fairly or unfairly associated with psychocentric tourists (see chapter 6), who allegedly become more prevalent as a destination becomes more developed. For such groups, contact with other cultures is likely to reinforce rather than remove existing cultural stereotypes.

managing tourism

BEHOLD THE VOLUNTOURIST

Some critics of conventional mass tourism advocate for **volunteer tourism** as a more appropriate and effective tool for development in peripheral areas. This form of tourism involves extended visits to places where volunteers (also known as voluntourists) assist with designated aid or research projects, receiving training either beforehand or during the experience. Young adults are disproportionately represented in volunteer tourism. Advocates contend that tangible positive outcomes for destinations are achieved by idealistic tourists who are enlightened by the experience and convey a positive image of themselves and their country of origin to the host community (Barbieri, Santos & Katsube 2012). There are social and environmental manifestations of volunteer tourism. The former is illustrated by United States-based Habitat for Humanity (www.habitat.org), which focuses on building houses for the needy (see figure 9.3). A prominent example of an environmental focus is the Earthwatch Institute (www.earthwatch.org), which coordinates scientific research projects in protected areas and other natural habitats. As participation in volunteer tourism increases, more opportunities are available to assess its actual impacts on host communities. One criticism is the performance of unsatisfactory work due to insufficient training or motivation. Also, it has been suggested

FIGURE 9.3 Voluntourists with Habitat for Humanity

that communities continually exposed to volunteer tourism could become dependent and face continued unemployment (McGehee 2012). Undesirable cultural changes may result from locals' close and prolonged contact with voluntourists, whose motivations may be mostly ego-driven and focused on self-advancement through the demonstration of overseas work experience. Such changes can also manifest themselves in situations where volunteer organisations have religious motivations (Guttentag 2009). One overall result may be the reinforcement rather than breaking down of mutual stereotypes. Critics generally do not advocate the elimination of volunteer tourism, but caution participants to avoid seeing it as a cure-all inherently beneficial to the target destination (Sin, 2010). Better participant screening and provision of training/awareness, as well as better targeting of recipient communities, are ways in which more positive outcomes can be facilitated for both the tourists and communities.

Overly intrusive or exclusive contact

Whether differentials in wealth and culture create social problems is also influenced by the nature of contact between tourists and residents. This is an extremely complex factor, given the large number of individual face-to-face contacts that occur over the course of a typical visit and the numerous variables that mediate such interactions, which include personality type, group characteristics (e.g. a bus tour group or a young couple), the moods of the individuals involved and how extroverted or introverted the culture or individuals within the culture are.

As we have seen, some supporters of the advocacy platform argue that direct contact can dissolve stereotypes, but it can alternatively make the situation even worse under certain circumstances — for example, when the contacts are overly intrusive and extend into backstage areas. Conversely, problems can also result when tourists

are channelled into exclusively tourism-focused spaces such as retail frontstages or enclave resorts (see chapter 8). Accusations may arise in such cases that the tourists are monopolising the most desirable spaces, that they are being deliberately snobbish or that small operators are being denied the opportunity to engage tourists in commercial transactions. Further, the reduction in direct contact that results from these attempts to remove tourists from local areas may indeed reinforce the cultural stereotypes that each group holds about the other. This discussion illustrates the **paradox of resentment** that is faced by tourism managers, wherein tensions can be generated whether destination managers choose to maximise contact between tourists and locals through a strategy of dispersal or to minimise these contacts by pursuing a policy of isolation or containment.

High proportion of tourists relative to the local population

Where the number of tourists is high compared with the resident population, the former may be perceived as a threat that is 'swamping' the destination. Again, the influence of other variables should be considered, as the perceived number of tourists may be inflated by their cultural or racial visibility, or by their concentration within confined boundaries of space or time. An excellent example of this phenomenon occurs in the cruise ship industry when large numbers of passengers are discharged into a port of call. These excursionists tend to concentrate within restricted shopping areas in the central business district for a short period of time, and are usually unaware of and unprepared for the actual sociocultural conditions prevailing in the destination.

Hyperdestinations are the extreme expression of the spatial and temporal distortions that emerge in most tourist destinations under free market conditions (see chapters 4 and 8). The situation is especially acute in tourist shopping villages, on small islands and in remote villages, where even a small number of tourists can be overwhelming. For this reason, managers should be extremely careful about placing too much reliance on ratios that measure the number of locals per tourist or visitor-night over an entire country or state. For example, for Australia as a whole, there were about four residents for every inbound tourist in 2013. However, this statistic is rendered almost meaningless because the number would be much lower for an area such as the Gold Coast (and would vary considerably between the coastal and inland suburbs and between summer and winter), and much higher in inland farming areas.

Rapid growth of tourism

If tourism is growing at a rapid pace, the local society, along with its economy and culture, may not have adequate resilience to effectively adjust to the associated changes. For example, sufficient time may not be available to devise and formalise the necessary backstage/frontstage distinctions. The result can be a growing sense of anxiety and powerlessness within the local community. As with the tourist–host ratio factor, this issue is closely related to the size of the destination — even a small absolute increase in visitor numbers, or the construction of just one mid-sized hotel, can represent high relative growth that challenges the capacities and capabilities of a small destination.

Dependency

Problems are likely to occur if a destination becomes too dependent on tourism, or if the sector is controlled (or is perceived to be controlled) by outside interests. In the first scenario, sociocultural problems occur indirectly as seasonal or cyclical fluctuations in demand generate widespread unemployment or, alternatively, an influx of outside workers (see chapter 8). High levels of control by outside forces, as per the second scenario, are problematic for several reasons, including resentment over the

repatriation of profits and monopolisation of high-status jobs (e.g. hotel managers and owners) by nonlocals. In addition, locals may feel that they are not in control of events that affect their everyday lives. This sense is reinforced by the increased power of large transnational corporations, the instability of small local businesses, and the uncertainty associated with globalisation (see chapter 5).

Different expectations with respect to authenticity

Cultural differences notwithstanding, tourist–resident tensions arise if there is a misunderstanding about the status of a cultural performance or other tourism products in terms of their perceived 'authenticity'. On one level it can be argued that everything, including fake copies of local art, is 'authentic' or 'genuine' because of the simple fact that it exists and conveys a meaning of some kind. However, this view is not helpful, since the concept can then no longer be used to distinguish between different tourism products and experiences. A more conventional view is to consider authentic goods and experiences as those that embody the actual culture (past or present) of the destination community. However, even this is problematic. In the example of the Native American artists noted earlier, is the nontraditional culture that is being practised in the backstage, which represents the contemporary reality of that group of people, any less authentic than the tepee displayed in the frontstage?

One way of approaching the issue is to consider perceptions of authenticity. Four generalised scenarios are possible, as depicted in figure 9.4. In the first scenario, (a), the attraction is presented as authentic and is perceived as such by the visiting tourist. This is the ideal option that is likely to characterise the first two stages of the commodification model outlined earlier. The opposite situation, (b), is also benign in terms of its implications for host–guest relationships. In this scenario, a performance is presented as contrived and is perceived as such by the tourists. While a philosophical argument can be made as to the inherent value or legitimacy of a contrived product, the crucial point is that both parties recognise and accept this contrived status. There is no attempt at deception, and no fundamental misunderstanding among most participants. Disneyworld and Las Vegas are classic examples of venues hosting 'doubly contrived' attractions. In these fantasy worlds, no one believes, or is seriously deceived into believing, that the Magic Kingdom or the Excalibur casino are 'real' — everyone accepts that these are frontstage fantasy environments designed to attract and entertain tourists.

Residents' presentation of attraction	Tourists' perception of attraction	
	Genuine	Contrived
Genuine	(a) Positive impact (both parties recognise authentic nature)	(d) Negative impact (tourists believe that a genuine production is contrived)
Contrived	(c) Negative impact (tourists misled or confused into mistaking the contrived for the genuine)	(b) Positive impact (both parties recognise inauthentic nature)

FIGURE 9.4 Resident tourist cross-perception of attractions

The remaining two scenarios (c) and (d) are discordant and hence more problematic. In scenario (c), the performance is contrived, but tourists believe, through inadvertent (e.g. frontstage is confused with or misinterpreted as backstage) or deliberate reasons (e.g. frontstage is deliberately purveyed as backstage or the two are mixed), that they are viewing something that is genuine. The limbo performance in a Caribbean hotel, the sale of 'genuine' religious artefacts at Lourdes and the 'greeting' given to visitors by 'native' Hawaiian women, are all examples of this perceptual discord. Tourists may emerge from such experiences feeling cheated, embarrassed or exploited. MacCannell (1976) describes as 'staged authenticity' the deliberate attempt to convey contrived culture as authentic.

The opposite situation, (d), occurs when the performance is genuine, but tourists see it as contrived, possibly because of scepticism obtained from previous experience with scenario (c). Residents may be offended when tourists react to a sombre local ceremony, for example, in a disrespectful or flippant manner, as sometimes occurs in the religious events that are held during Carnival time in the Caribbean or Latin America.

Resident reactions

One effect of the cautionary platform was greater interest in the attitudes and perceptions of local residents affected by tourism-related activity. Early theories about this topic hypothesised that reactions to tourism were shared among members of the local community and that these attitudes tended to deteriorate as the level of tourism development increased (Weaver & Lawton 2013). Mounting empirical evidence, however, suggests a far more complex picture. In reality, any community is likely to display a diversity of reactions to tourism at any given stage of development, depending on such factors as the individual resident's personality (e.g. allocentric or midcentric), their proximity to the tourism frontstage, the amount of time they have resided in the destination, their socioeconomic status and whether or not they are employed within the tourism industry. **Social exchange theory** holds that individuals base their support on the degree to which they perceive that the benefits of tourism to themselves and the wider community outweigh the costs (Nunkoo & Gursoy 2012). Alternatively or in conjunction, **social representations theory** contends that people make sense of the world around them, including tourism, through the shared meanings conveyed by the media, social reference groups, and personal experience (Pearce & Chen 2012). Accordingly, if your friends are opposed to tourism, you are more likely to be opposed as well.

The complexities inherent in the tourism assessment process give rise to complex structures of resident opinion. Typically, communities display a range of attitudes from strong support to strong opposition, with most residents falling in between these extremes. An example is provided by the Gold Coast, where about 15 per cent of surveyed residents in 2012 were strongly opposed to the annual Schoolies Week event, while an equal number were strongly supportive. The former regarded the event as a disruptive drinkfest while the latter perceived it as a legitimate rite of passage for students 'letting off steam' before entering their adult life. The remaining 70 per cent of residents were conditional, arguing essentially that most schoolies (high-school graduates) were well behaved and that most problems were caused by a few troublemakers, many of them non-schoolies. They argued that Schoolies Week was fine as long as the festivities were contained both in space and time, and troublemakers apprehended and punished (Weaver & Lawton 2013). Community

support for tourism or specific tourism attractions in most destinations ultimately depends on the strategies and measures taken to ensure that negative impacts are minimised (as for example through development restrictions, zoning, quotas, tourist education programs, infrastructure improvement, limits on non-local ownership, demarketing of undesirable segments) and positive impacts maximised (as for example through beautification programs, revenue-sharing, creation of good jobs for locals). Even among relatively 'powerless' groups such as indigenous people, successful adaptation to increased levels of tourism development is a common phenomenon (Weaver 2010b) (see Contemporary issue: Resilient rural renegades in northern Vietnam).

contemporary issue

RESILIENT RURAL RENEGADES IN NORTHERN VIETNAM

Indigenous people account for about one-half of the 200 million people who live in the uplands of the South-East Asian peninsula. As governments in China, Vietnam and Laos initiate programs to integrate these peripheral regions into their respective national economies, indigenous residents are being forced to alter their traditional ways of life and adjust to new economic realities. An actor-oriented livelihood approach, which maps information flows and relationships among stakeholders (actors) to inform reflection and action, was taken by Turner (2012) to understand how the indigenous Hmong of northern Vietnam negotiated this new economic landscape. Proving to be anything but powerless pawns, the Hmong coped by taking advantage of a number of opportunities. For example, they continued to cultivate an extremely diverse array of traditional and hybrid crops, raise livestock, and gather forest products. However, in response to consumer demand from China, Hmong farmers have also learned to cultivate the spice black cardamom — a valuable cash crop that does not compete with other crops in the farming calendar. When there was governmental encouragement to develop tourism, Hmong women saw an opportunity to sell their colourful textiles to tourists, as they had done during the era of French colonisation before the 1960s. These textiles can be described as 'pseudo-traditional' clothing that is especially attractive because it combines traditional and modern design. Some Hmong women also work as freelance trekking guides, having picked up excellent English in their encounters with tourists in the major regional town of Sa Pa. With a diverse choice of economic options and a reputation for 'working around the rules' if necessary, the Hmong are resilient rural renegades who maintain sustainable livelihoods on their own terms. They are able to shift from one opportunity to another as circumstances warrant, balancing between the formal and informal economies while maintaining the integrity of their traditional culture. While tourist income is desired and realised opportunistically, the Hmong do not consider it indispensible.

ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS

Various environmental benefits have been cited by the advocacy platform as a supplement to the dominant economic benefits. First, whatever specific attractions a destination offers, clean and scenic settings are desirable assets for attracting most kinds of tourist. Destination managers therefore have a permanent incentive to protect and enhance their general environmental assets. Specific events can stimulate this incentive, as when major efforts were made by the Chinese government to reduce air pollution in Beijing during the 2008 Summer Olympic Games so that tourists would not leave China with a negative image of the country (Streets et al. 2007). Second, a relatively unspoiled natural environment is itself a primary attraction in sectors such as ecotourism. It is often the case that the revenues obtained from ecotourism are greater than what could be obtained alternatively from the use of the same land for agriculture or logging, so this creates a strong incentive for its preservation as natural habitat (see chapter 11). Finally, people who experience protected areas and other natural habitats first-hand are often more willing to support the preservation of that land through donations, volunteering and political or social activism. They may also become more sensitive to broader environmental issues. In one sample of ecolodge guests in Lamington National Park, Queensland, 83 per cent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their personal exposure to the national park had made them more conscientious about the environment in their everyday lives (Weaver & Lawton 2002).

ENVIRONMENTAL COSTS

Since 1950, the tourism industry has demonstrated a remarkable capacity to intrude on, and sometimes overwhelm, certain kinds of physical environment, thereby providing contrary evidence to the earlier argument that tourism protects such environments from less benign forms of use. Of particular concern is the effect of 3S tourism on coastal areas, inland bodies of water, the seas, and cruise ship ports of call (see the case study at the end of this chapter). Because of market demands, the developers of 3S accommodation and other tourism facilities try to locate as close as possible to water-based attractions. However, ironically, these high-demand coastal and shoreline settings are also among the most complex, spatially constrained and vulnerable of the Earth's natural environments. In effect, the greatest concentrations of leisure-based tourism activity have been established, within an exceptionally short period of time, in the very settings that are least capable of accommodating such levels of development, leading to situations of continual conflict between people and the natural environment (see Technology and tourism: Coping with sharks in Western Australia).

The sprawling and ever expanding coastal resort agglomerations of eastern Florida, the Riviera, the insular Caribbean and south-east Queensland all demonstrate this dilemma. On a smaller scale, a similar problem is being experienced in fragile mountain environments such as the European Alps, the Australian Alps, the Himalaya and the Rockies (Kessler et al. 2012). Small islands are also highly vulnerable because of their limited environmental resource base, and the fact that just one or two major resort developments can impact on a significant proportion of the total environment. A great problem for tourism is that environmental deterioration, like cultural commodification, may progress to a state where visitors are no longer attracted to the destination — and the destination is then faced with the double dilemma of a degraded environment and a degraded tourism sector (see chapter 10).

technology and tourism

COPING WITH SHARKS IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Several surfers are killed by sharks each year in Western Australian waters, and the state is considered to be one of two world shark attack hotspots (FMNH 2013). Because such attacks generate periodic bursts of negative media publicity that cause some consumers to form a negative destination image, the state government has issued orders to kill sharks that pose an 'imminent threat' to humans. The move was supported by many surfers and operators of tourism businesses (Al Jazeera 2012). The Western Australian government also wants the Commonwealth to remove the great white shark — which is classed as 'vulnerable' — from the protected species category in order to facilitate this aggressive management response and thereby encourage continued tourism development. Environmentalists counter that the real problem is the relentless encroachment of humans on the habitat of sharks, whose feeding grounds have been forced closer to shore by climate change. A related issue is the dramatic decline in world shark populations, 70 million of which are killed each year by humans (Casey 2012). One low-tech solution, the placement of shark nets, traps other marine species and is not practical for certain beach settings. In Western Australia, the government's $7.12 million package to address the shark issue funds not only the killing of sharks, but also aerial patrols (to provide warning) and tagging to better understand shark mobility (Al Jazeera 2012). The use of electronic shark deterrent technologies to reduce the number of attacks is another potential solution being investigated (Oceans Institute 2013). Electronic shark deterrents are devices attached to swimmers and surfers that emit electrical pulses to create an unpleasant sensation in the nasal receptors sharks use to sense the presence of food. The muscular spasms the devices cause do not harm the shark, but they are enough to compel it to flee. Because of the power of the electrical current, such devices are not considered safe for children under 12 or people with serious health conditions. Appropriate applications mean that the sharing of a common habitat by sharks and humans without harm to either is a reasonable possibility, especially as improvements in the technology will likely facilitate participation of young children and people with serious health conditions.

Environmental impact sequence

In the late 1970s the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD 1980) formulated a simple and still relevant four-stage **environmental impact sequence**, which uses a systems approach to model the environmental effects associated with tourism (see figure 9.5):

- **stressor activities** initiate the environmental impact sequence
- **environmental stresses** associated with these activities alter the environment
- **environmental responses** occur as a result of the stresses; these can be immediate or longer term, and direct or indirect
- **human responses** occur as various stakeholders and participants react to the environmental responses; these can also range from immediate to long term, and from direct to indirect. These responses, notably, may themselves be new stressor activities that trigger new environmental stresses and responses.

Four categories of stressor activity ('permanent' environmental restructuring, generation of waste residuals, tourist activities and indirect and induced activities), as described in the following subsections, account for all such impacts.

'Permanent' environmental restructuring

This category encompasses environmental alterations directly related to tourism that are intended to be permanent. Associated stressor activities include the construction of specialised facilities such as resort hotels and theme parks, as well as tourist-dominated golf courses, marinas and airports. Focusing on the construction of a new resort hotel, the following list indicates just some of the possible site-associated environmental stresses:

- clearance of existing natural vegetation to make way for structures, roads and parking areas
- removal of coral to create a passage for pleasure boats
- selective introduction of exotic plants to create aesthetically-pleasing landscaping
- levelling of dunes and other terrain to facilitate construction
- reclamation of natural wetlands such as mangroves or estuaries to expand development footprint
- sand mining on local beaches to reduce costs of importing construction materials
- extraction of groundwater to supply structures.

STAGE A STRESSOR ACTIVITIES
1. Permanent environment restructuring
2. Generation of waste residuals
3. Tourist activities
4. Indirect and induced activities

↓

STAGE B ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSES
What deliberate changes are made?

↓

STAGE C ENVIRONMENTAL RESPONSES
How does the environment respond to those changes?
Short term to long term
Direct to indirect

↓

STAGE D HUMAN RESPONSES TO STAGE C
How do people react to the environmental responses?
Short term to long term
Direct to indirect

FIGURE 9.5 Environmental impact sequence in tourism

Source: Adapted from OECD (1980)

The potential environmental responses to clearance include the reduced biodiversity of native flora and fauna and increased numbers of undesirable and opportunistic exotic plants and animals. Levelling is commonly associated in the short term with soil erosion and landslides, and in the longer term, particularly in more distant locations, with flooding problems due to increased run-off and the raising of streambeds by the downstream deposition of sediments. Also note that sand mining may be carried out at

a considerable distance from the actual development site. It is important to stress that environmental responses are not restricted to the site where restructuring is occurring, but can be realised in faraway locations. This can be problematic for a destination that is itself well managed, but suffers the effects of poor management within, say, an upstream destination that discharges untreated wastes into the river shared by both destinations.

In coastal areas, an adverse environmental impact sequence that interferes with normal geophysical processes is the construction of beach piers to accommodate water-craft. Under normal conditions, the long-term stability of the beachfront is maintained as sand particles removed by lateral offshore currents are replaced by new material eroded from nearby headlands or other beaches and are deposited elsewhere by this same current (see figure 9.6). The effect of constructing a pier (i.e. the environmental stress) is to interrupt this pattern, causing sand to pile up behind the pier in a spit-like formation. Lacking replenishment by this sand, the beach on the other side of the pier is eroded by the modified current. This eventually eliminates portions of the beach, and threatens adjacent resorts and other structures. Possible human responses in the short term include reduced visitor numbers in the eroded beach environment, which would lead to a loss of income in the adjacent resorts. The resort owners could respond by constructing their own small pier to trap sand in front of the resorts. In the longer term, the facilities might have to be abandoned if no countervailing measures are undertaken. Remedial measures relevant to this or other coastal development scenarios include the removal of the pier, the pumping of sand across the pier from the artificial spit to the down-current beach, or the construction of an offshore artificial reef to modify wave action. Each of these options, however, entails its own significant costs and benefits.
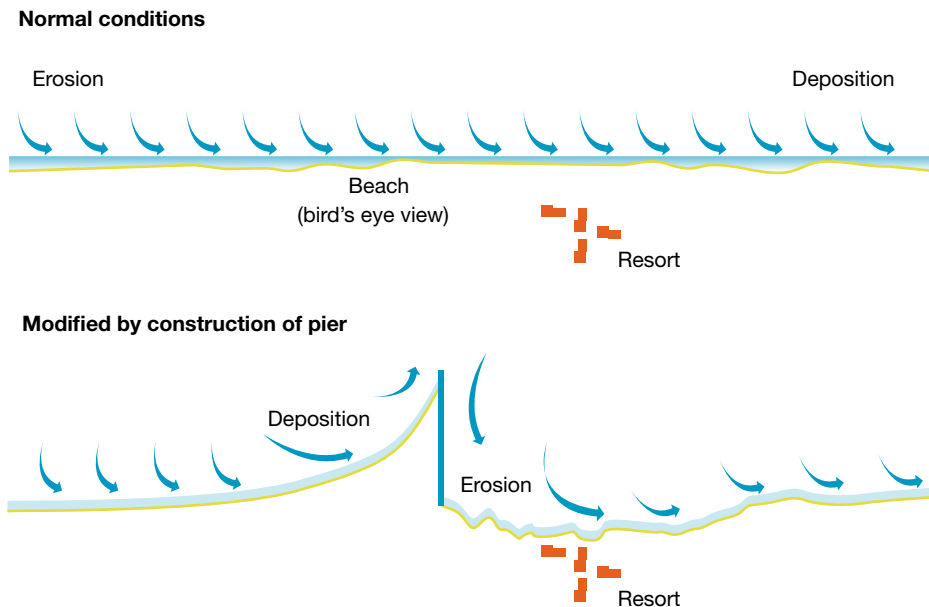
FIGURE 9.6 Environmental impact sequence involving construction of a pier

Generation of waste residuals

Waste residuals in tourism typically include the following:
- blackwater (i.e. raw sewage) and greywater (e.g. water from showers and kitchens)
- garbage (organic and inorganic)

- atmospheric emissions from aircraft, tourist vehicles, lawnmowers, generators and air-conditioners
- noise from aircraft and vehicles
- run-off of fertilisers and pesticides from golf courses and lawns.

Focusing on the first of these stressor activities as an example, blackwater is a significant environmental stress when it is discharged in large quantities directly into a nearby body of water or into a local water table. Environmental responses will probably include localised water contamination, the harming or killing of marine life and a loss in aesthetic appeal. Initial human responses, which include various health problems, will likely lead to reduced visitation unless steps are taken to deal with the problems through the elimination or reduction of the waste itself, or better containment or treatment of the emissions.

In recent years, the issue of atmospheric emissions has been strongly framed by the phenomenon of **climate change**, which is the gradual increase in global surface temperatures that is widely attributed to the release of so-called 'greenhouse gases' by human activity. These increases are expected to have significant negative consequences for many vulnerable locations, and at best inject a high degree of uncertainty into future climate and weather patterns worldwide (IPCC 2014). By some estimates, the global tourism sector accounts for around 5 per cent of all such emissions, symbolised perhaps most cogently by the airline industry (Becken & Hay 2012). Tourism-related human responses to climate change have mitigation as well as adaptation components, and the extent to which one or the other is pursued depends largely on the severity and imminence of the expected impacts.

With respect to adaptation, pleasure periphery destinations in particular have been implicated as sites of high concern given that coastal environments, along with alpine areas, are expected to be among the environments most impacted by the effects of climate change. This will likely occur through rising sea levels, increasingly intensive and more numerous storms, and groundwater contamination in the first case, and through the loss of snow cover in the second (Becken & Hay 2012). Adaptation includes the adjustments that are made in response to such perceived threats by industry (e.g. stronger building codes for seaside hotels, alternative activities for longer off-seasons in ski resorts), but also the decisions made by potential tourists. Consumers, for example, may believe media reports that the Great Barrier Reef is dying due to higher water temperatures, and decide instead to visit cooler water reefs in higher latitude locations. In such a case, industry adaptation must then also include public education and/or investment in destinations adjacent to more resilient coral populations or higher altitude snowfields. One important implication of climate change is that destinations can potentially be devastated by this global process regardless of how environmentally sustainable they are at the local level. Climate change may prove in coming years to be the ultimate test of resilience for many low-lying and alpine destinations.

Tourist activities

There is a relatively large body of literature on the effects of tourist activity on various natural environments (Buckley 2004; Newsome, Moore & Dowling 2013). Associated stressor activities in tourism include:

- walking on coral reefs
- disturbing aquatic sediments by divers and boaters
- trampling vegetation
- littering

- approaching wildlife
- pedestrian or vehicular traffic congestion
- consuming food and other resources
- elimination of bodily wastes directly into water or soil.

While some of the environmental stress results from actions of a deliberately destructive nature (e.g. littering, harassment of wildlife or destroying vegetation with an off-road vehicle), apparently benign acts also cause damage when their cumulative impact exceeds local environmental carrying capacities. Examples include trail erosion and disruption of wildlife resulting from too much hiking or wildlife-viewing activity. Even more insidious is the inadvertent introduction of potentially harmful pathogens into remote areas by hikers, backpackers and other tourists. Buckley, King and Zubrinich (2004), for example, describe how spores of the jarrah dieback pathogen (*Phytophthora cinnamomi*), which can destroy 50–75 per cent of plant species in some Australian plant communities, are readily dispersed by off-road vehicles, trail bikes, mountain bikes, hiking boots and horses. Solutions to contain this spread, such as the quarantine of unaffected areas or the complete sterilisation of all equipment, vehicles and clothing before entering such areas, are prohibitively expensive, excessive or basically ineffective. Another human response is to provide educational material to tourists, but a program to do so in Victoria to contain the spread of cinnamon fungus — another pathogen devastating to native vegetation — was unsuccessful. At the start of the program in 1993, 81 per cent of sampled park visitors were unaware of the fungus, and the figure was essentially unchanged at 83 per cent in a follow-up 2003 survey (Boon, Fluker & Wilson 2008).

In a coastal context, the negative effects of tourist activity on coral reefs are well documented and widespread (Cater & Cater 2007; Lück 2008). Notably, serious damage such as coral breakage is attributable mostly to inadvertent and often unavoidable activities such as contact with fins and sedimentation caused by fin agitation (Poonian, Davis & McNaughton 2010). Such impacts can be only partially controlled by diver education and skills enhancement, and hence it is likely that increases in coral damage will be commensurate with increases in the amount of diving activity that occurs in a particular site.

Indirect and induced activities

In earlier discussions on tourism revenue and employment (see chapter 8), the concept of ongoing indirect and induced impacts was noted. A similar effect applies to the stressor activities associated with the environmental impact sequence. Road improvements or airport expansions that occur because of tourism are examples of indirect permanent environmental restructuring. Induced effects include the construction of houses for people who have moved into an area to work in the tourist industry, and **amenity migrants** who move to an area for lifestyle purposes after experiencing that area as a tourist.

The indirect and induced effects of tourism at a global scale are enormous, given the number of facilities that are at least partly affiliated with tourism, and the number of people who are employed in the tourism industry or are dependent on those who are. It is evident, for example, that most of the inland (and non-tourism oriented) suburbs of Queensland's Gold Coast and Sunshine Coast would never have been developed had it not been for the presence of tourism as a propulsive industry and generator of regional wealth. However, as with revenue and employment, it is difficult to measure the extent of tourism-related effects on such 'external' environments when the interrelationship is not immediate and direct.

Ecological footprinting

Increased concerns over climate change and other environmental impacts of tourism have prompted attempts to calculate the **ecological footprint (EF)** of various types of tourism activity. An EF is the measurement of the resource exploitation that is required and the wastes that are generated to sustain a particular type of tourist or tourism activity, such as an aeroplane trip, festival, or stay in a resort hotel (Filimonau et al. 2011, Hunter & Shaw 2007). An increasingly popular subtype is the carbon footprint, which focuses on the greenhouse gases generated by such activity. The purpose of ecological footprinting is firstly to identify with as much precision as possible the resource and waste implications of the target activity over time, and then to use this information to generate awareness of the problem and devise appropriate mitigation responses. Given the complexity of tourism systems, it is not surprising that EF is an imperfect science, especially if the sponsoring body intends to take into account the indirect and induced impacts of tourism, as well as the normal residence footprint that is temporarily eliminated when one travels. Nevertheless, well-developed EF indices are effective in confronting consumers and businesses with seemingly convincing evidence of their environmental impacts, and thereby increasing the likelihood of some kind of mitigating action.

Management implications of sociocultural and environmental impacts

All deliberations on impact — whether environmental or sociocultural — should be informed by the following critical observations:

- *All* tourism-related activity causes a certain amount of stress, and this stress is likely to include both positive and negative effects for different stakeholders. At any stage of tourism development, an affected community will display a very diverse range of attitudes toward tourism, and a majority of residents will usually recognise the existence of concurrent benefits and costs.
- The critical issue therefore is not whether stress can be avoided altogether, but whether the net effects are acceptable to most residents or can be reduced to an acceptable level through proactive management strategies, including trade-offs between costs and benefits, and personal or collective adjustment strategies. Acceptability is fundamentally influenced by the perception of benefits received — residents normally try to realise optimum benefits, but a high level of environmental or sociocultural stress may be tolerated in exchange for significant job and revenue opportunities for the local community. It may also be reasoned that the negative environmental or sociocultural impacts of tourism are less than those that would result from alternative economic activities such as logging.
- Stress is linked to carrying capacity, which varies from site to site, and is a malleable concept that can be manipulated through site hardening, the formal designation of frontstage/backstage distinctions and other adaptive measures. Ecosystems, as with cultures and societies, have different levels of resilience and adaptability. Thus, a concentration of 500 tourists in a closed-canopy temperate forest would probably have no discernible impact on that environment, but could seriously disrupt an Antarctic site. However, even within the same type of environment (e.g. a tropical rainforest or a coral reef), site-specific carrying capacity will be influenced by variables such as slope, biodiversity, soil type and hydrology. Generalisations about carrying capacity should, therefore, be made with great caution.

- Finally, carrying capacities are often extremely difficult to identify, since stress and its impact are not always dramatic and site-specific — that is, they can be incremental, long term or evident in places far removed from the site. A large resort destination such as the Gold Coast may appear to be functioning within local environmental carrying capacities, until a 100-year cyclone event destroys the community because of alterations to the protective dune and estuarine environments that occurred over previous decades. Similarly, a local community may appear to be coexisting peacefully with an adjacent enclave resort, until one particular incident triggers a violent community-wide reaction against that resort. As discussed in more detail in chapter 11, a strong element of uncertainty and ambiguity must always be taken into account when attempting to identify the long-term costs and benefits of tourism in any destination.
- Resilience is perhaps the most important attribute for destinations, communities, families and individuals to acquire, so that they can maximise the benefits and minimise the costs of inherently complex and unpredictable tourism systems.

CHAPTER REVIEW

This chapter has considered an array of sociocultural and environmental impacts potentially associated with the development of tourism. The major sociocultural benefits involve tourism's potential to promote cross-cultural understanding, to function as an incentive to preserve a destination's culture and historical heritage and to foster wellbeing and stability within the local society. These advantages were cited by the advocacy platform as secondary benefits to the all-important economic consequences. Sociocultural costs, as emphasised by the cautionary platform, can occur through the gradual commodification of culture. Commodification occurs when the local culture becomes more commercialised and modified, as local residents respond to the opportunities provided by the increased intake of visitors. Prostitution is a one extreme of this process. Other aspects involve the sociocultural consequences of the tourism demonstration effect, and the direct and indirect connections between tourism and crime, wherein tourists and residents can both be victims or perpetrators.

Negative sociocultural impacts that may eventually breach a destination's carrying capacity are more likely to occur in a destination when there is inequality in material wealth between the residents and tourists, strong cultural differentiation and a tendency on the part of tourists to adhere strongly to their own culture. Other factors include tourist–resident contacts that are overly intrusive or exclusive, the extent to which residents are able to differentiate between 'backstage' and 'frontstage' spaces, a high proportion of tourists to residents, an overly rapid pace of tourism growth, a level of dependency on tourism and external control over the same, and differential expectations as to the meaning and authenticity of cultural and historical products. Resident reactions to increasing tourism development — formerly regarded as a simple and collective linear progression from euphoria to antagonism — are complex, with data indicating that communities hold diverse and often ambivalent perceptions about tourism at all stages of development. These perceptions largely depend on the degree to which individuals perceive benefits and costs from tourism, and are influenced by media, other social reference groups or personal experiences. Residents, in most cases, have considerable capacities to pre-empt or change inappropriate tourism activity, or to adapt accordingly.

The main environmental benefit associated with tourism is its provision of incentives for the protection of natural resources that would probably otherwise be subject to less benign forms of exploitation. However, the environmental impact sequence suggests that tourism development itself may produce negative consequences. This sequence is a four-stage process involving the appearance of stressor activities, environmental stresses that result from these activities, environmental responses to those stresses and human reactions to the responses. The four inclusive categories of stressor activities are permanent environmental restructuring, the generation of waste residuals, tourist activities and indirect and induced activities associated with tourism. Empirical evidence for topical phenomena such as climate change suggests that these impacts can often be subtle, indirect, delayed and evident in regions far removed from the location of the original stress, thereby making the calculation of applicable ecological footprints a complicated process.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Amenity migrants people who move to an area because of its recreational and lifestyle amenities, including comfortable weather and beautiful scenery; amenity migrants are usually first exposed to such places through their own tourist experiences

Backstage the opposite of frontstage; areas of the destination where personal or intragroup activities occur, such as noncommercialised cultural performances. A particular space may be designated as either frontstage or backstage depending on the time of day or year

Carrying capacity the amount of tourism activity (e.g. number of visitors, amount of development) that can be accommodated without incurring serious harm to a destination; distinctions can be made between social, cultural and environmental carrying capacity, all of which can be adjusted with appropriate management

Climate change the gradual increase in global surface temperatures that is usually attributed to the excessive release of heat-trapping greenhouse gases through human activity such as the burning of fossil fuels; human responses are usually divided into distinctive adaptation and mitigation categories

Commodification in tourism, the process whereby a destination's culture is gradually converted into a saleable commodity or product in response to the perceived or actual demands of the tourist market

Ecological footprint (EF) the measurement of the resources that are required and wastes generated in sustaining a particular type of tourist or tourism activity

Environmental impact sequence a four-stage model formulated by the OECD to account for the impacts of tourism on the natural environment

Environmental responses the way that the environment reacts to the stresses, both in the short and long term, and both directly and indirectly

Environmental stresses the deliberate changes in the environment that are entailed in the stressor activities

Frontstage explicitly or tacitly recognised spaces within the destination that are mobilised for tourism purposes such as commodified cultural performances

Gross national happiness (GNH) an index used officially by the government of Bhutan to measure development, based on principles of equity, environmental sustainability, cultural preservation and good governance

Human responses the reactions of individuals, communities, the tourism industry, tourists, NGOs and governments to the various environmental responses

Paradox of resentment the idea that problems of resentment and tension can result whether tourists are integrated with, or isolated from, the local community

Social exchange theory the idea that support for tourism is based on each individual's assessment of the personal and societal costs and benefits that result from this activity

Social representations theory the tendency of individuals to make sense of the world around them through the shared meanings conveyed by the media, social reference groups, and personal experience

Stressor activities activities that initiate the environmental impact sequence; these can be divided into permanent environmental restructuring, the generation of waste residuals, tourist activities and indirect and induced activities

Tourist–historic city an urban place where the preservation of historical districts helps to sustain and is at least in part sustained by a significant level of tourist activity

Volunteer tourism a form of tourism involving extended visits to places where the volunteers assist with designated aid or research projects

◼ QUESTIONS

1 Is it naïve to believe that tourism functions as a force for world peace? Explain your reasons.

2 (a) Is commodification always a negative impact of tourism for destinations? Why?

   (b) What strategies can a destination adopt to minimise its negative effects while maximising its benefits?

3 (a) How can the demonstration effect indicate both the weakness and strength of the individual or society in which it is occurring?

   (b) How could destination managers mobilise the demonstration effect so that it has positive effects on the society and culture of the destination?

4 Is an allocentric tourist more likely to be the victim of crime in a destination than a psychocentric tourist? Explain your reasons.

5 (a) Why is the issue of tourist dispersal versus concentration referred to as a management paradox?

   (b) What can destination managers do about this paradox?

6 What are the difficulties of using 'authenticity' as an indicator of tourism's sociocultural impacts within a destination?

7 Why do resident attitudes toward tourism development tend to be very diverse and complex?

8 (a) Why has climate change emerged as such a high profile public issue?

   (b) How much should the developers and managers of a tourism facility be required to take responsibility for the generation of emissions that help to induce climate change?

9 (a) How is ecological footprinting related to the environmental impact sequence?

   (b) What are the strengths and weaknesses of ecological footprinting?

10 Is killing sharks the best response to situations where they pose a threat to tourists? Why?

■ EXERCISES

1 Sex tourism and volunteer tourism represent two contrasting forms of tourism. Write a 1000-word report in which you counterintuitively:

   (a) speculate on the likely *positive* sociocultural, economic and environmental impacts associated with sex tourism (for example, in Amsterdam's red light district), and

   (b) consider the likely *negative* sociocultural, economic and environmental impacts associated with volunteer tourism (for example, a scenario involving a volunteer organisation with a humanitarian focus).

2 You are the manager of a regional theme park and have been asked by the owners to devise a strategy for offsetting the resources and wastes generated by your facility.

   (a) List the variables that would you include in an ecological footprint calculator designed for this purpose.

   (b) Describe how data for each variable would be quantified and measured.

■ FURTHER READING

Becken, S. & Hay, J. 2012. *Climate Change and Tourism: From Policy to Practice*. London: Routledge. This book provides a state-of-the-art discussion of issues and advances related to climate change and tourism; includes adaptation as well as mitigation perspectives; and illustrates its arguments using diverse case studies from around the world.

Buckley, R. (Ed.) 2004. *Environmental Impacts of Tourism*. Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing. The 25 chapters in this book focus mainly on Australia, and

encompass an array of outdoor nature-based activities within a variety of physical environments. Several chapters provide comprehensive literature reviews of impacts associated with specific activities.

Cole, S. & Morgan, N. (Eds) 2010. *Tourism and Inequality: Problems and Prospects*. **Wallingford: CABI.** The parameters of tourism as an agent of inequity and equity are explored, with attention to disabilities, human rights, ethics and poverty reduction.

Moufakkir, O. & Kelly, I. (Eds) 2010. *Tourism, Progress and Peace*. **Wallingford: CABI.** Identifying and learning from examples where tourism fosters peace is a major theme of this book, along with a critical assessment of the proposition that peace can be achieved through tourism.

Newsome, D., Moore, S. & Dowling, R. 2013. *Natural Area Tourism: Ecology, Impacts and Management*. **Second Edition. Bristol: Channel View.** This updated and comprehensive edition examines relevant stressor activities, the associated environmental stresses, and subsequent environmental and human responses, toward the objective of nature-based tourism outcomes that satisfy visitors while maintaining the integrity of vital ecological processes.

Smith, V. (Ed.) 2001. *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism*. **Third Edition. New York: Cognizant Communications.** Smith's edited volume of 14 contributions is considered one of the classics in the field of the anthropology of tourism. Most of the case studies are taken from LDCs or peripheral destinations within the MDCs.

case study

CRUISING FOR TROUBLE?

Many major coastal and river destinations regard cruise ship visits as a lucrative and desirable component of their product mix, and compete aggressively for their business. Cruising is undoubtedly a rapidly-growing industry, experiencing 7.4 per cent annual growth in passengers worldwide over the period 1990–2008 (Brida & Zapata 2010), and involving over 20 million passengers in 2012 (Florida-Caribbean Cruise Association 2013). Onshore expenditures by passengers and crew are a major attraction for destinations, with research in the Adriatic Sea ports of Croatia showing that such expenditures amount to 32–84 euros per person per port (Marušić, Horak & Tomljenović 2009). Cruisers who are satisfied with a port's safety and value for money are also more likely to say that they will return in future as a stayover and will recommend the port to others (Brida et al. 2012). The trend toward megaships has only increased their popularity with destinations, since the largest ships are capable of accommodating almost 8000 potential visitors (including passengers and crew members).

Critics of the cruise industry counterargue that the larger ships in particular are essentially floating enclave destinations in which operators strive to extract as high a percentage of passenger expenditures as possible to achieve profitability. They do

this by offering a huge array of onboard spending opportunities beyond the basic package price — including casinos, alcoholic drinks, additional-cost restaurants, and numerous retail shops. 'Cruise-only' days at sea are especially lucrative because they ensure a captive audience for additional onboard expenditures. Such internal revenue capture, which employs sophisticated techniques of subliminal persuasion and enticement, extends to the ports-of-call through the provision of onshore excursion packages, stops at islands owned or leased by the cruise lines, and preferential commission arrangements with selected port-of-call shops and services. Such onshore capture allows the cruise ship tourist bubble to divert even more revenues from local businesses not connected with the cruise line (Weaver, A. 2005).

Critics emphasise that cruise ships incur numerous social and environmental costs beyond local resentment over these expenditure capture strategies. For passengers and crew, the bubble effect can incubate outbreaks of contagious diseases such as the Norwalk virus (Weaver, A. 2005). Cruise ship employment is associated with low wages, extremely long work days, employment insecurity, isolation from family, and tensions within a culturally diverse workforce. Accordingly, some activists have described cruise ships as floating sweatshops, though this underbelly is largely invisible to passengers (Klein 2006). The implementation of better employee conditions and rights is hindered by the practice of registering ships under flags-of-convenience such as Liberia, and by the length of time spent on high seas (i.e. the area outside of a country's territorial waters) where national labour laws do not apply. For port-of-call residents, the crowding, congestion and disruption that occur when one or more large cruise ships disembark their passengers can lead to frustration and anger. Evidence from Croatia, however, indicates widespread willingness to tolerate such inconveniences because of the perceived economic benefits that the passengers provide (Marušić, Horak & Tomljenović 2009).

The cruise industry has also long maintained a bad environmental reputation. During the 1990s, major cruise lines were levied numerous fines for dumping garbage and oil into the sea, damaging coral reefs with anchors, and other infractions — many of them publicised in the media. Even where no ill intent is evident, megaships face major logistical challenges in responsibly managing the wastes produced by the equivalent of a small town. Almost 4 million litres of greywater from sinks and showers are produced during a typical 7-day cruise and this can be legally dumped almost anywhere in the sea. Blackwater (i.e. sewage) — 400 000 litres of which will typically be produced during the same cruise (Ocean Conservancy 2002) — is subject to greater restriction, but can still be dumped in the high seas, where it is assumed to be quickly diluted. Air pollution can be a problem for ports-of-call when docked ships continue to run their own engines instead of plugging into shoreside electrical grids (Sweeting & Wayne 2006), while a less obvious impact is increased mortality among migrating birds attracted to the glowing night lights of cruise ships (Bocetti 2011).

The environmental performance of the industry appears to be improving through the increased adoption of formal green initiatives. Royal Caribbean, for example, has an 'Above and Beyond Compliance' (ABC) policy that includes adoption of ISO international environmental management systems and the assignment to every ship of an environmental officer to oversee the onboard environmental program, train crew, manage liquid and hazardous wastes, and oversee workplace safety (RCI 2012). A parallel 'Save Our Seas' program encourages onboard recycling. Nevertheless, the environmental organisation

Friends of the Earth in their 2012 report card gave a failing grade to 4 of 15 cruise lines on their sewage treatment practices and to 10 of 15 for their lack of progress on air pollution (FOE 2012). One major purpose of the reporting is to give consumers information about choosing a 'green' cruise line and ship, although the actual influence this has on consumers is unclear.

While attention has been focused on megaships in the 3S pleasure periphery, *luxury expedition cruises* have also come under scrutiny. Such ships usually carry around 100 high-yield passengers to remote locations such as the Canadian Arctic (Maher 2012) and the Top End of Australia, focusing on exploration, adventure and education (Scherrer, Smith & Dowling 2011). However, their presence in, for example, a small traditional Inuit village of 100 people on Baffin Island, can still have major unintended social and environmental ramifications. Much depends on the tour guides' knowledge of local conditions and their ability to communicate appropriate behavioural messages to excursionists. The following field journal excerpt is a good example of observed good practice during an expedition cruise:

> Visit to rock art site: extensive pre-activity briefing advising of length and difficulty of site access and cultural site context and importance. Active group management on approach with designated group leader and end person. Interpretation of natural features on way to site. On-site briefing providing minimal impact tips and reasons for such an approach. A person touching the rock art was immediately made aware of their transgression and all clients were reminded of appropriate behaviour. Transgressing client apologises and group later observed to self-correct in similar instances (Scherrer et al. 2011: 1221).

QUESTIONS

1 Using the respective company websites, write a 1000-word report in which you:
   (a) compare and contrast the content of the environmental and social policies and practices of Royal Caribbean and Carnival, the world's two largest cruise companies
   (b) compare and contrast the extent to which these policies and practices are communicated to potential and actual cruise passengers
   (c) designate the company that you believe demonstrates the most responsible behaviour, and explain the reasons for your selection.
2 Using a travel website where users generate reviews (e.g. TripAdvisor), write a report in which you:
   (a) analyse the text of these commentaries to identify any comments about environmental or social impacts related to the commentators' cruise experiences
   (b) discuss what your results say about the environmental and social awareness of cruise ship passengers.

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10

Destination development

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 discuss the relevance and implications of the destination cycle concept for tourism managers

2 outline the destination cycle as described in the Butler sequence

3 explain how different elements of the tourism experience — such as the multiplier effect, stages of commodification and psychographic segmentation — can be incorporated into the destination cycle

4 critique the strengths and limitations of the Butler sequence, and of the destination cycle concept in general, as a device to assist destination managers

5 categorise the factors that contribute to changes in the destination cycle, and assess the extent to which destination managers can influence these factors

6 explain how tourism development at a national scale can be described as a combined process of contagious and hierarchical spatial diffusion

7 describe how the destination cycle concept can be accommodated within the pattern of tourism development that occurs at the national scale.

INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters considered the economic, sociocultural and environmental costs and benefits that are potentially associated with tourism, primarily from a destination perspective. All tourism activity induces change within a destination, and this usually involves a combination of both costs and benefits for all stakeholders. Whether the net impacts are positive or negative for the destination overall or for particular stakeholders depends on a variety of factors, including the destination's level of economic development and diversity, its sociocultural and physical carrying capacity, and, critically, the amount, rate and type of tourism development relative to these internal factors. This chapter examines the process of destination development in more detail, by integrating the content of earlier chapters on impacts, markets, destinations and tourism products. The following section considers the concept of the destination cycle, and focuses specifically on the Butler sequence, which is the most frequently cited manifestation. This section also provides a critique of the model, and examines the factors that can contribute to changes in the destination cycle. The dynamics of tourism development at a national scale, which are usually not adequately described by the cycle concept as represented by the Butler sequence, are then considered. The concept of spatial diffusion is presented as an alternative model that more accurately describes the evolution of tourism at a national scale.

DESTINATION CYCLE

The idea that destinations experience a predictable evolution is embodied in the concept of the **destination cycle**. This theory, to the extent that it is demonstrated to have widespread relevance to the real world, is of great interest to tourism managers, who would then know where a particular destination is positioned within the cycle at a given point in time and what implications this has for the future if no intervention is undertaken. The destination cycle, this latter clause suggests, should not be regarded as an unavoidable process, but rather one that can be redirected through appropriate management measures to realise the ecologically and socioculturally sustainable outcomes that are desired by destination stakeholders (see chapter 11).

Allusions to the idea of a destination cycle were made in the early tourism literature, as illustrated in the following 1963 quotation by Walter Christaller, a famous geographer:

> The typical course of development has the following pattern. Painters search out untouched unusual places to paint. Step by step the place develops as a so-called artist colony. Soon a cluster of poets follows, kindred to the painters; then cinema people, gourmets, and the jeunesse dorée. The place becomes fashionable and the entrepreneur takes note. The fisherman's cottage, the shelter-huts become converted into boarding houses and hotels come on the scene. Meanwhile the painters have fled and sought out another periphery . . . More and more townsmen choose this place, now en vogue and advertised in the newspapers. Subsequently, the gourmets, and all those who seek real recreation, stay away. At last the tourist agencies come with their package rate travelling parties; now, the indulged public avoids such places. At the same time, in other places the same cycle occurs again; more and more places come into fashion, change their type, turn into everybody's tourist haunt (Christaller 1963, p. 103).

During the 1970s, early theorists in resident attitudes, commodification and psychographics also implied the existence of a destination cycle, though their research

focused only on specific aspects of that progression rather than the macro-process (see chapter 9). Resident attitudes, for example, were assumed to progress from euphoric to antagonistic as tourism progressively overwhelmed the destination. Concurrently, it was believed that a shift from allocentric to psychocentric tourists occurred. None of these theorists, however, integrated these ideas into a larger tourism systems framework.

The Butler sequence

Influenced by this earlier research, Butler in 1980 presented his S-shaped resort cycle model, or **Butler sequence**, which proposes that tourist destinations tend to experience five distinct stages of growth (i.e. exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation) under free market and sustained demand conditions (Butler 1980). Depending on the response of destination managers to the onset of stagnation, various scenarios are then possible, including continued stagnation, decline and/or rejuvenation (see figure 10.1). Although usually not stated in applications of the model, the Butler sequence assumes a sufficient level of demand to fuel its progression, as per the 'push' factors outlined in chapter 3.
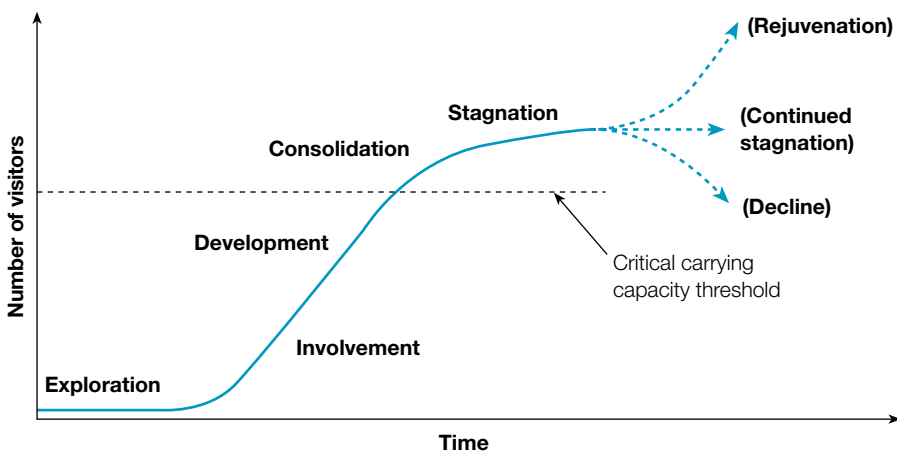
FIGURE 10.1 The Butler sequence

Source: Butler (1980)

Before describing the stages in more detail, it is important to stress that the Butler sequence has become one of the most cited and applied models within the field of tourism studies. Its longstanding appeal is based on several factors, some of which merit mention here, and others that will be elaborated on in the critique that follows the presentation of the stages.

First, the model is structurally simple, being based on a concept — the product lifecycle curve — that has long been used by economists and marketers to describe the behaviour of the market in purchasing consumer goods such as televisions and cars. The reader will also note its superficial similarity to the pattern of population growth depicted in the demographic transition model (see figure 3.5). Its simplicity and prior applications to areas such as marketing and demography make Butler's resort cycle curve accessible and attractive, as well as readily applicable using available data such as visitor arrivals or a surrogate such as accommodation units.

Second, Butler's model has intuitive appeal, in that anyone who has travelled extensively or who has conducted tourism research will agree that some kind of cyclical dynamic is indeed evident in most destinations.

Third, the Butler sequence is a comprehensive, integrated model that allows for the simultaneous incorporation of all facets of tourism in a destination beyond the visitor numbers that are used to construct the curve. Table 10.1 summarises the more important of these facets in terms of their relationship to the first five stages of the model and forms the basis for the following discussion of the individual stages. Finally, it appears to be universally applicable, in that there is nothing inherent in its structure that restricts its relevance to only certain types of destination or environment, at least at a localised scale.

TABLE 10.1 Changing characteristics as proposed by the Butler sequence

Variable	Exploration	Involvement	Development	Consolidation/ stagnation
Status of the destination within the tourism system	Peripheral	Early incorporation	Integration	Full integration
Rate of growth in visitation	None (low-level equilibrium)	Slow growth	Rapid growth	None (high-level equilibrium)
Spatial pattern of tourism activity	Dispersed	Nodes of concentration	Concentrated	Highly concentrated
Attractions	Cultural/natural, unique to destination	Mainly cultural/ natural	Mainly specialised tourist orientation	Specialised and contrived tourist orientation; generic
Ownership of operations	Local	Local, some non-local	Mainly non-local	Non-local
Accommodation	No specialised accommodation	Small-scale, unobtrusive	Mainly large-scale	Large-scale 'international' style
Market origins	Diverse	Less diverse	Dominant markets emerge	Dominant markets
Psychographics of market	Allocentric	Allocentric– midcentric	Midcentric– psychocentric	Psychocentric
Seasonality	None	Emergent	Seasonal	Highly seasonal
Length of stay	Extended	Relatively long	Relatively short	Brief
Economic status of tourism	Insignificant	Minor, supplementary	Dominant	Overwhelming dependency
Tourism-derived revenue	Insignificant and stable	Small and growing	Large and growing	Large and stable
Multiplier effect	Extremely high	High	Declining	Low
Linkages	Local	Mainly local	Mainly non-local	Non-local
Leakages	None	Minor	High	Very high
Commodification of attractions	Noncommercial, 'authentic'	Somewhat commercial, mainly authentic	Commercial, increasingly contrived	Highly commercial, contrived
Resident attitudes	Pre-euphoria	Euphoria	Apathy (early), annoyance (later)	Antagonism, then resignation
Environmental stress	Very low	Low but increasing	High	Very high

Exploration

According to Butler, the **exploration** stage is characterised by very small numbers of visitors who are dispersed throughout the destination and remain for an extended period of time. The tourism 'industry' as such does not exist, as the negligible visitor numbers do not merit the establishment of any specialised facilities or services. The tourists themselves are adventurous, allocentric types who are drawn by what they perceive to be authentic and 'unspoiled' pre-commodified cultural and natural attractions. These visitors arrive from a wide variety of sources and are not influenced significantly by seasonality. Although the absolute revenue obtained from the tourists in the exploration stage is very small, linkages with the local economy are extensive because of their desire to consume interesting local products, and hence the multiplier effect is large. For this reason, and because the locals maintain control, the relationship with tourists is mostly cordial, and the tourists tend to be treated either as curiosities or honoured guests. These attitudes may be described as pre-euphoric, in that tourism is not yet making a large enough impact to substantially benefit the economy of the destination.

In essence, exploration is a kind of informal 'pre-tourism' stage where visitors must accommodate themselves to the services and facilities that already exist in the area to serve local residents. For example, tourists have to shop in the local market and travel by the local bus system. From a systems perspective, the exploration-stage destination is only peripherally and informally connected to any origin or transit regions.

On a worldwide scale, the number of places that display exploration-type dynamics is rapidly diminishing due to the explosive growth of tourism since 1950. The remaining exploration-stage places largely coincide first with wilderness or semi-wilderness areas where any kind of formal economic activity is absent, rudimentary or focused on some specialised primary activity such as mining or forestry. Most of the Australian interior and northern coast, aside from urban areas and certain high-profile national parks, is in the exploration stage. A similar logic applies to many locations within northern Canada, the Amazon Basin, Siberia and central Asia, Antarctica, Greenland and the Congo River Basin in Africa. Residual exploration-stage locations also include settled areas that lack tourism activity due to conditions of war or civil unrest (e.g. Afghanistan), inaccessibility imposed internally or externally (e.g. North Korea and Iraq before the US invasion, respectively) or a general combined lack of significant pull effects (e.g. large parts of rural China and India). A complicating factor is that exploration-type dynamics might apply to one group of tourists in a particular destination but not to others (see Managing tourism: Two-track tourism in Iraq?).

managing tourism

TWO-TRACK TOURISM IN IRAQ?

War and tourism share an unusual relationship in which the former has the initial effect of destroying the latter, but then stimulates longer term tourism development through the establishment of dark tourism attractions, and markets (returning combatants and their families) drawn to those attractions years later. The small but growing leisure tourism sector in Iraq was destroyed by the invasion of United States and allied troops in 2003. Although the 'victorious' allies withdrew in late 2011, Iraq has remained a place of persistent sectarian conflict and instability that is not conducive to the renewal of leisure tourism for Western travellers. Nevertheless, there is ample evidence of exploration-type activity that may pave the way for redevelopment. Several

A tourist poses with Iraqi-provided security

adventure tour companies, for example, are offering tours to iconic sites such as the ruins of Babylon and other sites of the ancient civilisations of the Fertile Crescent (an arc-shaped region where agriculture is thought to have been first practised). Kurdish-controlled areas in the north-east in particular are considered to be the most stable in the country. One tour operator claimed in 2009 that participants had very positive impressions of Iraq, which they communicated through social media and word-of-mouth recommendations, paving the way for other allocentrics (Rivera 2009). For its part, Iraq attended the World Travel Market Exhibition in London for the first time in 2009; however, it continues to face reluctant foreign investors and continued insecurity (Riviera 2009). As a result, less than 200 Western tourists visited Iraq in 2012, with the tourism minister citing a 'complicated' situation of decaying infrastructure and the need to have armed guards posted at attractions and accompanying tour groups (Dreazen 2012). Because credit cards are not yet accepted, tourists are common targets for criminals because they need to carry large amounts of cash. Such concerns, however, have not dissuaded the more than one million Shi'ite pilgrim tourists from Iran and elsewhere who visited Iraq in 2012, triggering a hotel construction boom in the holy cities of Najaf and Karbala (Dreazen 2012). Could it be that two parallel destination cycles are in play in Iraq?

Involvement

Several developments characterise Butler's **involvement** stage.

- Local entrepreneurs begin to provide a limited amount of specialised services and facilities in response to the regular appearance of tourists, thereby inaugurating an incipient and, at first, largely informal tourism industry. These services and facilities typically consist of small guesthouses and inns, and eating places; and include the provision of guides, small tour operations and a few small semi-commercial attractions. Often, residents simply make one or two rooms within their houses available for a nominal fee.
- This incipient and still largely informal tourism sector begins to show signs of concentration within local settlements, transportation gateways or near tourist attractions. However, the sector is still small-scale, and has little visual or environmental impact on the landscape.
- The visitor intake begins to increase slowly in response to these local initiatives, ending the low-level equilibrium of visitor arrivals that characterised the exploration stage.

Because tangible economic benefits are increasing and control is local, the involvement stage is associated with strongly positive community attitudes toward tourism. However, the growing intake is already mediated to some extent by the formal tourism system, thereby opening the way for non-local participation and for greater numbers of midcentric tourists. For example, while some backpackers and academics might still arrive by walking or by four-wheel drive or relatively primitive local transport, others of a less adventurous persuasion begin to arrive by mini-vans provided by tour operators in a nearby city or by small aeroplane. These developments indicate that the area is gradually becoming more integrated into the tourism system, with formal businesses becoming more involved because of the increased tourist demand. Concurrently,

residents begin to consciously or subconsciously demarcate backstage and frontstage spaces and times to cope with the growing number of visitors, and are more conscious of the possibilities for commodification.

Factors that trigger the involvement stage

The factors that trigger the transition from exploration to involvement can be either internal or external. Internal forces are those that arise from within the destination community itself, such as the adventurous entrepreneur who builds and advertises a new kind of attraction as a way of inducing increased visitation levels. External forces originating from outside the destination can be small-scale and cumulative, as in word-of-mouth marketing by previous visitors within their origin regions. Each visitor, for example, might relate their adventures in the 'untouched' destination to ten other people, some of whom are subsequently inspired to visit the destination. The ubiquitous use of social media accelerates this process. The result in either case is an increase in tourism numbers.

Conversely, the external factor can be a high-profile event, such as the publication of a *National Geographic* magazine article, a television documentary, the visit of a celebrity or exposure in a popular movie (Connell 2012). The construction of a major airport or road is another possible trigger. In these instances, specific events serve as catalysts for dramatic and almost immediate increases in visitation. All of the examples given, of course, can also occur at later stages, though in those instances the tourism sector and the cycle dynamics are already well established (see the 'Factors that change the destination cycle' section).

The importance of understanding the trigger factors is demonstrated by the effect that these can have on the subsequent dynamics of the destination cycle. Internal forces imply that the destination, or a stakeholder within the destination, is taking a proactive approach towards tourism development, which increases the likelihood that local control will be retained and the community will be better equipped to adjust to increases in visitation, perhaps through a deliberately prolonged involvement stage. In contrast, external forces of the singular, large-scale variety tend to induce rapid change that is directed by outside interests — the community has the immediate disadvantage of being placed on the defensive, having to react to events rather than direct them. Under these circumstances, the involvement stage is likely to be little more than a brief prelude to the development stage.

In Australia the involvement stage seems to describe the many rural Indigenous Australian communities which are making tentative attempts to pursue tourism as a means of bringing about effective economic development. In such cases, the employment of a proactive approach to the trigger factors is essential given the cultural and economic circumstances of those communities. The issue is also imperative in non-Indigenous Australian rural areas and settlements which, while faced with different circumstances and issues, are also increasingly entering the involvement stage in their own quest for a viable local economy.

Development

The **development** stage is characterised by rapid tourism growth and dramatic changes over a relatively short period of time in all aspects of the tourism sector. As with all other phases of the Butler sequence, the change from involvement to development is usually marked by a transition rather than a sharp boundary, although specific events (e.g. construction of the first mega-resort or a celebrity visit) can act as a catalyst for accelerated change. The rate and character of the growth will depend on

the pull factors (see chapter 4) that prevail during the stage, and the attempts made in the destination to manage the process. In the Butler sequence, a rapid erosion in the level of local control is assumed to occur as the community is overwhelmed by the scale of tourism development. As the destination is rapidly integrated into the formal tourism system, larger non-local and transnational companies gain control over the process, attracting midcentric and psychocentric consumers who arrange and facilitate their travel experiences (often through package tours) within these highly organised structures.

Spatially, the development stage is a time of rapid landscape change, as small hotels and guest houses give way to large multi-storey resorts; agricultural land is replaced by golf courses, second-home developments and theme parks; and mangroves are removed to make way for marinas. Large areas of farmland may be abandoned after being purchased by speculators, or because labour and investment have been diverted to tourism. The 'sense of place' or uniqueness of the destination that was associated with the exploration and involvement stages gives way to a generic, 'international'-style landscape. Concentrated tourism districts form along coastlines, in alpine valleys or in any other area that is close to associated attractions or gateways. At this point environmental stresses are widespread, and negative environmental responses are apparent. The general attitude of residents towards visitors also experiences a rapid transformation. In the early development stage, tourists become a normal part of the local routine, prompting widespread apathy. However, as tourist numbers continue to mount, and as resultant pressures are placed on local carrying capacities, apathy may give way to annoyance within a growing portion of the population. Typically, aspects of the destination's culture become highly commodified.

Australian destinations that appear to be in the development stage include Queensland's Sunshine Coast, Hervey Bay and Cairns; New South Wales coastal resorts such as Port Macquarie, Coffs Harbour and Byron Bay; and the Western Australian resort town of Broome. Noncoastal destinations that also appear to qualify include alpine resorts such as Thredbo, and tourist shopping villages such as Maleny, Mount Tamborine and Hahndorf in the respective hinterlands of the Sunshine Coast, the Gold Coast and Adelaide.

Consolidation

The **consolidation** stage involves a decline in the growth rate of visitor arrivals and other tourism-related activity, although the total amount of activity continues to increase. Visitor numbers over a 12-month period are usually well in excess of the resident population. Of paramount importance in this stage is the visible breeching of the destination's environmental, social and economic carrying capacities, thereby indicating increased deterioration of the tourism product and the subsequent quality of the tourist and resident experience.

During consolidation, crowded, high-density tourism districts emerge and are dominated by a psychocentric clientele who rely largely on short-stay package tour arrangements affiliated with large tour operators and hotel chains. The destination is wholly integrated into the large-scale, globalised tourism system, and tourism dominates the economy of the area. Attractions are largely specialised recreational sites of a contrived, generic nature (symbolised by theme parks, golf courses and casinos). Seasonality emerges as a major influence on the destination's economy, along with high turnover in hotel and restaurant ownership, and abandonment of facilities and areas due to a lack of interest in redevelopment. Much of this is due to transnational companies that 'abandon' the destination to seek the greener pastures elsewhere.

It is in the consolidation stage that the local social 'breaking' point is likely to be reached, with some residents becoming blatantly antagonistic towards tourists, while others become resigned to the situation and either adjust to the new environment or leave the area altogether. Some residents will blame tourism for all problems, justifiably or not. As negative encounters with the local residents and local tourism product increase, word-of-mouth exchange of information between tourists and acquaintances contributes to the reduced visitor intakes.

Destinations that appear to have experienced consolidation-like processes at some point in their development include the Surfers Paradise district of the Gold Coast (perhaps the best Australian example) as well as other pleasure periphery tourism cities along the French and Spanish Rivieras, in Florida and the Bahamas, and in the Waikiki area of Honolulu.

Stagnation

Peak visitor numbers and levels of associated facilities, such as available accommodation units, are attained during the **stagnation** stage. Surplus capacity is a persistent problem, prompting frequent price discounts that lead to further product deterioration and bankruptcies, given the high fixed costs involved in the sector. One way that companies respond to this dilemma is to convert hotel-type accommodation into self-catering apartments, timeshare units or even permanent residences for retirees, students or others. The affected destination may still have a high profile, but this does not translate into increases in visitation due to the fact that the location is perceived to be 'out of fashion' or otherwise less desirable as a destination. Indicative of stagnation, aside from the stability in the visitor intake curve, is the reliance on repeat visits by psychocentrically oriented visitors — the moribund destination is now less capable of attracting new visitors due to pervasive negative coverage by the media, or through word-of-mouth or social media communication. It may also be that many repeat visitors are spuriously loyal.

Stagnation-type dynamics have been identified in parts of the Riviera, such as Spain's Costa Brava, and in some areas of Florida and the Caribbean (e.g. the Bahamas' New Providence Island). Beyond the global pleasure periphery, it is discernible in the recreational hinterlands that have developed within a one-day drive of large north American cities, including Muskoka (Toronto), the Laurentians (Montreal) and the Catskills (New York City). The rural nature of these regions, however, suggests different structural characteristics than those associated with urban areas.

Decline or rejuvenation

The stagnation stage can theoretically persist for an indefinite period, but it is likely that the destination will eventually experience either an upturn or a downturn in its fortunes.

Decline

The scenario of **decline**, beyond destructive external factors such as war or natural disasters, will occur as a result of some combination of the following tourism-related factors.

- Repeat clients are no longer satisfied with the available product, while efforts to recruit new visitors fail.
- The major attractions that a destination depends upon are no longer available due to immediate events (e.g. a fire or closure) or longer-term disruptions (see Breakthrough tourism: Come and see it before it's gone . . .).

- No attempts are made by destination stakeholders to revitalise or reinvent the local tourism product, or these attempts are made but are unsuccessful.
- Resident antagonism progresses to the level of outright and widespread hostility, which contributes to the negative image of the destination.
- New competitors, and particularly intervening opportunities, emerge to divert and capture traditional markets.

As tourist numbers decline, more hotels and other specialised tourism facilities are abandoned or converted into apartments, health care centres or other uses suitable for retirees. Ironically, this may have the effect of allowing locals to re-enter the tourism industry, since outmoded facilities can be obtained at a relatively low price. Similarly, the decline of tourism often reduces that sector's dominance of the destination as other service industries (e.g. health care, call centres, government) are attracted to the area in response to its changing demographics. The decline stage may be accelerated by a 'snowballing' effect, wherein the abandonment of a major hotel or attraction impacts negatively on the viability of other accommodation or attractions, thereby increasing the possibility of their own demise.

The number of destinations that have at some point experienced significant decline-stage dynamics — that is, more than one or two years of decline — is not large. The Coolangatta district of the Gold Coast is probably the best Australian example (Russell & Faulkner 2004), while one of the most illustrative international cases is Atlantic City from the post–World War I period to the 1960s. Other historical examples include Cape May (New Jersey) whose pre-eminence as a summer seaside resort for Philadelphia ironically was destroyed in the late 1800s by the emergence of Atlantic City. Additional examples can be found within the older established areas of southern Florida (e.g. Miami Beach in the 1970s), the French and Spanish Rivieras and Hawaii.

breakthrough tourism

COME AND SEE IT BEFORE IT'S GONE . . .

Destination cycle deliberations tend to ignore the possibility of a final termination of tourism, but such scenarios are now being seriously considered in some places because of the anticipated local effects of climate change. Perversely, this has attracted the interest of some consumers who want to visit these endangered places before they disappear. The activity that has emerged as a result of such interest is known as **last chance tourism** (Lemelin, Dawson & Stewart 2011). One example of this form of tourism occurs in Churchill, Manitoba (Canada), where a majority of interviewed tourists in one survey agreed that they were motivated to visit Churchill in order to see polar bears — by far the most popular town attraction — before global warming destroyed their natural habitat. It was less obvious to them that their own travel to Churchill was a contributing factor to this climate change (Dawson et al. 2010).

Other ethical issues that should be considered in relation to last chance tourism include the more traditional carrying capacity threats that result from significant increases in the number of these tourists, and the voyeuristic quality of such travel, which seems to have affiliations with dark tourism and ego-enhancement. Is it therefore ethical for some tour operators and

destinations to make a profit from such activity, even if there are only subtle signs that these attractions are disappearing? Assuming that such travel cannot be prevented, it would be constructive to see how last chance tourism could be mobilised as a positive force by providing climate change focused product interpretation and education for visitors. They might then become advocates and ambassadors for relevant environmental causes, although there is as yet no empirical evidence for this laudable outcome. Operators could also be encouraged to donate a portion of their profits to climate change mitigation or constructive adaptation of the threatened product (e.g. relocating polar bears).

Rejuvenation

The other alternative is a **rejuvenation** of the destination's tourism industry. While the Butler sequence shows this occurring after the stagnation stage, it is also possible that rejuvenation will take place following a period of decline, with decreasing numbers serving as a catalyst for action. Weaver (2012) subsequently argues that the stagnation and especially the decline stage serve as catalysts for the creation of an 'arena of inno-vation' in which destination stakeholders are compelled to exhibit their latent capacity for responding creatively and effectively to major internal and external challenges. This was the case with Atlantic City's decision to introduce legalised casino-based gambling, breaking the monopoly held by Las Vegas (Stansfield 2006). According to Butler, rejuvenation is almost always accompanied by the introduction of entirely new tourism products, or at least the radical reimaging of the existing product, as a way of recapturing the destination's competitive advantage and sense of uniqueness. Instances of reliance on new products also include Miami Beach, which restructured the existing 3S product in the 1980s to capitalise on the city's remarkable art deco hotel archi-tecture to attract the nostalgia market. A similar scenario of nostalgia-based reimaging is feasible for Coolangatta and older summer resorts on the Atlantic coast and Great Lakes shoreline of North America. Miami's rejuvenation was assisted in the mid-1990s by a crackdown on crime, which did much to change the city's image as a dangerous destination. Finally, Douglass and Raento (2004) describe how the gambling haven of Las Vegas has periodically reinvented itself, shifting from its shady image in the 1980s to a 'family friendly' destination, and then more recently to an edgier product exemplified by the advertising slogan 'What happens in Vegas stays in Vegas'. Major efforts to improve the physical environment and quality of life are also typical of reju-venation initiatives (see Contemporary issue: Resilience and adaptability in a mature destination).

contemporary issue

RESILIENCE AND ADAPTABILITY IN A MATURE DESTINATION

The experience of Benidorm, on Spain's Costa Blanca, demonstrates how long-term decline can be averted in mature 3S tourism cities (Ivars, Rodríguez & Vera 2013). With 68 000 accommodation beds and over 10 million visitors in 2010, it maintains high occupancy rates through most of the year and a high average length of stay. Benidorm remains a very popular destination for UK visitors in particular. Creative and proactive local responses to various global developments have given rise to at least four phases of 'maturity' since the late 1980s rather

FIGURE 10.2 Benidorm: A nice place to visit and reside

than the expected period of prolonged decline. Between 1988 and 1993, *recession* occurred due to the appreciation of the Spanish currency, conflict in the Middle East, and a global economic downturn. New attractions, restorations and a training centre limited the resultant decline in visitation, paving the way for an *expansion* period from 1994 to 2001 when the local currency was devalued and economic recovery occurred in source countries. To stimulate visitation, local leaders upgraded existing hotels and opened new urban landmarks and public spaces, thereby reinforcing product quality, diversity and a sense of place. During the 2002–07 *stabilisation* stage, visitation was stagnant due to the emergence of competing destinations and low-cost carriers, as well as the Iraq war. One local response was additional 4- and 5-star construction, and further development of business and wellbeing products to diversify the tourist market (Claver-Cortés, Molina-Azorin & Pereira-Moliner 2007). Visitation again declined during the global economic crisis of 2007–09, although it was neither severe nor lasted long. One enduring factor in the resilience of Benidorm was the early decision to favour a high urban density model leading to greater efficiency in the use of water, energy and land as well as less dependency on private transport. Close cooperation between the public and private sectors, and emphasis on both the inbound and domestic markets have also assisted in averting a classic decline dynamic (see figure 10.2).

The implication of these examples is that rejuvenation seldom occurs as a spontaneous process, but arises from deliberate, proactive strategies adopted by destination managers and entrepreneurs. Success in achieving revitalisation is associated with the ability of the public and private sectors, with collaboration from the community, to cooperate in focusing on what each does best. The public sector provides destination marketing, suitable services and the management of public attractions, and the private sector assumes a lead role in industry sectors such as accommodation, food and beverages, tour operations, transportation and some categories of attraction.

Application and critique of the Butler sequence

The examples used in the preceding discussion illustrate the broad potential applicability and intuitive appeal of the Butler sequence as a model to describe the development of tourist destinations, wherein negative economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts increase and accumulate as the destination moves through the development stage. A major implication of the model is the idea that tourism carries within itself the seeds of its own destruction, and that proactive management strategies are essential, as early as possible or through the arena of innovation later in the cycle, if this self-destruction is to be avoided.

Cycle applications

Since its publication in 1980, the Butler sequence has been empirically examined well over 50 times just within the published English-language literature. The great majority of these applications have identified a general conformity to the broad contours of the model, supporting its potential as an important theoretical as well as practical device for describing and predicting the evolution of destinations. However, most

applications have also identified one or more anomalies where the sequence does not apply to the targeted case study, and/or where the overall results of the exercise remain ambiguous (see table 10.2). For example, in Grand Cayman Island and Melanesia, it was found that the earliest tourism initiatives in these colonial situations were carried out by external interests associated with the colonial power, and that local, non-elite participation increased as tourism became more developed. Serious resident annoyance and antagonism in the Solomon Islands also occurred when this destination was barely into the involvement stage, due in part to low resilience to change within the local community.

TABLE 10.2 Selected anomalies to the Butler sequence in empirical case studies	
Case study	**Anomaly**
Grand Cayman Island (Caribbean) (Weaver 1990) Melanesia (Douglas 1997)	Involvement began with external rather than local initiative
Niagara Falls (Canada) (Getz 1992) Prince Edward Island (Canada) (Baum 1998) Torbay (United Kingdom) (Agarwal 1997)	Local control retained well beyond the involvement stage
Coolangatta (suburb of Gold Coast, Australia) (Russell & Faulkner 2004)	Involvement stage bypassed altogether (i.e. the suburb transitioned from the exploration to development stage)
Thredbo (Australia) (Digance 1997)	High seasonality in early stages moved toward low seasonality
Niagara Falls (Canada) (Getz 1992)	Contrived specialised recreational attractions did not replace original natural attraction (waterfall)
Israeli seaside resorts (Cohen-Hattab & Shoval 2005)	Stagnation stage induced by government, not private sector
St Andrews (Scotland) (Butler 2011) Eastern Townships of Quebec (Canada) (Lundgren 2006)	Sequence of cycles occurred over time

In the case of Niagara Falls, there was no evidence for the loss of local control until well into the late development stage, nor was there evidence that the clientele was shifting towards a psychocentric mode. Furthermore, specialised recreational attractions, such as theme parks, did not supersede the iconic waterfall as the destination's primary draw. In the English seaside resort of Torbay, local control was retained during the development stage and beyond. In addition, visitors did not display any behaviour during these later stages suggestive of psychocentrism. The involvement stage in Coolangatta (on the southern Gold Coast) was effectively bypassed by the rapid onset of mass tourism, and the dynamics of the consolidation stage were far more complex and multifaceted than proposed by Butler. (Butler himself recognised that the involvement stage could be pre-empted by the 'instant resort' effect created by Cancún-like growth pole strategies.) In the case of some Israeli seaside resorts, the government — rather than the private sector — was identified as the main agent contributing to stagnation.

Although the Canadian province of Prince Edward Island experienced stagnation in the early 1990s on the basis of visitation levels, the destination retained a structure of small-scale and local ownership typical of the involvement stage. With regard to

seasonality, the Australian ski resort of Thredbo evolved from an essentially winter-only resort to a year-round destination, thus reversing the expected seasonality pattern. In the Eastern Townships region of Quebec (Canada), at least three tourism cycles were identified over a 200-year period, each focused on a different regional tourism product. Similarly, the Scottish resort of St Andrews experienced successive cycles based on a sequence of new product introductions, giving rise to a stepped pattern of growth. An unusual application of the sequence is provided by Whitfield (2009), who found that the convention sector in the United Kingdom displays different stages of the cycle, depending on whether the venues were purpose-built, hotels, educational establishments or visitor attractions.

General criticisms

Clearly, then, many deviations have been identified when the Butler sequence has been subjected to empirical testing. At a more general level, the sequence can be criticised for its determinism — that is, the implication that a destination's progression through a particular sequence of stages is inevitable. In reality, there is no inherent reason to assume that all exploration- or involvement-stage destinations are fated to pass beyond these initial phases. Such a progression may be highly probable in a small fishing village opened up by a new highway along a scenic coastline, but much less so in an isolated agricultural settlement in New South Wales or northern China. Tourism planners and managers should therefore make the effort to identify and then focus on those early stage destinations that are *likely* to experience further development, rather than worrying that every such destination *will* face this problem.

Determinism is also evident in the assumption that the cyclical dynamics of tourist destinations begin with the appearance of presumably Western explorer-tourists in the exploration stage. Weaver (2010) argues that indigenous communities experience a distinctive tourism cycle in which traditional indigenous people themselves participate as tourists in a 'pre-exploration' stage that precedes the Western exploration phase. Notably, only a few empirical studies on the sequence have been undertaken in Asia despite the potential of that rapidly growing tourism region to serve as a laboratory for destination cycle dynamics in a non-Western context (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

This issue of determinism extends to the proposed carrying capacity thresholds (see figure 10.1). According to the Butler sequence, tourism development escalates until these thresholds are exceeded; however, managers and communities, as emphasised earlier, can and often do override free market forces and take proactive measures to ensure that tourism does not impact negatively on the destination. As depicted in figure 10.3, there are two basic ways in which this can be achieved.

Supply-driven scenario

In supply-driven scenario (a), the carrying capacities are deliberately left as they are, but the level of development is curtailed so that they remain below the relevant thresholds. Essentially, a long involvement stage of slow growth is induced, followed by consolidation at a desired level, with 'development' being avoided altogether. This could be achieved through a number of strategies, alone or in combination, including:
- placing restrictions or quotas on the allowable number of visitors (as in Bhutan before the early 2000s)
- imposing development standards
- introducing limitations to the size and number of accommodation facilities
- zoning only certain limited areas for frontstage tourism development
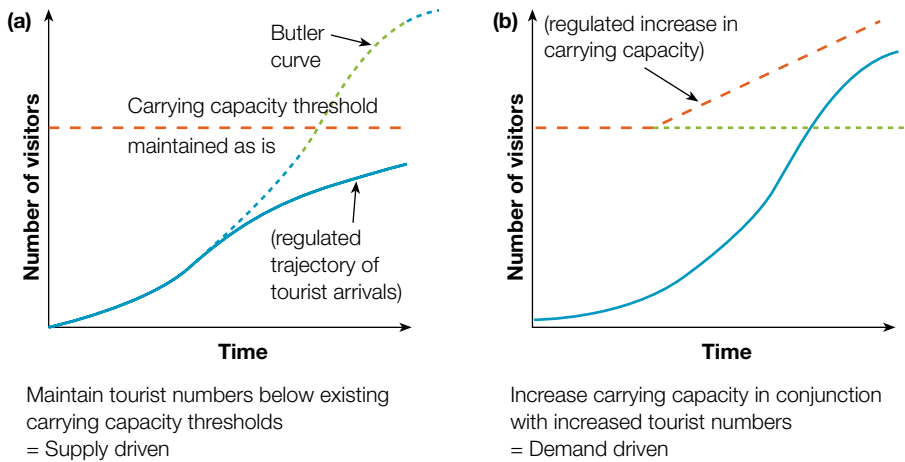
FIGURE 10.3 Alternative responses to the Butler sequence

- prohibiting the expansion of infrastructure, such as airports, that would facilitate additional tourism development
- increasing entry fees to the destination (e.g. visa fees) in order to reduce demand.

   Many of these strategies relate to the tactics of obtaining supply–demand equilibrium as outlined in chapter 7, although the emphasis there was mainly in the private sector, at a microscale, and related to corporate profitability rather than destination-wide impacts. It should be noted here, however, that such public sector strategies may be resisted by a local tourism industry that sees this as an erosion of its customer base and profitability.

Demand-driven scenario

In demand-driven scenario (b), the conventional sequence of involvement and development takes place, but measures are taken to raise carrying capacity thresholds in concert with the increased visitor intake. This can be achieved on the sociocultural front by demarcating and enforcing frontstage/backstage distinctions (see chapter 9) or by introducing tourist and resident education and awareness programs (see chapter 7). On the environmental front, destinations can make pre-emptive human responses to environmental stresses, including site-hardening initiatives such as the installation of improved sewage and water treatment facilities. Economic adjustments might include the expansion of local manufacturing and agricultural capacities in order to supply the required backward linkages to the tourism sector (see chapter 8). In effect, scenario (b) involves the increase of supply to meet demand, while scenario (a) involves the suppression of demand to fit the existing supply. The issue of proactive responses to the 'classic' Butler sequence in order to achieve more sustainable outcomes is pursued further in chapter 11.

The question of geographic scale

As discussed in earlier chapters, the term 'destination' can be applied at different scales, ranging from a single small attraction to an entire continent (e.g. Asia or Europe) or macroregion (e.g. the pleasure periphery). This raises the question as to whether certain scales are more suited to the application of the Butler sequence than others. Because visitation levels and surrogates such as the number of accommodation units

can be graphed at any scale, there has been a tendency in the literature to assume that the Butler sequence can be applied across the geographical spectrum.

The resemblance to Butler's curve, however, is often superficial. This is because the dynamics discussed by Butler cannot be meaningfully applied at the country level due to great internal diversity, unless the country happens to be a particularly small entity (e.g. a SISOD). The problem can be illustrated by considering Spain, where national visitation levels indicate the later development or very early consolidation stage. However, it is absurd to imagine that all or most of Spain's 40 million residents are now expressing antagonism towards tourists, or that all of its tourist accommodation is now accounted for by large, 'international'-style hotels. Such circumstances may apply to parts of the Spanish Riviera, but not to most parts of inland rural Spain, which is mostly at the involvement or early development stage. Similarly, overall inbound arrival statistics for Australia disguise great disparities between the exploration-stage Outback and poststagnation dynamics that are evident in parts of the Gold Coast. In essence, Butler's cycle, in its classic format, does not apply to such large countries because of the tendency of large-scale tourism to concentrate only in certain areas of these countries (see chapter 4). More productive, as discussed in the final section, are attempts to model the diffusion of tourism, and hence the differential progression of the resort cycle, within large areas.

The Butler sequence itself, as demonstrated by the array of case studies in table 10.2, is more appropriately applied at the scale of a well-defined individual resort concentration such as the Gold Coast, Byron Bay, Spain's Costa Brava, a small Caribbean island such as Antigua, or an alpine resort such as Thredbo or St Moritz (Switzerland). However, caution must still be exercised since significant internal variations often occur even at this scale. This is illustrated by the Gold Coast, where the apparent stagnation stage of Surfers Paradise contrasts with the appearance of exploration-type dynamics in many parts of the hinterland and in numerous residential suburbs that accommodate no leisure tourism activity at all. Even within a single theme park, it is likely that some long-established thrill rides demonstrate characteristics of stagnation and decline, while a new ride displays development-type growth due to its novelty factor.

Cross-sectoral considerations

A related concern is the influence on destination development of sectors external to tourism. Applications of the resort cycle model often give the impression that tourism is the only economic activity carried out in the destination, so that resident reactions and environmental change are influenced only by this one sector. This isolationist approach ignores the external environment that must be taken into consideration in the analysis of tourism systems (see chapter 2). In reality, few (if any) destinations are wholly reliant on the tourism industry. In the case of Las Vegas, the city is also extremely important as a wholesale distribution point, centre for military activity and health care, and a magnet for high-tech industry. Australia's Gold Coast and Sunshine Coast are also not predominantly reliant on tourism. The question of tourism growth leading to the breaching of carrying capacity thresholds must therefore take into account the moderating (or exacerbating) influences of these coexisting activities. The problem can also be illustrated by a large nonresort city such as London or Paris. Such centres have a very large tourism industry that appears to be in the consolidation stage, but this sector accounts for only a small portion of the city's total economic output. Hence, it is not rational to assume that the onset of tourism consolidation in Paris or London will result in widespread antagonism, or a complete dependency on tourism.

Tourism dynamics are additionally affected by non-economic external factors such as political unrest and natural disasters, which also need to be taken into account in the management of destination development. The dramatic decline in visitation induced by the 2004 tsunami in Phuket (Thailand) is one notable Asian example. Within Australia, the Queensland city of Bundaberg experienced successive disastrous floods in 2011 and 2013 which both times resulted in dramatic visitation declines due to damaged infrastructure and negative media publicity (Stafford 2013). Possible links with climate change suggest that such extreme weather events may become more frequent, making this perhaps the greatest challenge for resilience in vulnerable destinations. A more directly 'man-made' example is the Varosha neighbourhood of Famagusta, Cyprus, a formerly vibrant high-rise resort district which became a ghost town after the Turkish invasion of Cyprus in 1974, and still remains in this condition.

The Butler sequence as an 'ideal type'

The Butler sequence, in summary, best describes destinations that are:
- relatively small
- spatially well defined
- highly focused on tourism
- dominated by free market (or 'laissez-faire') forces
- in high demand.

Its applicability to real-life situations, therefore, seems to be limited, and apparently out of all proportion to the considerable attention that it has received in the tourism literature. Yet, the attention paid to the Butler sequence is justified because of the model's utility as an **ideal type** against which real-life situations can be measured and compared. The Butler model (as with any model), in essence, shows what takes place when the distortions of real life are removed — it is a deliberately idealised situation that functions as a benchmark.

With this 'pure' structure as a frame of reference, the researcher can see how much a real-life case study situation deviates from that model, and then try to identify why this deviation occurs. For example, it was noted that local control actually increased with accelerated tourism development on Grand Cayman Island, a situation that can be attributed to the status of this island as a colony where British and Jamaican interests had the capital and inclination to initiate the involvement stage while most locals were focused on working in the fisheries or other maritime industries. In the case of Niagara Falls, the presence of an overwhelmingly dominant and iconic natural attraction appears to have prevented a situation where contrived, specialised recreational attractions become more important than the original primary cultural or natural attractions. The implication, which can be illustrated with many more examples, is that different types of circumstances result in different types of deviations from the model. Continued identification and testing for such deviations may allow distinctive variants of the cycle to be identified, resulting eventually in a constellation of subsets that take these real-life circumstances into account.

■ FACTORS THAT CHANGE THE DESTINATION CYCLE

The trigger factors that induce a transition from the exploration stage to the involvement stage have been considered. These and other factors also influence change in later stages of the cycle, whether the latter conforms to the Butler sequence or not. Managers benefit from a better understanding of these ongoing influences, in particular,

because the destination in the post-involvement stages can experience not only further growth, but also decline. This understanding includes an awareness of the degree to which various factors can be controlled and manipulated. Clearly, it is desirable that the managers of a destination should retain control or at least influence over as many of these as possible, so that they can shape a desirable evolutionary path for the destination.

The factors that influence the evolution of tourism in destinations can be positioned within a simple eight-cell **matrix model of cycle trigger factors** (see figure 10.4). As with the attraction inventory discussed in chapter 5, the dotted lines indicate that each variable can be measured along a continuum — discrete categories are used as a matter of convenience for discussion purposes, rather than as an indication that all factors neatly fit into eight homogeneous cells.
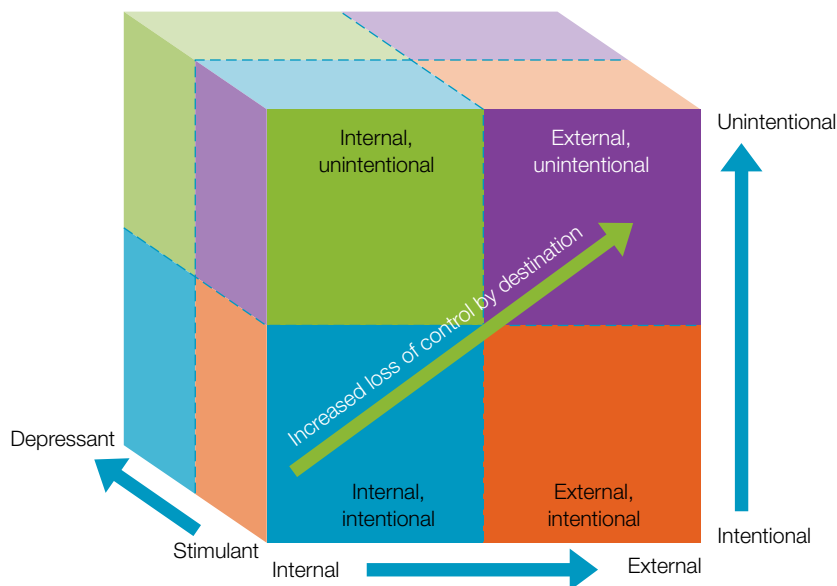
FIGURE 10.4 Matrix model for classifying cycle trigger factors

Internal-intentional actions

From a destination perspective, the 'ideal' situation involves stimulants that originate deliberately from within the destination, or **internal-intentional actions**. Applicable stimulants that trigger further growth include infrastructure upgrading, environmental improvements, effective marketing campaigns directed by the local tourism organisation, innovative investments in facilitating technologies by local risk-taking entrepreneurs (see Technology and tourism: Technology cycles), and the decision by local authorities to pursue a growth pole-type strategy based on tourism. Conversely, internal and intentional depressants, such as entry fees and infrastructure restrictions, can be used deliberately to restrict or reverse the growth of tourism. Not all these factors, however, are instigated or desired by destination managers, as illustrated by home-grown terrorist groups in countries such as Egypt that attempt to sabotage the country's tourism industry. A fully legal decision by other stakeholders to build a nuclear reactor could be similarly dissuasive to tourism.

technology and tourism

TECHNOLOGY CYCLES

Any discussion of social media or other technologies as facilitators or inhibitors of destination development should bear in mind that these are also subject to cyclical dynamics. The *research and development* stage, accordingly, is analogous to 'exploration' and 'involvement', while *ascent* (when costs have been recovered and possession of the product is normative) is similar to 'development'. *Maturity* is analogous to the destination cycle's 'consolidation' and 'stagnation' stages and *decline* (or decay) occurs when the technology becomes obsolete or replaced by a superior or more attractive alternative. As with destinations, not all technologies pass through the entire cycle, and many innovations are aborted in the research and development stage or do not survive initial market trials. In some cases, as with 'rejuvenation' in a destination, incremental innovations may be sufficient to revitalise an existing product. For destination planners and managers, there are significant implications. Late adoption of a specific traffic management system or computer software package, for example, might result in the waste of considerable money if the system is about to be superseded by a better product. In such

A QR code used to advertise an art exhibition

cases, financial and organisational lock-in effects might result in the inefficient and obsolete system being retained. An organisation that retains a particular smartphone platform for reasons of cost and habit, and does not convert to one better suited to their purposes, may illustrate this phenomenon. Conversely, early adoption of QR (quick response) codes — a technology that allows marketers to link smartphone users to their websites via optically scanned coded labels — may stimulate tourist attraction visitation by technologically savvy tourists who might otherwise be too time-poor to manually search online for information. In studying destination dynamics, it would be useful to compare the cycle stage of the destination with the stages of vital technologies that affect it, bearing in mind that the product lifecycle duration of technology is often much shorter than destination cycles. Rational decisions could then be made about investing in products that are most conducive to positive destination development.

External-unintentional actions

Trigger factors that originate from beyond the destination, and in an unintentional way, can be described as **external-unintentional actions**. Because they are spatially removed in origin from the destination, and because they are not the deliberate result of certain actions, they tend to be highly unpredictable both in character and in outcome, and mostly uncontrollable by destination managers. They are therefore the least desirable outcome from a destination perspective, and furthermore, indicate how much developments within the destination are vulnerable to uncertain, external forces. Examples of external-unintentional depressants include cyclones that periodically disrupt the tourism industry in northern Queensland or Vanuatu, climate change and its harmful impact on the Great Barrier Reef, and political chaos in Indonesia in so far as it hinders tourism in Bali. Ironically, many of these same factors are external-unintentional tourism stimulants for other destinations. For example, political instability in Indonesia

has had the effect of diverting many Australian tourists to Thailand and Malaysia, or to long-haul regions such as Europe.

Internal-unintentional actions

Internal-unintentional actions, as with external-intentional actions, are intermediate between the first two categories with respect to the control that can be exercised by the destination. Examples of internal-unintentional depressants include a prolonged civil war (though some civil wars can also be intentional) or coral reef destruction caused by a local pollution source. Originating within the jurisdiction of the destination, managers and other authorities are in a better position to deal with these situations in comparison to those associated with outside forces, although the latter will no doubt have some influence over internal developments.

External-intentional actions

The opposite situation is described by **external-intentional actions**. Depressants in this category include a country that drastically and dramatically devalues its currency, perhaps in part to become a more affordable and attractive destination competitor relative to an adjacent country. The legalisation of gambling in Atlantic City was a potential depressant for Las Vegas, but in retrospect could be considered a stimulant because of its role in forcing Las Vegas to rejuvenate its product. A less ambiguous example of a stimulating effect is the opening of a new transportation corridor, such as a railway, within a transit region, to expedite the movement of tourists from an origin to a destination region. Movies and television shows that feature locations are also potential external-intentional stimulants.

■ NATIONAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

As argued, the Butler sequence, and the destination cycle concept in general, are not applicable at the scale of entire countries, except for those that are exceptionally small. To gain insight into the process of tourism development at the country scale, it is helpful to revisit the internal spatial patterns described in chapter 4, which involve the concentration of tourism within large urban centres and in built-up areas adjacent to attractions such as beaches and mountains. To understand how these patterns have emerged and are likely to evolve in the future, and thereby help to understand when and how cyclical dynamics occur at the local destination level, an understanding of the concept of **spatial diffusion** is essential.

Spatial diffusion

Spatial or geographical diffusion is the process whereby an innovation or idea spreads from a point of origin to other locations (Getis et al. 2011). Spatial diffusion can be either contagious or hierarchical. In **hierarchical diffusion**, the idea or innovation typically originates in the largest urban centre, and gradually spreads through communications and transportation systems to smaller centres within the urban hierarchy. This process is modelled in part (a) of figure 10.5. To illustrate, television stations in the United States first became established in large metropolitan areas such as New York and Chicago in the late 1940s, and soon thereafter started to open in second-order cities such as Boston and Denver. Within five years, they were established in small regional cities of about 100 000 population and in many cities of 50 000 or fewer by 1960.

The larger the city, the higher the probability therefore of early adoption. Less frequently, diffusion can occur in the opposite direction, as illustrated by the movement of musical forms such as the blues and country from rural areas of origin to large urban centres.

(a) Hierarchical diffusion

t_0 Top city

t_1 Second-order cities

t_2 Third-order cities

t_3 Fourth-order cities

———→ = spread of innovation or idea

t_0 = place of origin
$t_{1...3}$ = time 1 to 3

(b) Contagious diffusion

t_3
t_2
t_1
t_0
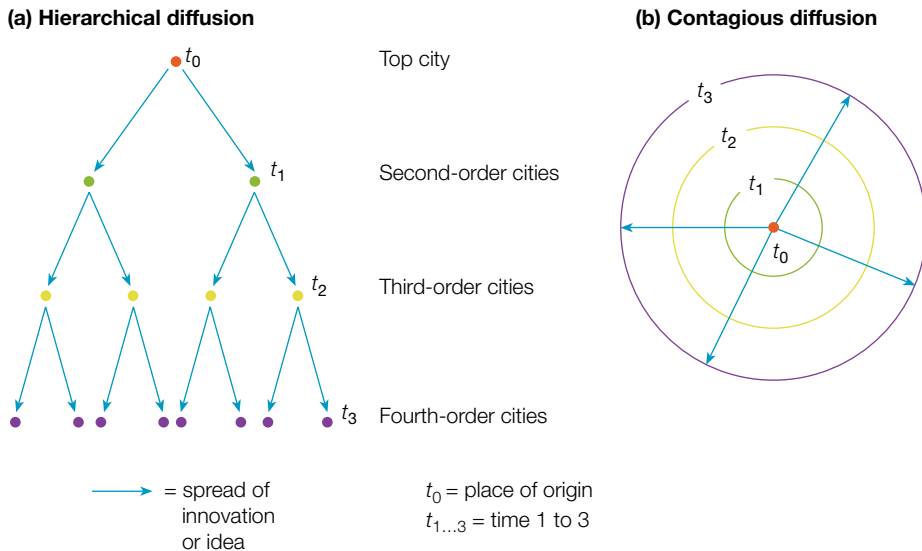
FIGURE 10.5 Hierarchical and contagious spatial diffusion

In **contagious diffusion**, the spread occurs as a function of spatial proximity. This is demonstrated by the likelihood that a contagious disease carried by a student in a classroom will spread first to the students sitting next to the infected student, and lastly to those sitting farthest away. Contagious diffusion is sometimes likened to the ripple effect made when a pebble is thrown into a body of still water. A good historical example is the expansion of Islam from its origins around the cities of Mecca and Medina to the remainder of the Arabian Peninsula, and then rapidly into the rest of the Middle East, Central Asia and North Africa.

In both modes of diffusion, the ideal depictions in figure 10.5 are distorted by real-life situations, as with the Butler sequence. It is useful in the diffusion discourse, therefore, to identify barriers that delay or accelerate the process, and that channel the process in specific directions. The contagious diffusion of Islam, for example, was halted in Ethiopia by effective resistance from Christians in their mountain strong-holds. The discussion will now focus on the combined application of these spatial diffusion concepts to national-scale tourism development.

Effects of hierarchical diffusion

The concentration of tourism activity in urban areas is a manifestation of hierarchical diffusion. A country's largest city (e.g. Paris, Sydney, Toronto, New York, Nairobi and Auckland) is likely to function as the primary gateway for inbound tourists. Also, because of its prominence, it will contain sites and events of interest to tourists (e.g. opera house, parliament buildings, museums and so on). The dominant city, then, is often the first location in a country to host international tourism activity on a formal basis. For the same reasons, this centre also acts as a magnet for domestic visitors.

As the urban hierarchy of the country evolves, the same effect occurs on a reduced scale as the smaller cities (e.g. state capitals, regional centres) begin to provide more

and better services and attractions in their own right. Thus, tourism spreads over time into lower levels of the urban system, a process that is assisted by improvements in the transportation networks that integrate the urban hierarchy — in essence, the tourism system expands by 'piggybacking' on the expansion of external systems such as transportation. However, tourism itself may contribute in some measure to this expansion of the urban hierarchy, in so far as it acts as a propulsive activity for spontaneous (e.g. Gold Coast) or planned (e.g. Cancún) urban development in coastal areas or other regions where tourist attractions are available.

Effects of contagious diffusion

The effects of contagious diffusion follow on from the effects of hierarchical diffusion. As cities grow, they emerge as significant domestic tourism markets in their own right as well as increasingly important destinations for inbound tourists. Both markets stimulate the development of recreational hinterlands around these cities, the size of which is usually proportional to the population of the urban area. As the city grows, the recreational hinterland expands accordingly. Tourist shopping villages in the urban–rural fringe of the Gold and Sunshine coasts, such as Tamborine Mountain and Maleny respectively, are examples of this phenomenon at the excursionist level, while Muskoka (in the Canadian province of Ontario) and the Catskills (in the American state of New York) illustrate stayover-oriented recreational hinterlands on a larger spatial scale.

Once a community becomes tourism oriented (i.e. 'adopts' the 'innovation' of tourism, in diffusion terminology), nearby communities become more likely to also experience a similar process within the next few years because of their proximity to centres of growing tourism activity. This observation is also relevant to Christaller's description of early tourists escaping to less-developed destinations when their old haunts become overcrowded (see the earlier 'Destination cycle' section), and thus links the process of national tourism development with the destination cycle. In other words, the destination cycle will first affect communities on the edge of existing tourism regions, and then gradually incorporate adjacent communities as the recreational hinterland spreads further into the countryside. The same effect can occur in a hierarchical way — as a country develops, funds may be made available to upgrade the airport or road connection to third-order regional cities, which then becomes a trigger factor that initiates the involvement stage.

Diffusion barriers and facilitators

This process, however, is not likely to continue indefinitely, in part because demand is not unlimited, but also because of barriers that terminate, slow, redirect or, more rarely, reverse the tourism diffusion process. These barriers can take numerous forms, the most common being the lack of attractions capable of carrying the destination beyond the exploration stage. Other barriers include community resistance, political boundaries (a good example is the boundary between North Korea and South Korea) and climate (e.g. 3S tourism can only develop within certain climatic parameters). Conversely, factors that can accelerate the diffusion process include an extensive area of tourism potential such as a beach-lined coast or an alpine valley, and upgraded transportation networks. It should be noted here that a road network is more likely to facilitate contagious diffusion, while an air network will facilitate hierarchical diffusion.

Model of national tourism development

Figure 10.6 provides a model of national-scale tourism development that takes into account both hierarchical and contagious diffusion in a hypothetical country.

The following sequence is depicted, with each interval representing, for the sake of illustration, a ten-year period.

- *Time 0*: in this earliest phase of evolution, there is some inbound and domestic tourism activity, indicative of the involvement stage, in the capital city and main gateway. (It may be argued that all places prior to this time are in the exploration stage.)
- *Time 1*: some years later, a small recreational hinterland forms around the capital city, and several 'charming' market villages start to emerge as excursionist-driven hyperdestinations. Meanwhile, tourism is introduced to a coastal city because of interest from the cruise ship industry and the presence of nearby beaches; this introduction may be spontaneous, or the result of a deliberate growth pole strategy.
- *Time 2*: the recreational hinterland of the dominant city expands outward (= contagious diffusion), while tourism is introduced as a significant activity in several second-order cities (= hierarchical diffusion) now better connected to other cities by road and air. Concurrently, tourism development takes hold in other coastal communities because of their 3S resources, while the hinterland of the original resort expands further, both inland and along the coast.
- *Time 3*: the pattern identified at Time 2 continues: recreational hinterlands expand and new places experience 'involvement'; in addition, where physical geography permits, settlements in the interior become important as alpine tourist resorts.
- *Time 4*: expansion continues, especially along transportation corridors, alpine valleys and the coastline, as well as in other interior fourth-order settlements. At this time, the entire country is a tourism landscape to the degree that some level of tourism activity is evident essentially everywhere.
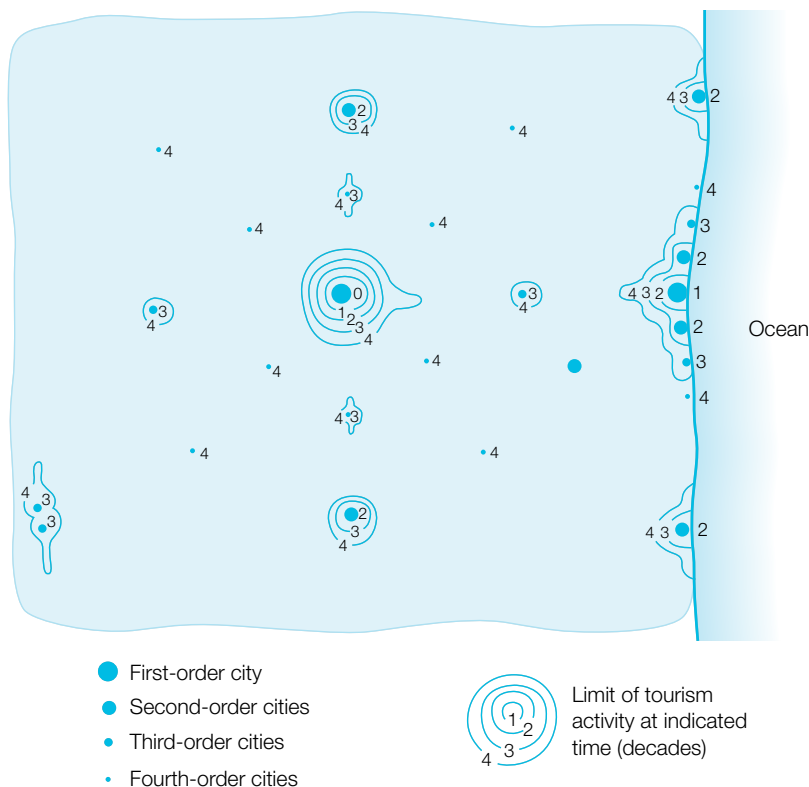
FIGURE 10.6 Tourism development in a hypothetical country

Models such as figure 10.6 are potentially useful for predicting when and whether a particular place within a country is likely to enter the cycle process beyond the exploration stage. It is also valuable to those who are responsible for the management and planning of destination-countries, and in particular those who are seeking to direct this process. Like the Butler sequence, the ideal type depicted in the figure can probably be augmented by a constellation of subtypes that take into consideration different types of countries. These might include landlocked states (such as Zimbabwe and the Czech Republic), alpine states (such as Norway or Switzerland), very large states (such as Australia, Russia, Canada), emerging economies (such as Colombia and Papua New Guinea), centrally planned states (such as North Korea and Vietnam) and 3S-dependent SISODs (such as the Bahamas and Maldives).

CHAPTER REVIEW

Although allusions to the destination cycle were already made in the 1960s, this concept is most closely associated with the S-shaped Butler sequence introduced in 1980. This integrative model proposes that destinations tend to pass through a series of stages: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation and stagnation. Depending on circumstances, the destination may then undergo continuing stagnation, decline and/or rejuvenation. One major implication of the model is that tourism, when driven by free market forces and sustained consumer demand, appears to contain within itself the seeds of its own destruction, as negative impacts accumulate and finally undermine the local tourism product as the stages progress. Applications of the intuitively appealing and simple Butler sequence to case study situations have revealed a broad adherence to the model, although most of these studies have also uncovered notable deviations. The results of many such applications therefore remain ambiguous. While criticised as well for being too deterministic and for not taking into account the existence and influence of sectors other than tourism in the destination, the Butler sequence has enormous value as an 'ideal type' against which real-life situations can be measured and benchmarked. It is also clear, however, that the model is applicable only at certain geographic scales, and should in general not be applied at the national scale except in the case of very small countries.

Whether the evolution of a destination is best described by the Butler sequence per se or by some variant, tourism managers should try to gain an understanding of the trigger factors and actions that induce significant change in a destination. These range from internal-intentional factors (the most favourable option) to those that are external-unintentional (the factors over which the destination has the least control, and hence the least favourable option). These factors, furthermore, can be generally classed as tourism stimulants or depressants, with the possibility that a stimulant in one place can be a depressant for another, and vice versa. In larger countries tourism development is best described as a combined hierarchical and contagious diffusion process that is distorted both positively and negatively by assorted barriers and opportunities. The destination cycle concept can be situated conveniently within this context of national tourism development, in that it is possible to anticipate whether, when and how a particular place is likely to move beyond the exploration stage of the cycle and into new phases.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Butler sequence the most widely cited and applied destination cycle model, which proposes five stages of cyclical evolution described by an S-shaped curve; these might then be followed by three other possible scenarios

Consolidation as local carrying capacities are exceeded, the rate of growth declines; the destination is now almost wholly dominated by tourism

Contagious diffusion spread occurs as a function of spatial proximity; the closer a site is to the place of the innovation's origin, the sooner it is likely to be exposed to that phenomenon

Decline the scenario of declining visitor intake that is likely to ensue if no measures are taken to arrest the process of product deterioration and resident/tourist discontent

Destination cycle the theory that tourism-oriented places experience a repeated sequential process of birth, growth, maturation, and then possibly something similar to death, in their evolution as destinations

Development the accelerated growth of tourism within a relatively short period of time, as this sector becomes a dominant feature of the destination economy and landscape

Exploration the earliest stage in the Butler sequence, characterised by few tourist arrivals and little impact associated with tourism

External-intentional actions deliberate actions that originate from outside the destination

External-unintentional actions actions that affect the destination, but originate from outside that destination, and are not intentional; these present the greatest challenges to destination managers

Hierarchical diffusion spread occurs through an urban or other hierarchy, usually from the largest to the smallest centres, independent of where these centres are located

Ideal type an idealised model of some phenomenon or process against which real-life situations can be measured and compared

Internal-intentional actions deliberate actions that originate from within the destination itself; the best case scenario for destinations in terms of control and management

Internal-unintentional actions actions that originate from within the destination, but are not deliberate

Involvement the second stage in the Butler sequence, where the local community responds to the opportunities created by tourism by offering specialised services; associated with a gradual increase in visitor numbers

Last chance tourism tourism activity and phenomena associated with people who want to visit a destination before the attraction disappears; associated with the loss of habitat, especially in coastal areas, due to climate change

Literary tourism any kind of tourism that is focused on a particular author, group of authors, or literary school; commonly regarded as a type of cultural tourism

Literary village a small settlement, usually rural, where tourism development is focused on some element of literary tourism

Matrix model of cycle trigger factors an eight-cell model that classifies the various actions that induce change in the evolution of tourism in a destination. Each of the following categories can be further divided into tourism stimulants and depressants

Rejuvenation the scenario of a renewed development-like growth that occurs if steps are taken to revitalise the tourism product offered by the destination

Spatial diffusion the process whereby some innovation or idea spreads from a point of origin to other locations; this model is more appropriate than the destination cycle to describe the development of tourism at the country level

Stagnation the stage in the Butler sequence wherein visitor numbers and tourism growth stagnate due to the deterioration of the product

◼ QUESTIONS

1 What implications does the Butler sequence have for the change in visitor segments to a destination?

2 Why can the Butler sequence be referred to as the culmination of the cautionary platform?

3 Why are 'ideal types' such as the Butler sequence extremely useful to managers, even though they seldom if ever describe real-life situations?

4   How can the recognition and understanding of 'pre-exploration' dynamics better position contemporary indigenous communities to avoid tourism development that breaches critical carrying capacity thresholds within their communities?

5   How does the phenomenon of last chance tourism complement or distort the tourism cycle?

6   Which of the eight cells that comprise the matrix model for classifying cycle trigger factors (as per figure 10.4) best describes the 2003 invasion of Iraq from the perspectives of Iraq itself and more generally, the Middle East?

7   How does the matrix model (see figure 10.4) complement and overlap with SWOT analysis to better understand and manage the dynamics of destination development?

8   How can the concepts of hierarchical and contagious diffusion complement the destination cycle model in helping to explain the process of tourism development at the national level?

9   How does figure 4.7 reveal the effects of hierarchical diffusion on the distribution of inbound tourism in Australia?

10 To what extent has proximity to the coast influenced the historical and contemporary development of tourism in Australia?

■ EXERCISES

1   Weaver (2012) contends that a destination becomes an 'arena of innovation', as a matter of necessity, once carrying capacities are breached in the stagnation and decline stages. Select a mature destination that appears to have had its carrying capacities breached by tourism development at some stage and write a 1000-word report in which you:

(a) identify the measures, if any, taken by the destination managers and communities to rejuvenate the destination

(b) show how these measures are innovative with respect to, for example, organisation, collaboration, technology, product development, marketing and/ or management.

2   Select any large country (e.g. Australia, Canada, the United States, Germany, France, South Africa) and write a 1000-word report in which you describe how the national pattern of tourism development is accounted for by both diffusion and destination cycle processes, and explain how this pattern affects the management of the country as a whole as well as individual destinations within the country.

■ FURTHER READING

Butler, R. W. 1980. 'The Concept of a Tourist Area Cycle of Evolution: Implications for Management of Resources'. *Canadian Geographer* **24: 5–12.** This is the original article that introduced the Butler sequence; it is better for students to read this and other original articles, rather than rely entirely on the interpretations of others.

Butler, R. (Ed.) 2006a. *The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Theoretical and Conceptual Implications.* **Vol. 1. Clevedon, UK: Channel View.**

Butler, R. (Ed.) 2006b. *The Tourism Area Life Cycle: Applications and Modifications.* **Vol. 2. Clevedon, UK: Channel View.** These two volumes

comprise a major collection of articles that critically explore the origins, theory, applications and modifications of the destination cycle in a wide variety of case studies. Butler, the editor of both volumes and originator of the S-curve cycle, provides a valuable personal commentary and synthesis of contributions.

Kozak, M. & Martin, D. 2012. 'Tourism Life Cycle and Sustainability Analysis: Profit-focused Strategies for Mature Destinations'. *Tourism Management* **33: 188–94.** Targeting and manipulation of specific tourist segments, as per a marketing approach, is considered here as a strategy for constructively influencing the progression of the tourism cycle in mature destinations.

Pritchard, A. & Lee, T. 2011. 'Evaluating Tourist Attractions: The Case of Luang Prabang, Laos'. *Tourism Analysis* **16: 305–14.** This innovative paper considers the applicability of the Butler sequence in an Asian context mediated by specific types of attractions, and in relation to the broader circumstances of the destination country.

case study

EAST ASIAN DESTINATION CYCLE DYNAMICS IN RURAL KOREA

East Asia, with its rapid tourism development, is emerging as a new frontier of tourism research, and a major question that pervades this research is the relevance of 'Western' assumptions about human behaviour and other aspects of tourism development. There is evidence, for example, of distinctively Chinese (Buckley et al. 2008) and Korean (Lee, Lawton & Weaver, 2013) models of ecotourism that reflect the influence of traditional Confucianist, Buddhist and Taoist philosophies. The research on destination cycles in the region is extremely limited, but the few case studies that do exist conform at least superficially to the established Western pattern of broad adherence, although there are notable anomalies. For example, the first four stages of the destination cycle were identified in China's Zhangjiajie National Forest Park, but visitors greatly outnumbered the local residents who lived within its borders since the early stages of the cycle, and local control increased as tourism became more developed (Zhong, Deng & Xiang 2008).

To gain more insight into the possibility of distinctly East Asian destination cycle dynamics, Lee and Weaver (2012) applied Butler's model to Kim Yujeong Literary Village (KYLV) in rural South Korea, where East Asian Buddhist and Confucianist traditions intersect with **literary tourism**, an increasingly popular form of cultural tourism. **Literary villages**, more specifically, are places where associations with famous authors and their writings form the basis for the development of a presumably sustainable form of cultural tourism development (Herbert 2001). Kim Yujeong (1908–1937) was a popular Korean novelist who lived in Shille (the former name of KYLV) and set his novels in the village

and its surrounds. Tourism began in Shille shortly after Kim's death in 1937, and in 2002 it was formally designated as a literary village and underwent its name change. In 2011, over 400 000 visitors were hosted by the 273 residents.

The researchers found, as expected, that KYLV generally adhered to the exploration, involvement and development stages of the destination cycle, based on evidence from interviews with residents and visitors, secondary sources, and field observations. However, as with Zhangjiajie National Forest Park, visitors have always greatly outnumbered the locals, and the current annual visitor-to-resident ratio of more than 1000:1 distinguishes KYLV as an extreme example of a hyperdestination. Residents, moreover, are in frequent contact with visitors because their own houses are dispersed among the village's attractions (i.e. there is no separate 'tourism district'), and because they are often asked for directions by visitors. Adherence to the conventional destination cycle suggests that this lack of clear frontstage/backstage distinction should result in a high and growing level of discontent among the residents; however, this is not the case. A few residents did complain about visitors making too much noise and inadvertently damaging crops by taking shortcuts, but over 90 per cent of those interviewed said they were satisfied with the behaviour of tourists and appreciated the economic benefits they were receiving from tourism.

Further analysis of tourism development in KYLV provides several suggestions as to why residents are content despite such a high level of visitation and visitor contact. Most critically, local planners have consciously and deliberately maintained 'authenticity' by preserving original buildings and landscapes as much as possible as per the descriptions in Kim's novels. Accordingly, the tourism landscape is essentially invisible, with buildings that attract visitors or serving as restaurants and accommodations being almost indistinguishable from the homes of residents. Signage and other tourism infrastructure are discreet, and no significant secondary tourism development such as theme parks or arcades has been allowed. As a result, the market is self-selected and visitors are almost all admirers of Kim Yujeong who come to immerse themselves in the sense of place that KYLV conveys. The enthusiasm, reverence and respect they display inspire and reinforce the hometown pride of residents, who otherwise think that they would be indistinguishable from any other Korean villagers. The mutually-reinforced respect for Kim Yujeong, however, is also a reflection of cultural uniformity — almost all visitors, like the residents, are ethnic Koreans who share common values, language and an appreciation of this famous author. Pervasive indications of mutual tolerance, politeness and patience may therefore reflect social cohesion derived from embedded Confucianist, Taoist and Buddhist cultural influences as much as other factors. It is probably also significant that almost all visitors are excursionists who on average spend just two hours in the village, which is readily accessible to Seoul by train. At night, the residents have the village to themselves.

Despite this positive assessment, local planners and residents should guard against complacency. One danger sign is the exponential increase in visitation from 92 000 in 2008 to over 400 000 in 2011. If this remarkable rate of growth continues, it may well be that critical (but currently undetected) carrying capacity thresholds will be crossed in the next few years. The focus on Kim Yujeong could be diluted and there will be temptations to provide new and more contrived diversions for visitors, reflecting greater commodification and commercial diversification. Yet, it would be very difficult, and perhaps culturally and politically inappropriate, to limit access to KYLV. Rather than assuming that

the strong attraction of a single literary icon will be maintained along with an environment of East Asian social cohesion, stakeholders will need to be more proactive about local tourism planning and management so that the more dysfunctional stages of the destination cycle are not realised.

The dilemma facing KYLV seems to have been anticipated by Herbert (2001), who identified two divergent management models for literary villages. On one hand, they can be conceived as *heritage sites* where the *preservation* of core iconic attractions is emphasised. Alternatively, they can be regarded as *destinations* where the literary heritage is progressively commodified to facilitate economic *development*. Preservation and development are both legitimate objectives appealing to different stakeholder groups, and their reconciliation is a major challenge for literary village managers. East Asian cultural values and philosophies may provide a way forward through the idea, familiar to many Westerners in the dualism of 'yin' and 'yang', that opposites are concurrent and complementary. The successful integration of such ideas into tourism planning and management could be a major contribution to the sector from the East Asian region.

QUESTIONS

1 Prepare a 1000-word report in which you describe how Herbert's two management models can both be accommodated within a literary village of your choice. Organise this report using the attraction attribute categories (outlined in chapter 5) which comprise ownership, orientation, spatial configuration, authenticity, scarcity, status, carrying capacity, accessibility, market, image and context.

2 Prepare an annotated bibliography of academic publications in the English language that apply the destination cycle to Asian contexts. Based on this information, write a 1000-word report in which you:
   (a) discuss the extent to which this research reflects the existing Western destination cycle literature, and
   (b) provide evidence for distinctively East Asian political, social and cultural dynamics.

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11

Sustainable tourism

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1 explain the concepts of 'paradigm shift' and 'paradigm nudge' and their relevance to contemporary tourism

2 indicate how conventional mass tourism is related to the dominant Western environmental paradigm

3 define sustainable tourism and show how this is related to both the dominant Western environmental paradigm, the green paradigm and sustainable development

4 identify key indicators that gauge sustainability and describe their strengths and shortcomings

5 list the reasons for the tourism industry's adoption of the principle of sustainable tourism, and explain the advantages that larger companies have in its implementation

6 describe the patterns of sustainable tourism practice within the tourist industry

7 list examples of alternative tourism and discuss their advantages and disadvantages

8 explain how ecotourism differs from other nature-based tourism, and describe its three distinctive characteristics

9 discuss the positive and negative arguments for encouraging tourism within protected areas

10 critique the broad context model of destination development scenarios as a framework for describing the evolutionary possibilities for tourist destinations.

■ INTRODUCTION

As manifested in the Butler sequence, the destination cycle concept suggests that tourism driven only by free market forces degrades destinations and ultimately undermines itself if managers implement no remedial or precautionary measures during the growth of the sector, especially as development-stage dynamics come into effect. The desire to avoid these negative impacts and still derive positive economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts from tourism has given rise to the concept of sustainable tourism, or tourism that occurs within the carrying capacities of a particular destination. This chapter on sustainable tourism begins by examining the nature of paradigms and paradigm shifts, and considers the likelihood that the dominant scientific paradigm and its associated environmental perspective are in the process of being replaced or at least modified by exposure to a more environmentally sensitive 'green paradigm' mediated by the concept of 'sustainable development'. This provides a context for understanding the emergence of 'sustainable tourism'. After outlining potential key indicators of sustainable tourism and the shortcomings of indicator monitoring, we examine sustainability in the context of mass tourism. The reasons for the tourism industry's interest in sustainability are considered, along with associated practices and measures. A critique of these developments is also provided. The 'Sustainability and small-scale tourism' section focuses on 'alternative tourism' and its various manifestations, as well as the problems that potentially accompany this counterpoint to mass tourism. Ecotourism, which can occur as either mass or alternative tourism, is then examined while the final section considers strategies that potentially improve the sustainability of destinations. It concludes with a broad context model of destination development scenarios that integrates these concepts and incorporates the Butler sequence.

■ A PARADIGM SHIFT?

Defined in its broadest sense, a **paradigm** is the entire constellation of beliefs, assumptions and values that underlie the prevailing way in which a society interprets reality at a given point in time. A paradigm can therefore also be described as a 'worldview' or 'cosmology'. According to Kuhn (1962), a **paradigm shift** is likely to occur when the prevailing paradigm is faced with contradictions and anomalies in the real world that it cannot explain or accommodate. In response to this crisis of credibility, one or more alternative paradigms appear that seemingly resolve these contradictions and anomalies, and one of these gradually emerges as the new dominant paradigm for that society. The period from when the contradictions are first apparent to the replacement of the old paradigm with the competing paradigm can last for many decades, or even centuries. It is also important to note that the replacement of one dominant paradigm by another does not usually involve the disappearance of the formerly dominant paradigm. Rather, the latter can persist as a coexistent worldview retained by some groups or individuals. As well, the new dominant paradigm usually incorporates compatible (or at least non-contradictory) aspects of the old paradigm, and may even emerge as a synthesis between the old paradigm and other radically opposing worldviews that initially arise.

Dominant Western environmental paradigm

Such a paradigm shift occurred in Europe during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. During this time, the Catholic Church was dominant, and its theological worldview held that the world was located in the centre of the universe, and that humans were created spontaneously in the image of God about 6000 years earlier. This theological paradigm was challenged by the discoveries of scientists such as Copernicus and Galileo, and gradually the theological paradigm was replaced by a **scientific paradigm** that offered coherent, logical and empirically verifiable explanations for the radical new theories proposed by these pioneers. Fundamentally, the scientific paradigm perceives the universe as a 'giant machine', not unlike an automobile, that can be 'disassembled' in order to see how it operates. Once these subcomponents and their functions are perfectly understood, then future events within the universe can be predicted with certainty. Underlying the scientific paradigm is the 'scientific method', which reveals knowledge through a rigorously objective procedure of hypothesis formulation and empirical testing (see chapter 12).

By the nineteenth century, science was established as the dominant paradigm within Europe, and then within the world as a whole through the colonial expansion of England, France, Spain and other major European powers. Accompanying the scientific paradigm was acceptance of the anthropocentric belief (a retention, perhaps, from the theological paradigm) that humans are the centre of all things and are apart from and superior to the natural environment. The latter, in this perspective, is seen as having no intrinsic value, but only extrinsic value in relation to its perceived usefulness for people. Thus, some types of woodland such as conifer plantations came to be valued because of their usefulness as a fuel and source of timber, while wetlands were assigned little or no value to the extent that they are perceived to be economically unproductive.

Related to this is the belief in 'progress', or the idea that the application of science and technology will result in a continuous improvement in the quality of human life. Ideologically, the parallel view that progress can best be attained through a growth-oriented capitalist economic system became widely accepted in certain countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States. This perspective emphasises the role of individual incentive and competitive free market forces that determine the value (defined in terms of contribution to GDP) of various elements of the natural environment, such as oil (high) and wetlands (low). These natural environment-related aspects of the scientific paradigm comprise the **dominant Western environmental paradigm**.

Contradictions

Since the mid-twentieth century, the dominant Western environmental paradigm has been confronted with a variety of anomalies and contradictions that challenge many of its fundamental assumptions about progress and nature. Ironically, many of these inconsistencies were revealed by science itself. For example, the field of physics demonstrated the apparently random and chaotic behaviour of subatomic particles, and revealed that the very act of observation can change the nature of these particles. Such findings call into doubt the universal applicability of the objective, mechanistic, deterministic worldview posited by the dominant Western environmental paradigm and science more generally.

At the same time, research in biology, geography and ecology shows that present levels of economic development and growth, deriving from notions of progress and

dominance over nature, may be inconsistent with the world's environmental carrying capacity. Processes and events that support this contention include:

- a series of high-profile environmental disasters, including the *Torrey Canyon* oil tanker spill off the coast of the United Kingdom in 1967, the partial meltdown of the Three Mile Island nuclear power plant in the United States in 1979, the gas leak from the Union Carbide pesticide plant in Bhopal, India, in 1984, the nuclear power plant meltdown at Chernobyl, Ukraine, in 1986, the *Exxon Valdez* oil tanker spill off Alaska in 1989, Hurricane Katrina's impact on New Orleans in 2005, and the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster of 2011
- escalation in anthropogenic (human-induced) climate change, a phenomenon that was exposed widely to the global public through Al Gore's Oscar-winning film *An Inconvenient Truth* and the successive progress reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
- increased incidence of dangerous pathogen mutations, caused in large part by the indiscriminate use of the antibiotics developed to control these disease-causing agents
- rampant desertification and deforestation in the name of progress and economic development.

Some supporters of the dominant Western environmental paradigm, often described as 'technological utopians', argue that technology will solve all these problems as the necessity for solutions become apparent (e.g. scarcity, health concerns). Critics, however, point out that many of the problems are themselves caused by the same modern technologies (such as nuclear power and antibiotics) that claim to address other problems (such as depleted fossil fuels and increased incidence of disease). Critics also suggest that the damage to the environment may soon progress to a point of irreversibility, if this is not already the case.

The dominant Western environmental paradigm and tourism

The tourism sector has also been implicated in these developments. The criticisms of contemporary mass tourism raised in chapters 8 and 9, and the cautionary platform that articulated these criticisms, are reactions against a prevalent pattern of large-scale free market tourism development that is an outcome of the dominant Western environmental paradigm. As encapsulated in the Butler sequence (see chapter 10), this critique holds that the emphasis on unlimited free-market growth produces the contradiction of initially desirable tourist destinations that eventually self-destruct as they become overcrowded, polluted and crime-ridden, and hence increasingly less desirable to both tourists and residents.

Towards a green paradigm

Criticism of the dominant Western environmental paradigm was made long before the present century — for example, in the writings of the American author Henry David Thoreau and the English author and social critic Charles Dickens. However, these were individual and isolated voices that initially did little to challenge the dominant paradigm and its damaging environmental or social impacts, especially since these problems were offset by demonstrable improvements in the physical wellbeing of societies undergoing the Industrial Revolution. Since 1950, the critique has gained momentum, in part because of the highly publicised environmental problems and disasters outlined earlier, and in part due to a sequence of high-profile publications that have both reflected and stimulated the post-1950 environmental movement (see figure 11.1). Challenges to the dominant Western environmental paradigm are also evident in allied perspectives such as contemporary feminism and the global reassertion of the rights of indigenous people, as well as through interest in the New Age movement. Some interpretations of the Bible, in addition, emphasise a philosophy of stewardship rather than dominion over nature.

The growing crisis in the dominant Western environmental paradigm is, therefore, resulting in the articulation of a competing worldview that can be described in very general terms as the **green paradigm**. Both paradigms are depicted as contrasting ideal types in table 11.1, but it must be reiterated that a full shift to the green paradigm ideal type is unlikely. Rather, the *actual* (as opposed to ideal type) green paradigm of the future is likely to incorporate elements from each paradigm. This is evident in the emergence of **corporate social responsibility** as a business imperative that tries to amalgamate the core green principles of social responsibility and ethics with the core 'corporate' principles of profitability, competition and growth. There is, of course, considerable debate as to the compatibility and durability of such combinations.

1968 *The Population Boom* (Paul Ehrlich)

1949 *A Sand County Almanac* (Aldo Leopold)

1972 *Limits to Growth* (Club of Rome)

1990 *First Assessment Report* (IPCC)

1973 *Small is Beautiful* (Ernst Schumacher)

2007 *Fourth Assessment Report* (IPCC)

1962 *Silent Spring* (Rachel Carson)

1979 *Gaia: A New Look at Life on Earth* (James Lovelock)

1980 *World Conservation Strategy* (IUCN)

1982 *Global 2000 Report to the President* (Council on Environmental Quality)

1950   1960   1970   1980   1990   2000   2010   2020

1984 *Deep Ecology and Lifestyle* (Arne Naess)

1987 *Our Common Future* (Gro Harlem Brundtland)

1991 *Caring for the Earth* (World Wide Fund for Nature, United Nations Environment Program)

1992 *The Global Biodiversity Strategy* (World Resources Institute, World Conservation Union, United Nations Environment Program) *Agenda 21* (Rio Earth Summit)

1995 *Second Assessment Report* (IPCC)

1996 *Rebels Against the Future* (Kirkpatrick Sale) *Our Stolen Future* (Theo Colborn, Dianne Dumanoski, Pete Myers)

2001 *Third Assessment Report* (IPCC)

2006 *An Inconvenient Truth* (Al Gore)

2015 *Fifth Assessment Report* (IPCC)

FIGURE 11.1 Milestone publications in the modern environmental movement

TABLE 11.1 The dominant Western environmental paradigm and the green paradigm as contrasting ideal types

Dominant Western environmental paradigm	Green paradigm
Humans are **separate from nature**	Humans are **part of nature**
Humans are **superior to nature**	Humans are **equal with the rest of nature**
Reality is **objective**	Reality is **subjective**
Reality can be **compartmentalised**	Reality is **integrated** and **holistic**
The future is **predictable**	The future is **unpredictable**
The universe has **order**	The universe is **chaotic**
The importance of **rationality** and **reason**	The importance of **intuition**
Hierarchical structures	**Consensus-based** structures
Competitive structures	**Cooperative** structures
Emphasis on the **individual**	Emphasis on the **communal**
Facilitation through **capitalism**	Facilitation through **socialism**
Linear **progress** and **growth**	Maintenance of a **steady state**
Use of **hard technology**	Use of **soft technology**
Patriarchal and **male**	**Matriarchal** and **female**

Sustainable development

A hallmark in the emergence of the green paradigm as an alternative to conventional ways of thinking about the natural environment was the explicit recognition of **sustainable development** as a new guiding concept. Although the term was introduced in the early 1980s, it was the release of the Brundtland Report (*Our Common Future*) in 1987 that launched this idea into the forefront of the environmental debate. The Brundtland Report proposed the following definition of sustainable development:

> Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED 1987, p. 43).

This simple and enticing definition has gained widespread support from all sides of the environmental debate, and was employed as a central theme in the Rio Earth Summit of 1992 and its resultant *Agenda 21* manifesto as well as in the sequel Johannesburg Summit of 2002 ('Rio+10') and the Rio Earth Summit of 2012 ('Rio+20'). However, a closer scrutiny of the term reveals several difficulties. Some critics suggest that the term — like corporate social responsibility — is an oxymoron, with 'sustainability' (with its steady state implications) and 'development' (with its growth implications) being mutually exclusive. The widespread support that the term enjoys, therefore, may simply reflect the ease with which it can be appropriated by the supporters of various ideologies or platforms to perpetuate and legitimise their own perspective. A resultant danger, according to Mowforth and Munt (2009) and others, is that the term can be used for **greenwashing** purposes; that is, to convey an impression of environmental responsibility for a product or business that does not deserve the reputation for it.

Others, however, regard the semantic flexibility of sustainable development as an asset that recognises and is responsive to the complexity and diversity of the real world. Hunter (1997), for example, describes sustainable development as an adaptive paradigm that accommodates both weak and strong manifestations:

- **Weak sustainable development** strategies are essentially anthropocentric and relevant to heavily modified environments (e.g. urban cores, intensively farmed areas), where human quality of life is a more realistic and relevant goal than, say, preserving rare species and their undisturbed habitats.
- **Strong sustainable development** strategies are essentially biocentric and are warranted in relatively undisturbed environments such as Antarctica and most of the Amazon basin.

■ SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

The term **sustainable tourism** became popular in the early 1990s following the release of the Brundtland Report, and the concept of sustainability has subsequently been embraced by all facets of the tourism industry. The term at its most basic represents a direct application of the sustainable development concept. Sustainable tourism, in this context, is tourism that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. In more practical operational terms, sustainable tourism can be regarded as tourism managed in such a way that:

- it does not exceed the environmental, sociocultural or economic carrying capacity of a given destination, and
- related environmental, sociocultural and economic costs are minimised while related environmental, sociocultural and economic benefits are maximised.

This inclusion of environmental, sociocultural and economic dimensions is often referred to as the **triple bottom line** approach. Weaver (2006) adds the caveat that even responsible operators may inadvertently operate on occasion in an unsustainable way, in which case the litmus test for a sustainable tourism operator is the willingness to redress the problem as soon as it is made apparent. Weaver also suggests that the definition should incorporate (as a parameter of economic sustainability) the need for operators to be *financially* sustainable, since tourism that is not financially viable is not likely to survive for long, no matter how viable it is from an environmental or sociocultural perspective. As with sustainable development, the term 'sustainable tourism' is susceptible to appropriation by those pursuing a particular political agenda, but is also amenable to weak and strong interpretations that adapt effectively to different kinds of destinations.

Indicators

Whether sustainability is perceived from a weak or strong perspective, criteria must be selected and monitored to determine whether sustainable tourism is present in a destination or not. The first step is to identify a set of appropriate environmental, sociocultural, economic and other relevant **indicators** (see Contemporary issue: Geopolitical sustainability and the quadruple bottom line), or variables that provide information about the status of some phenomenon (in this case, the level of sustainability), so that tourism and affiliated sectors can be managed accordingly. Since the early 1990s, the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has played a lead role in identifying and 'road testing' tourism-related indicators. In the latest iteration of this process, the UNWTO in 2004 proposed 12 enduring baseline issues that are applicable to every destination (Antarctica may be an exception since it has no permanent resident community), and suggested indicators that allow for these issues to be measured (see table 11.2) (WTO 2004). The 2004 guidebook offers more than 500 indicators in total, inviting managers to select an array of indicators that is suitable for the specific circumstances of their own destination. To assist in the selection and implementation process, the guidebook supplements the suggested indicators with information about why the indicator is important, how it can be measured, and what benchmarks should be used. The result is the most comprehensive and flexible guidebook thus far for sustainable tourism, but one that is also hindered by its complexity and size as well as its failure to clearly describe the risks and challenges associated with the use of sustainable tourism indicators (Miller & Twining-Ward 2005).

contemporary issue

GEOPOLITICAL SUSTAINABILITY AND THE QUADRUPLE BOTTOM LINE

Sustainability is usually engaged in terms of its environmental, sociocultural and economic dimensions, but there is also a geopolitical component that deserves more attention (Weaver 2010b). Geopolitics refers to the interrelationships between space, territory and power that pervade international and domestic tourism systems. This is illustrated by the movements of tourists between countries, which have implications for the relationship between those countries that transcend and influence their economic, social and environmental impacts. Such movements, for example, can be used to initiate better bilateral relationships, as when a table tennis team from the United States visited China in the early 1970s as a gesture of friendship and

School students visit Parliament House, Canberra

reconciliation that ultimately led to better relations between the two countries. Similarly, tourism is a major component of the 'growth triangle' strategy that aims to promote mutually advantageous economic and cultural connections in the area where the boundaries of Singapore, Indonesia and Malaysia converge (Timothy & Teye 2004). In both examples, the deliberate use of tourism as a tool to improve bilateral or multilateral relationships can be seen as the pursuit of **geopolitical sustainability**. Such dynamics can also apply within a country. School field trips to visit iconic symbols of national identity in capital cities such as Canberra (Ritchie & Coughlan 2004), for example, are designed among other purposes to instil national pride and civic awareness in a culturally diverse population, thereby contributing to the long-term stability of Australia as a country. A more formal initiative is the Canadian federal government's Encounters with Canada program, which allows more than 100 Canadian teenagers to travel to the national capital of Ottawa each week to meet teenagers from other parts of Canada and learn about key Canadian institutions and leadership opportunities (Encounters with Canada 2013). Because such outcomes can be seen to facilitate the more conventional economic, environmental and sociocultural parameters of sustainable tourism, it may be appropriate to include geopolitical sustainability as part of a new quadruple bottom line.

TABLE 11.2 UNWTO baseline issues and suggested indicators	
Baseline issue	**Suggested indicators**
1. Local satisfaction with tourism	• Local satisfaction level with tourism (questionnaire, social media analysis [see Technology and tourism: Using social media to gauge resident perceptions])
2. Effects of tourism on communities	• Ratio of tourists to locals (average and peak period/days) • Percentage of people who believe that tourism has helped bring new services or infrastructure (questionnaire) • Number and capacity of social services available to the community (percentage of which are attributable to tourism)
3. Sustaining tourist satisfaction	• Level of satisfaction by visitors (questionnaire) • Perception of value for money (questionnaire) • Percentage of return visitors
4. Tourism seasonality	• Tourist arrivals by month or quarter (distribution throughout the year) • Occupancy rates for licensed (official) accommodation by month (peak periods relative to low season and percentage of all occupancy in peak quarter or month) • Percentage of business establishments open all year • Number and percentage of tourist industry jobs which are permanent or full-year (compared to temporary jobs)
5. Economic benefits of tourism	• Number of local people (and ratio of men to women) employed in tourism (also ratio of tourism employment to total employment) • Revenues generated by tourism as percentage of total revenues generated in the community

Baseline issue	Suggested indicators
6. Energy management	• Per capita consumption of energy from all sources (overall, and by tourist sector — per person day) • Percentage of businesses participating in energy conservation programs, or applying energy saving policy and techniques • Percentage of energy consumption from renewable resources (at destinations, establishments)
7. Water availability and conservation	• Water use (total volume consumed and litres per tourist per day) • Water saving (percentage reduced, recaptured or recycled)
8. Drinking water quality	• Percentage of tourism establishments with water treated to international potable standards • Frequency of water-borne diseases (number/percentage of visitors reporting water-borne illnesses during their stay)
9. Sewage treatment (wastewater management)	• Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment (to primary, secondary, tertiary levels) • Percentage of tourism establishments (or accommodation) on treatment system(s)
10. Solid waste management (garbage)	• Waste volume produced by the destination (tonnes) (by month) • Volume of waste recycled (m^3)/total volume of waste (m^3) (specify by different types) • Quantity of waste strewn in public areas (garbage counts)
11. Development control	• Existence of a land use or development planning process, including tourism • Percentage of area subject to control (density, design etc.)
12. Controlling use intensity	• Total number of tourist arrivals (mean, monthly, peak periods) • Number of tourists per square metre of the site (e.g. at beaches, attractions), per square kilometre of the destination (mean numbers/peak period average)

Source: UNWTO (2004, p. 245)

technology and tourism

USING SOCIAL MEDIA TO GAUGE RESIDENT PERCEPTIONS

The tourism sector of the Maldives was shaken as thousands of Maldivians and foreigners watched a 2010 YouTube video of a 'marriage ceremony' in which a Swiss couple was unknowingly subjected to a barrage of insults in the native Dhivehi language from the so-called celebrant, a resort employee (Pidd 2010). Among the more than 12 000 commentaries posted across social media platforms after the incident was uploaded, about 10 per cent came from residents of the Maldives. This offers a unique opportunity for using **netnography** to gauge local reactions to a highly controversial tourism-related event (Shakeela & Weaver 2012). Almost all of the responses condemned the incident, often in strongly emotional language. The researchers analysed these responses and constructed an **emoscape** ('emotional landscape') that modelled these reactions. They found *visceral reactions* such as shame, anger or sadness; *reflective fight responses* that included calls for punishment

of the celebrant and apology to the couple; *sentiments* about the event such as feelings that this happens on a regular basis; and *cognitive interpretations* that related to issues such as the ill-treatment of employees by resorts, the lack of professionalism among employees, and underlying political motivations of those who uploaded the video. The responses reflected a pervasive awareness of the vital role played by tourism in the national economy, and the subsequent need to protect the sector. Although it cannot be assumed that the responses represent Maldivian society overall, social media provides a means by which incidents can be witnessed almost immediately by millions, whose opinions can be easily disseminated to millions of others. Unlike interviews, surveys or other traditional sources of solicitation, social media encourages individuality, anonymity, and freedom of expression, and attracts responses — often impulsively — from those with strong feelings. Social media is therefore likely to become increasingly popular as a data source, and researchers will need to better understand how it differs from more traditional sources of solicitation.

Challenges of using indicators

Even if the UNWTO provides an indicator selection that adequately reflects the diversity of variables that need to be considered by destination managers, several operational challenges must still be confronted that further attest to the difficulties of undertaking such a task in complex tourism systems, including:

- obtaining adequate stakeholder participation and agreement, including community input and approval (Miller & Twining-Ward 2005)
- fuzzy boundaries between tourism and other sectors (see chapter 1), which make it difficult to determine the degree to which certain impacts can be attributed to tourism
- difficulties in identifying indirect and especially induced impacts, such as the unsustainable construction of housing for workers attracted to an otherwise internally sustainable hotel
- discontinuities between cause and effect through both time and space, whereby a negative impact in a destination such as *E. coli* appearing in the water may be caused by unsustainable tourism activity that occurred one month earlier and 50 kilometres upstream
- incompatibility between the long-term timeframe of indicator monitoring and the short-term (and unpredictable) timeframe of the political processes that support monitoring
- nonlinear relationships between cause and effect, so that a given input into a system does not necessarily result in a comparable or proportional output that can be reliably predicted. This is illustrated by the **avalanche effect**, in which a small input that caused no apparent problems in the past (e.g. another snowflake added to a snow bank), becomes a tipping point and triggers massive change in the system (e.g. an avalanche).
- lack of knowledge about the **benchmark** and **threshold** values that indicate sustainability for a particular destination. A benchmark is a value against which the performance of an indicator can be assessed. The benchmark may be the same as a threshold, which is a critical value or value range beyond which the carrying capacity is being exceeded.
- potential incompatibility between environmental and social or cultural sustainability, as when a strictly protected national park safeguards an endangered ecosystem but displaces a local human community
- lack of a coordinated approach among destinations to trial generic indicators (see Managing tourism: Global observatories of sustainable tourism)

managing tourism

GLOBAL OBSERVATORIES OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

A major problem in implementing sustainable tourism is the difficulty in designating an adequate variety of coordinated locations where trial indicators (see table 11.2) can be systematically monitored, measured and assessed over a sufficient period of time. To overcome this obstacle, the UNWTO in 2004 introduced the Global Observatory of Sustainable Tourism (GOST) initiative to establish a long-term network of local sites where these activities can be undertaken. Since then, five observatories have been established in China alone to assist policy makers and industry to better plan and manage the country's burgeoning tourism sector (UNWTO 2011). The five locations were carefully selected to represent a diversity of destination types. They include densely populated urban areas such as the city of Chengdu, where tourism attracts millions of domestic tourists, creates 600 000 direct jobs and generates 8 per cent of local gross national product (GNP) (UNWTO 2012). Because of the logistical difficulties in monitoring an entire city of 5 million residents, special observation sites have been set up at Sansheng Village, a semi-rural area famous for its flowers, and Kuanzhai Alley, an inner city historical district of restored hutongs (alleys) offering shops, restaurants and nightlife. At the other end of the spectrum, an observatory has also been established in the Kanas Lake Nature Reserve, a semi-wilderness protected area which each year receives over one million mainly domestic tourists. All five Chinese observatories are monitored by a specialised centre at Sun Yat-sen University in Guangzhou. With other observatories opened or planned in Montenegro, the Philippines and Saudi Arabia, the initiative will attempt to define best practice for a range of destinations, facilitate information exchange between destinations, and develop effective reporting mechanisms and training methods. This embryonic global network is also intended to help travel agencies and tour operators, as well as consumers, choose the most sustainable suppliers for their distribution chains.

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND MASS TOURISM

Much of the early attention to sustainable tourism was focused on small-scale and low-intensity situations (see the following section), but its relevance to mass tourism is arguably more important. This is because the latter accounts for most global tourism activity, and most activity that has been evaluated as being 'unsustainable'. The following discussion considers why the mass tourism industry should be interested in becoming more sustainable, and outlines current practices and measures that reflect apparent adherence to sustainable tourism.

Reasons for adoption

Several factors justify the adoption of the sustainability concept and sustainable practices within the mainstream tourism industry, in addition to the availability of a

weak approach to sustainability that is relatively unthreatening to businesses. These include:

- ethical considerations
- the growth of the 'green traveller' market
- the profitability of sustainability
- conducive economies of scale.

Ethical considerations

One school of thought is that corporations should pursue sustainability because ethical behaviour is what society expects from entities that exercise great power over the environment and culture, even if such expectations are not enshrined in the law. This is the essence of corporate social responsibility. For some executives and managers, this may be motivated by religious fiat (e.g. the Golden Rule), while for others it may reflect an attitude of enlightened self-interest; that is, a belief that a failure to behave ethically will at some point result in a negative public image or consumer boycotts, or otherwise negatively affect a tourism business's profitability by triggering the later stages of the Butler sequence.

Growth of the green consumer market

As a consequence of the expanding influence of the environmental movement, there is growing evidence that consumers are becoming more discerning, sophisticated and responsible when it comes to purchasing decisions and behaviour. In Phase Four societies such as Australia, the United States and the United Kingdom, various surveys suggest that approximately one-quarter of consumers can be described as 'true' green consumers, meaning that environmental and social considerations exert a major influence on their purchasing behaviour (see figure 11.2). True green consumers, to a greater or lesser extent, are described as such because they are willing to make inconvenient concessions — of cost or time, for example — for the sake of environmentally responsible behaviour (Weaver 2006). They are, for example, more willing to pay extra for 'environmentally friendly' food and cars, and believe that government should spend more of its budget on social and environmental issues.
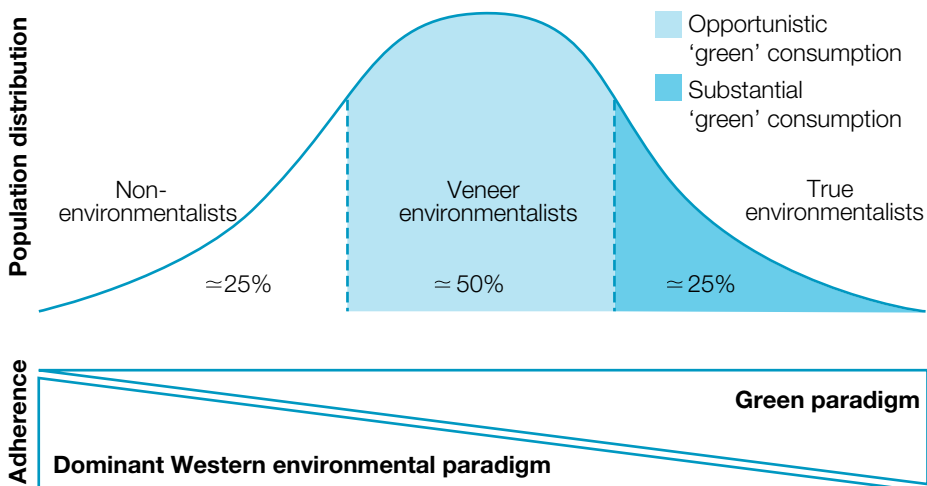
FIGURE 11.2 Environmentalism-related population clusters

A larger group, consisting of about one-half of the population, includes marginal or 'veneer' green consumers. These people express concern about environmental issues but tend to purchase environmentally friendly goods and services only if it is convenient, as for example if the latter are priced competitively against comparable conventional goods and services. However, many will behave temporarily or permanently like 'true' green consumers once convinced that an environmental crisis is at hand, or if the adoption of such behaviour becomes less inconvenient. Business ignores this diverse phenomenon of emergent **green consumerism** at its peril, particularly since these attitudes and behaviour within society were virtually nonexistent before the emergence of the environmental movement after 1950. This trend lends credence to the theory of a contemporary paradigm shift. One financial indication is the growth in socially responsible investment (SRI) portfolios, whose assets in the United States alone increased in value from about US$40 billion in 1984 to US$3.74 trillion in 2012, or about 11 per cent of all professionally managed funds (US Social Investment Forum 2012).

There is growing evidence that true green consumerism is manifest within tourism through the emergence of the **green traveller** segment, the ideal type of which is depicted in figure 11.3. Empirical evidence suggests that this was still a small segment of the overall tourist market in the early 2000s — around one per cent — but one which, like green consumerism more generally, is rapidly growing and over-represented with regard to high levels of income and education (Leslie 2012). However, there is also countervailing evidence which suggests that many people still tend to relax their level of moral behaviour during holiday travel (Dolnicar & Leisch 2008).

The green traveller

Green consumer
Sensitive to local cultures
Conscious of social justice concerns
More independent-minded and discerning
Knowledgeable about environmental issues
Prefers flexible and spontaneous itineraries
Carefully assesses tourism products in advance
Searches for authentic and meaningful experiences
Wishes to have a positive impact on the destination
Motivated by a desire for self-fulfilment and learning
Searches for physically and mentally challenging experiences

FIGURE 11.3 Characteristics of the green traveller

Profitability of sustainability

Notwithstanding the ambiguities in consumer behaviour, there is growing empirical evidence that 'going green' is a sound business decision in the tourism and hospitality sectors (Bohdanowicz 2009, Zhang, Joglekar & Verma 2010). Beyond an enhanced ability to attract specialised green travellers, the inherent profitability of many related activities is a major incentive for conventional businesses to become more involved in sustainability. Reduced energy consumption, for example, is a tangible long-term direct cost saving, as is the recycling of certain kinds of materials, especially given the escalating costs of conventional resources and the concomitant reductions in renewable resource costs. The increasingly ubiquitous hotel linen and towel reuse programs — provided

that they are well designed — require minimal investment costs but attract high levels of guest participation that yield substantial reductions in water, energy and labour costs (Goldstein, Cialdini & Griskevicius 2008, Mair & Bergin-Seers 2010).

Conducive economies of scale

Larger corporations are better positioned in many ways than their small-scale counterparts to implement and profit from sustainable tourism measures. Economies of scale allow big businesses to allocate resources to fund specialised job positions that address sustainability-related issues (e.g. environmental officer, community relations officer), as well as relevant staff training, public education programs and comprehensive environmental audits. Cost-effective recycling and reduction programs are feasible because of the high levels of resource and energy consumption, while vertical and horizontal integration (see chapter 5) allow a company so structured to coordinate its sustainability efforts across a broad array of backward and forward linkages. Because of the volume of business they generate, these companies can also exert pressure on external suppliers to 'go green', thereby making a significant indirect contribution to sustainability. The major transnational hotel chain Marriott, to illustrate, established an Executive Green Council in 2007 to systematically reduce the company's ecological footprint, 'green' its multi-billion dollar distribution chain, educate guests and employees, and participate in the preservation of natural habitat worldwide (Marriott 2013).

Practices

Sustainability-related patterns within the conventional mass tourism industry can be summarised as follows.

- The rhetoric of sustainability has been formally and wholeheartedly embraced by corporations, industry groups and peak organisations such as the UNWTO.
- Formal institutional mechanisms have been initiated throughout the sector to stimulate and facilitate the collective pursuit of sustainable tourism. These include the Cruise Industry Charitable Foundation (www.cruisefoundation.org), the International Tourism Partnership (www.tourismpartnership.org) and the Tour Operators Initiative (TOI) for Sustainable Tourism Development (www.toinitiative.org). Most sectors have also now introduced sustainability-related codes of practice.
- Each sector has been led by a small number of high-profile corporate innovators. These include British Airways and American Airlines among air carriers; Marriott, Starwood and Grecotel among accommodation providers; and TUI among outbound tour operators.
- Sustainability measures adopted by these leaders and other companies focus on activities that increase profits and lower costs in the short and medium term (e.g. high-volume recycling of glass and aluminium, energy use reduction, cogeneration — see Breakthrough tourism: Biofuel takes off), encourage brand visibility (sponsor tourism awards such as the WTTC Tourism for Tomorrow Awards) and are not expensive to implement (e.g. linen reuse signs in hotel bathrooms).
- Although basic practices such as recycling and energy efficient retrofitting have become standard practice because of their cost-saving implications and/or regulatory compliance, a high level of unawareness and noninvolvement remains within each sector (beyond the high-profile activities of sector leaders) as to the array of possible sustainability practices.
- High-level quality control mechanisms, such as third-party verified certification programs, have not yet been widely adopted.

breakthrough tourism

BIOFUEL TAKES OFF

For the past few years, several major airlines have been experimenting with **aviation biofuel** as a supplement or substitute for conventional fossil fuels. Beyond designing more fuel-efficient aircraft, biofuels are the most effective way for the industry to reduce its carbon footprint and energy costs, which are otherwise expected to both increase substantially, in tandem with the anticipated growth in tourism demand. Among the more promising bio-sources are the jatropha and camelina plants, algae, and waste cooking oil. Biofuel still typically accounts for only a small portion of an aircraft's total fuel load, although Finnair has successfully flown an Airbus A319 between Amsterdam and Helsinki with 50 per cent of its load consisting of used cooking oil (GreenAir 2011). Environmentally conscious airlines — including Qantas, Air New Zealand and Singapore Airlines — have formed the Sustainable Aviation Fuel Users Group (SAFUG) to 'advance the development, certification, and commercial use' of such fuels, and to do so in such a way as to be non-competitive with food production and protective of biodiversity (SAFUG 2013). The group cautioned that the use of biofuel should also not require any fundamental changes to aircraft engines or distribution systems, as this would involve high investment costs and impact on resources. Although advocates hail biofuel as the future of aviation, sceptics point out that environmental damage and diversion from food production will indeed occur to meet projected biofuel demand. This includes the European Union's target of having 10 per cent of all its petrol and diesel derived from renewable sources by 2020, which some scientists believe would require 4.5 million hectares of land, an area two-thirds the size of Tasmania (EurActiv 2013). Reduced air travel, for many biofuel opponents, is the only viable way to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, but this option is not supported by current consumer attitudes or behaviour. A promising compromise is to focus on biofuels from algae and waste by-products (e.g. cooking oil) that do not require the transformation of existing agricultural food systems or the clearance of rainforest and other natural ecosystems to grow biofuel crops such as jatropha.

While significant and demonstrable sustainability-related progress has been achieved in the conventional tourism industry since the early 1990s, this progress is uneven and indicates a 'veneer' pattern of sustainability that responds to and parallels the dominance of veneer green consumerism within contemporary society (see figure 11.2). By this logic, the lack of a 'deep' commitment, which could for example be expressed in a voluntary decision by industry to declare a moratorium on tourism development in some destinations, is not evident mainly because there is not yet widespread public agitation for such a radically biocentric policy shift. The true green traveller segment, in effect, is not (yet) large or influential enough to fundamentally change the way industry operates, and the adoption of green practices by tourism businesses is still based mainly on bottom-line financial considerations. Notwithstanding the accompanying ethical rhetoric, these practices do not contradict or undermine existing capitalist premises about profitability, competition and growth. Hence, they are indicative

of **paradigm nudge** — that is, the opportunistic adaptation of the existing capitalist worldview to changing circumstances — rather than an ethically-focused paradigm shift (Weaver 2007).

Quality control

A critical issue in the pursuit of sustainable tourism is the conveyance of assurance, through **quality control mechanisms** (or **quality assurance mechanisms**), that a particular hotel, ski resort, tour operator or carrier is as environmentally or socially sustainable as it claims to be. Codes of practice and ecolabels are two different quality control mechanisms that attempt to provide this assurance in the tourism industry.

Codes of practice

The adoption of 'green' **codes of practice**, conduct or ethics is one of the most widespread and visible sustainability initiatives undertaken by the tourism industry. Examples include the:
- Code of Ethics and Guidelines for Sustainable Tourism (Tourism Industry Association of Canada)
- Environmental Codes of Conduct for Tourism (United Nations Environment Program)
- Sustainable Tourism Principles (Worldwide Fund for Nature and Tourism Concern)
- APEC/PATA Code for Sustainable Tourism
- Environmental Charter for Ski Areas (National Ski Areas Association).

The APEC/PATA code (see figure 11.4) is representative. Members are urged to adopt measures related to environmental and social sustainability, many of which relate to the sustainability indicators provided in table 11.2. While acceptance of the code is supposed to indicate that the member is committed to achieving sustainable outcomes, the voluntary nature of the commitment has been much criticised. These codes of practice have also been criticised because of the vague and general nature of the clauses (which allegedly makes them hard to put into operation and too open to interpretation), the lack of timelines for attaining compliance and almost all of them being based on the principle of self-regulation. As such, they are vulnerable to abuse as greenwashing devices (Mason 2007).

APEC/PATA CODE FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

This code urges PATA Association and Chapter members and APEC Member Economies to:

Conserve the natural environment, ecosystems and biodiversity
- **Contribute** to the conservation of any habitat of flora and fauna, affected by tourism
- **Encourage** relevant authorities to identify areas worthy of conservation and to determine the level of development, if any, which would be compatible in or adjacent to those areas
- **Include** enhancement and corrective actions at tourism sites to conserve wildlife and natural ecosystems.

Respect and support local traditions, cultures and communities
- **Ensure** that community attitudes, local customs and cultural values, and the role of women and children, are understood in the planning and implementation of all our tourism related projects
- **Provide** opportunities for the wider community to take part in discussions on tourism planning issues where these affect the tourism industry and the community

- **Encourage** relevant authorities to identify cultural heritage worthy of conservation and to determine the level of development, if any, which would be compatible in or adjacent to those areas
- **Contribute** to the identity and pride of local communities through providing quality tourism products and services sensitive to those communities.

Maintain environmental management systems

- **Ensure** that environmental assessment is an integral step in planning for a tourism project
- **Encourage** regular environmental audits of practices throughout the tourism industry and to promote desirable changes to those practices
- **Establish** detailed environmental policies and indicators, and/or guidelines for the various sectors of the tourism industry
- **Incorporate** environmentally sensitive design and construction solutions in any building or landscaping for tourism purposes.

Conserve and reduce energy, waste and pollutants

- **Foster** environmentally responsible practices for:
    - reducing pollutants and greenhouse gases
    - conserving water and protecting water quality
    - managing efficiently waste and energy
    - controlling the noise levels and
    - promoting the use of recyclable and biodegradable materials.

Encourage a tourism commitment to environment and cultures

- **Encourage** those involved in tourism to comply with local, regional and national planning policies and to participate in the planning process
- **Foster**, in both management and staff of all tourism projects and activities, an awareness of environmental and cultural values
- **Encourage** all those who provide services to tourism enterprises to participate through environmentally and socially responsible actions
- **Support** environmental and cultural awareness through tourism marketing.

Educate and inform others about local environments and cultures

- **Support** the inclusion of environmental and cultural values in tourism education, training and planning
- **Enhance** the appreciation and understanding by tourists of natural environments and cultural sensitivities through the provision of accurate information and appropriate interpretation
- **Encourage** and support research on the environmental and cultural impacts of tourism.

Cooperate with others to sustain environments and cultures

- **Cooperate** with other individuals and organisations to advance environmental improvements and sustainable development practices, including establishing indicators and monitoring
- **Comply** with all international conventions and national, state and local laws which safeguard natural environments and cultural sensitivities.

FIGURE 11.4 Pacific Asia Tourism Association code for environmentally responsible tourism

Source: PATA

However, there are also compelling arguments in favour of such codes:

- The membership of organisations such as PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association) and APEC (Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation) is too diverse to accommodate detailed objectives and relevant indicators within a single code. The codes therefore provide the generic principles that everyone can agree with, and each type of member can then be referred to relevant best practice parameters as defined by a monitoring or other organisation. In this sense, the PATA principles overlap considerably with the UNWTO baseline issues listed in table 11.2.

- Codes are therefore a low-cost and low-risk gateway for moving gradually towards higher forms of sustainability-related quality control (Bendell & Font 2004).
- Codes can be a powerful form of moral suasion in that uncomfortable questions and scrutiny may be directed at members who do not consciously pursue sustainability, given that members are assumed to have made such a commitment.
- Reputable organisations such as PATA and APEC risk loss of credibility if members are seen to be code-noncompliant, and thus they have an incentive to encourage and tacitly enforce compliance.
- Private corporations are more likely to cooperate with sustainability initiatives if they are not threatened or forced to accept obligatory objectives and deadlines through government regulation.
- The self-regulation that is implicit or explicit in these codes is based on the premise that voluntary adherence to good practice within the industry itself will pre-empt governments from increasing their own regulations on the sector. Businesses, as a result, will be able to maintain greater control over their own operations if they show themselves to be good 'corporate citizens' by adhering to the spirit of applicable codes.

Ecolabels

Font (2001, p. 3) defines **ecolabels** as 'methods [that] standardize the promotion of environmental claims by following compliance to set criteria, generally based on third party, impartial verification, usually by governments or non-profit organizations'. As such, they are considered to be a much stronger quality control mechanism than codes. Ecolabels are focused on the interrelated concepts of certification and accreditation. **Certification** involves an independent expert third party (i.e. other than the applicant or the governing ecolabel body), which investigates and confirms for an ecolabel body whether an applicant complies with that body's specified sustainability standards or indicators. If so, then the ecolabel managers will formally certify the applicant. **Accreditation**, in contrast, is a process in which an overarching organisation evaluates the ecolabel itself and confers accreditation if it is assessed as being sufficiently rigorous and credible. In essence, the accrediting body certifies the ecolabel (Black & Crabtree 2007). A major challenge for the contemporary tourism industry is the absence of such an overarching accreditation body, although various peak organisations are currently collaborating to achieve this critical objective (see the case study at the end of this chapter).

Most of the approximately 100 tourism-related ecolabels are focused on a particular product or region (e.g. the Blue Flag ecolabel certifies only beaches). EC3 Global (www.ec3global.com) is an exception because it encompasses all tourism products and all regions, and in doing so is attempting to position itself as the world's primary tourism ecolabel. Central to its multifaceted EarthCheck system is a graded membership structure consisting of 4 stages:

1 Benchmarking (Bronze) — based on presentation of a sustainability policy and completion of a benchmarking exercise that is assessed by EC3 Global
2 Certification (Silver) — requires compliance with relevant regulation and policies, and documentation of appropriate performance outcomes; includes an outside audit with onsite visit
3 Certification (Gold) — awarded to recognise five consecutive years of continuous silver certification
4 Certification (Platinum) — awarded to recognise ten years of continuous certification.

The actual number of tourism businesses participating in EarthCheck as of 2013 was very small as a proportion of the entire industry. One problem for EC3 Global and other ecolabels is that companies are reluctant to join until the certification or accreditation achieves greater visibility among consumers, but this is unlikely to occur without a higher level of participation from industry in the first place. In general, it does not appear yet as if tourism-related consumer purchasing is significantly influenced by whether such products are certified or not.

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND SMALL-SCALE TOURISM

As suggested, much attention in the sustainable tourism literature has been devoted to small-scale tourism projects and destinations, on the assumption that such tourism is more likely to have positive environmental, economic and sociocultural impacts within a destination. The following discussion shows that the theoretical case for this assumption is sound, and there are indeed many examples of small-scale sustainable tourism. However, it should never be automatically assumed that the outcomes of small-scale tourism are always positive.

Alternative tourism

The cautionary platform identified the problems associated with mass tourism, but did not articulate more appropriate options in response. Alternative options appeared in the early 1980s in association with the adaptancy platform (see chapter 1). This new perspective held that because large-scale tourism was inherently problematic, small-scale alternatives were more desirable. The associated options, combined under the umbrella term of **alternative tourism**, were thus primarily conceived as alternatives to large-scale or mass tourism specifically, rather than in relation to other types of tourism or 'alternative' lifestyles.

Figure 11.5 depicts mass tourism and alternative tourism as contrasting ideal types. These came to be widely perceived as models of 'bad' and 'good' tourism, respectively. Where mass tourism attractions are alleged to be 'contrived', alternative tourism attractions are 'authentic'; where mass tourism supposedly fosters externally controlled, high-leakage operations, alternative tourism offers locally controlled, high-linkage opportunities and so on. It may be added that alternative tourism is expected to adhere to a strong (as opposed to weak) interpretation of sustainability, while mass tourism is seen by supporters of the adaptancy platform as following an unacceptably weak version.

Circumstantial and deliberate alternative tourism

In some cases, a destination's affiliation with alternative tourism is superficial, the presence of the associated characteristics being simply a function of the fact that the destination is in the 'exploration' or 'involvement' stage of the Butler sequence (see chapter 10). This 'unintentional' variation can be referred to as **circumstantial alternative tourism (CAT)**, meaning that this status merely reflects associations with the early circumstances of the resort cycle. In contrast, **deliberate alternative tourism (DAT)** occurs when a regulatory environment is present that 'deliberately' maintains the destination in that involvement-type state (Weaver 2000b). Returning to figure 11.5, the full set of alternative tourism characteristics in a destination is therefore indicative of the deliberate variation. If, however, the characteristics listed under

'regulation' are absent, then this indicates the presence of the circumstantial variant. Note the similarities between the latter situation and the exploration/involvement stage characteristics listed in table 10.1.

Characteristics	Unsustainable mass tourism	Deliberate alternative tourism
Markets		
Segment	Psychocentric–midcentric	Allocentric–midcentric
Volume and mode	High; package tours	Low; individual arrangements
Seasonality	Distinct high and low seasons	No distinct seasonality
Origins	A few dominant markets	No dominant markets
Attractions		
Emphasis	Highly commercialised	Moderately commercialised
Character	Generic, 'contrived'	Area specific, 'authentic'
Orientation	Tourists only or mainly	Tourists and locals
Accommodation		
Size	Large scale	Small scale
Spatial pattern	Concentrated in 'tourist areas'	Dispersed throughout area
Density	High density	Low density
Architecture	'International' style; obtrusive, non-sympathetic	Vernacular style, unobtrusive, complementary
Ownership	Nonlocal, large corporations	Local, small businesses
Economic status		
Role of tourism	Dominates local economy	Complements existing activity
Linkages	Mainly external	Mainly internal
Leakages	Extensive	Minimal
Multiplier effect	Low	High
Regulation		
Control	Nonlocal private sector, facilitated by government	Local 'community'
Amount	Minimal; to facilitate private sector	Extensive; to minimise local negative impacts and maximise benefits
Ideology	Free market forces	Public intervention
Emphasis	Economic growth, profits; sector-specific	Community stability and wellbeing; integrated, holistic
Timeframe	Short term	Long term

FIGURE 11.5 Mass tourism and alternative tourism: ideal types

Source: Weaver (2006)

The distinction between circumstantial and deliberate alternative tourism is critical, since a CAT destination has the potential (assuming that there is demand to visit this

place) to evolve along an unsustainable path of development as per the Butler sequence (there being no preventative measures in place). In contrast, DAT reflects the influence of specific policy directives and controls (e.g. indicator thresholds and benchmark objectives that reflect a strong sustainability interpretation) that better ensure the maintenance of a sustainable, low-intensity tourism option based on keeping tourism activity below local carrying capacities (see figure 10.3(a)).

Manifestations

Since the 1980s, DAT-related products and opportunities have become increasingly diverse, but still account for only a very small proportion of all tourism activity despite ongoing growth in the green traveller market. Manifestations include:

- cultural villages — Tourism for Discovery (Senegal)
- homestays — Meet the People (Jamaica), Friendship Force (International)
- feminist travel — Womantrek (United States)
- indigenous tourism — Wanuskewin (Saskatchewan, Canada), Tiwi Tours, Camp Coorong (Australia)
- older adult tourism — Elderhostel (international)
- holiday farms — Worldwide Opportunities on Organic Farms (WWOOF) (international)
- social awareness travel — Center for Global Education, Global Exchange, Plowshares Institute (all in the United States)
- youth hostels
- personal awareness tourism — ESALEN Institute (California)
- religious tourism — monastery retreats
- educational tourism — The Humanities Institute (United States)
- volunteer activity — Habitat for Humanity, Global Volunteers (both in the United States)
- guesthouses.

While these activities mostly occur in rural areas, urban DAT is also possible. One example is the urban cultural heritage tourism that is offered in the Soweto township of Johannesburg, South Africa (Rogerson 2004). Ecotourism, another primarily rural activity, first emerged in the 1980s as a nature-based form of alternative tourism. However, because it is now widely recognised as having mass as well as alternative manifestations, it is discussed separately in this chapter.

Critique of alternative tourism

Although a small-scale level of activity is implicit in alternative tourism, the absence of negative impacts cannot be assumed. Problems that can occur in association with this apparently benign form of tourism are depicted in figure 11.6. In conjunction with earlier comments made about the suitability of large-scale enterprises to implement sustainable practices, the opposite can be said about small operations. Operators of the latter often lack the resources or expertise to implement measures compatible with sustainable tourism, and are more immediately concerned about their very survival. Alternative tourists (e.g. voluntourists) themselves may cause sociocultural stress by being overly intrusive in their desire to experience 'backstage' lifestyles over a prolonged period of time, thereby increasing the potential for cross-cultural misunderstanding (see chapter 9). Similarly, they may unintentionally distress wildlife by their presence, or introduce harmful pathogens into sensitive natural

backstage locales that have not been site-hardened or habituated to accommodate even small numbers of visitors. In both situations, these tourists may function as 'explorers', as per the Butler sequence, who inadvertently open the destination to less benign forms of tourism development. Despite their philosophical discomfort with mass tourism, alternative tourists also rely on mass tourism products, such as air transport, which contribute to unsustainability at a global level and reflect perhaps a certain amount of dishonesty in relation to their self-avowed 'purity' as a separate and more virtuous form of tourist.

Alternative tourists use air carriers and other products of mass tourism that contribute to environmental and social problems

Alternative tourism may reflect elite 'Western' values that are imposed on local people

Alternative tourism as a way of keeping a destination in an underdeveloped condition

Misappropriation of the term by unscrupulous operators

Many advocates are naïve and uncritical

Intrusiveness of contact

Modest economic returns

Small scale ecotourism can inadvertently disturb wildlife or introduce harmful exotics or diseases

Alternative tourism

Inadvertent role of alternative tourism in opening area to more intensive forms of tourism

Locals may actually prefer mass tourism

Lack of services equates with low carrying capacities

Control assumed by local elite

Clan or group rivalries exacerbated

Economies of scale of individual operators inadequate to implement sustainable practices

FIGURE 11.6 Criticisms of alternative tourism

Source: Adapted from Weaver (1998)

A commonly cited criticism is the association of alternative tourism with elite 'green' value systems that place a high value on principles (such as the nonconsumption of natural resources) that may be incompatible with local hunting traditions or slash-and-burn farming techniques. Great pressure may be placed on locals by some NGOs to adopt the alternative tourism model, even though local residents in some cases might prefer a more intensive and larger-scale form of tourism that generates higher economic returns. Small-scale ecotourism is even seen as a way of keeping an area in an underdeveloped, primitive state for the benefit of a few wealthy ecotourists from the developed countries (Butcher 2006).

Where local residents are actually in control of an alternative tourism enterprise, most of this power may rest in the hands of the local elite, whose economic and social dominance in the community is thereby reinforced. Similarly, clan rivalries may be exacerbated if one group perceives that a rival group is gaining an advantage from a particular tourism initiative. Other problems include the continued naïvety of

some advocates, who may be unwilling or unable to see its potential shortcomings, and the possibility that unscrupulous businesses may use the alternative tourism or ecotourism label as greenwashing to legitimise products that do not meet the appropriate criteria.

Finally, there is a broader argument that deliberate alternative tourism cannot possibly be the 'answer' to unsustainable mass tourism since it is not feasible to convert mass tourism resorts such as Australia's Gold Coast and Spain's Benidorm into alternative tourism destinations. This reinforces the contention that sustainability discourses must be focused on mass tourism. Indeed, it appears in many successful alternative tourism destinations that managers eagerly respond to growing demand by raising their carrying capacity threshold to accommodate more visitors, as per figure 10.3(b) (Weaver 2012b). Eventually, such places may in this way lose their identity as alternative tourism destinations. Similarly, the issue of whether backpacking is alternative or mass tourism is becoming increasingly contested as participation increases and related organisations and businesses become increasingly sophisticated (Larsen, Øgaard & Brun 2011).

■ ECOTOURISM

Ecotourism is distinguished in three main ways from other types of tourism.
- The natural environment, or some component thereof (e.g. noncaptive wildlife), is the focus of attraction, with associated cultural resources being a secondary attraction given that all 'natural' environments are actually modified to a greater or lesser extent by direct and indirect human activity.
- Interactions with nature are motivated by a desire to appreciate or learn about the attraction. This contrasts with nature-based 3S or adventure tourism, where the natural environment serves as a convenient setting to fulfil some other motivation (e.g. sunbathing or thrill-seeking, respectively, in the two cases given here).
- Every attempt must be made to operate in an environmentally, socioculturally and economically sustainable manner as per the triple bottom line. Unlike other types of tourism, the mandate to be sustainable is explicit, prompting Weaver (2006) to describe ecotourism as the 'conscience of sustainable tourism'.

Within these parameters there are many activities that cluster under the ecotourism umbrella and extend this activity to once-inaccessible areas such as forest canopies and coral reefs through intermediating technology such as cableways and submarines. As depicted in figure 11.7, activities such as bird-watching, whale-watching and stargazing can be positioned entirely within ecotourism, while safaris, trekking and nature photography usually overlap with the nature-based components of adventure tourism. Similarly, scuba diving and snorkelling are affiliated with 3S tourism while tourism involving indigenous cultures is linked to sociocultural alternative tourism.

Opportunities for ecotourism have also been created beneath the ocean's surface. In several South Pacific and Caribbean destinations, Atlantis Adventures operates submarines that can hold either 48 or 64 passengers (see figure 11.8). The non-polluting battery-powered vessels allow the passengers to view coral reefs and other marine phenomena more than 30 metres below the surface, with ample interpretation made available during the almost-two hour experience. Sophisticated sensors and other onboard technologies ensure that the submarines cause almost no disruption to the marine habitat, which includes artificial reefs specially constructed by the operators to relieve any potential stress on the natural environment.
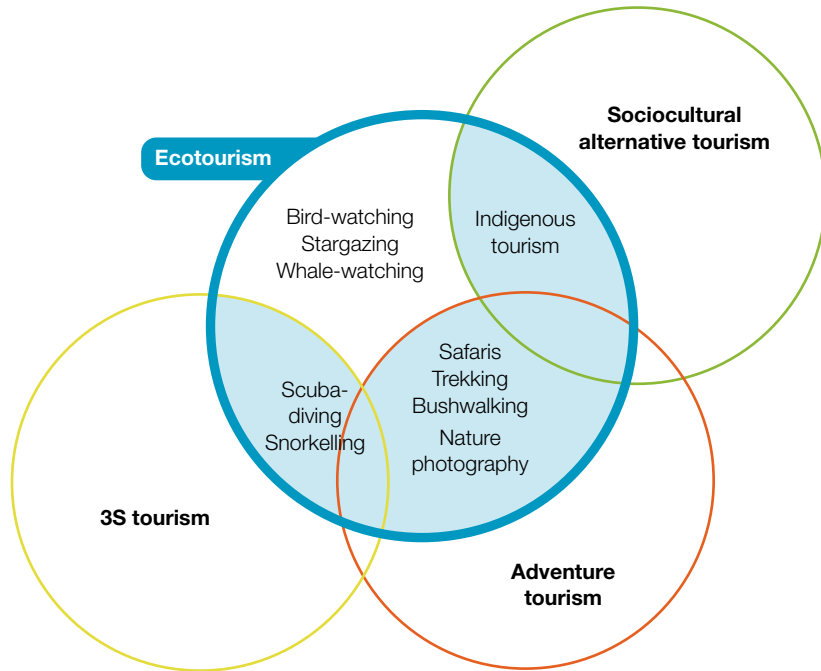
FIGURE 11.7   Major types of ecotourism activity

FIGURE 11.8   Up close and personal with an Atlantis submarine in the Caribbean

Soft and hard ecotourism

Ecotourism activities can be further classified as hard or soft, although as with mass and alternative tourism, these labels should be seen as two ends of a spectrum rather than as mutually exclusive categories (Weaver 2008). **Hard ecotourism**, as an ideal

type, emphasises an intense, personal and prolonged encounter with nature. Associated trips are usually specialised (i.e. undertaken solely for ecotourism purposes) and take place within a wilderness setting or some other mainly undisturbed natural venue where access to services and facilities is virtually nonexistent. Participants are environmentalists who are highly committed to the principles of sustainability. This mode of ecotourism is most clearly aligned with alternative tourism and with a strong interpretation of sustainability. Indeed, it can be said that ecotourism first emerged in the early 1980s as a nature-based form of alternative tourism.

In contrast, **soft ecotourism** is characterised by short-term, mediated interactions with nature that are often just one component of a multipurpose tourism experience. Participants have some appreciation for the attraction and are open to learning more about sustainability and related issues, but the level of commitment to environmentalism, as a philosophy, is not as strong, indicating a higher incidence of veneer green consumer participation. Soft ecotourism takes place within less natural settings (e.g. park interpretation centre, scenic lookout, signed hiking trail, wildlife park) that provide a high level of services and facilities. This form of ecotourism usually occurs as a type of mass tourism informed by a weaker interpretation of sustainability. Nevertheless, with appropriate educational opportunities provided through effective product interpretation, there is evidence that soft ecotourism can instil positive environmental attitudes among participants (Coghlan & Kim 2012).

Magnitude

The magnitude one attributes to ecotourism depends on how much of the hard–soft spectrum and how many overlapping activities are embraced in the accepted definition. If one restricts ecotourism to the hard ideal type, then this sector is miniscule. A liberal definition that embraces an array of soft ecotourism products and hybrid activities such as scuba diving produces a much higher figure, probably in the 15–20 per cent range according to the UNWTO. Complicating such calculations is the multipurpose nature of most travel, wherein most participation in soft ecotourism occurs as one component of a multipurpose itinerary. The difficulties that arise in quantifying ecotourism and its relationships with other forms of tourism are illustrated by inbound tourism patterns in Kenya. The great majority of inbound visitors are conventional mass tourists who spend most of their time in the capital city (Nairobi) or in Indian Ocean beach resorts. However, many of these visitors select Kenya for their 3S holiday because of the diversionary opportunity to participate in a wildlife-watching safari excursion. The resultant soft ecotourism activity often occurs on a large scale within certain accessible protected areas, confirming ecotourism's dominant status as a form of mass tourism.

Location

Ecotourism destinations are usually associated with 'natural' or 'relatively undisturbed' settings. It is therefore not surprising that most ecotourism activity takes place within protected areas such as national parks, which provide both a relatively undisturbed setting and a DAT-like regulatory environment that restricts potentially harmful activities. Hard ecotourism tends to occur in the more remote regions of countries or individual parks, while soft ecotourism, as noted earlier, concentrates in the more accessible and site-hardened portions of parks that are located within a few hours drive from major cities or 3S resort areas (Weaver 2008). In the latter situations, it is typical for

90–99 per cent of all tourist activity to occur within just 1–5 per cent of the park area. Given that such protected areas are expected to fulfil two potentially conflicting mandates — the preservation of local biodiversity and the accommodation of increasing visitor numbers — it is not surprising that situations arise and management decisions are taken that call into question the sustainability of ecotourism in such areas. While protected areas clearly do provide a potentially optimal venue for authentic, high-quality encounters with nature, there is no inherent reason for excluding modified environments such as reservoirs, farmland and even cities, that may also attract interesting birds or mammals. Ecotourism activity occurs in all parts of the world, but some regions and countries have attained a reputation as ecotourism destinations. Prominent among these are New Zealand and the Central American corridor extending from the Yucatan Peninsula and Belize to Costa Rica and Panama. Other important regions are the Amazon Basin, the 'safari corridor' from Kenya to South Africa, the Himalayas, the Pacific Northwest of North America, peripheral Europe, and South-East Asian destinations such as Thailand, Borneo and Sumatra (see figure 11.9). Australia has also acquired a reputation as an ecotourism destination, supported by what is widely regarded as the world's most advanced ecotourism certification program and a very high number of attractive endemic (i.e. native) species of wildlife. Iconic ecotourism destinations include the Great Barrier Reef, Uluru, the Tasmanian Wilderness, Fraser Island, the Blue Mountains, Kakadu and Shark Bay.

FIGURE 11.9 Prominent world ecotourism destinations

DESTINATION SUSTAINABILITY

Sustainability is achieved through the joint efforts of destination managers and individual businesses. Although constrained by vested interests associated with other sectors, destination governments and tourism authorities have access to mechanisms

that facilitate their pursuit of sustainable tourism. Businesses must operate within these constraints; however, they often oppose them. Development standards, or legal restrictions that dictate the physical aspects of development, are one such destination response (Weaver 2006). Included in this category are:

- density and height restrictions
- setbacks (distances separating the outer edge of a development from another object, such as a footpath, floodplain or beach high water mark)
- building standards (e.g. conformance of new construction to traditional architectural styles, minimum insulation requirements)
- noise regulation
- signage control (e.g. prohibitions on motorway billboards or shopfront advertising).

In addition, municipalities can pursue social sustainability by requiring resorts to provide reasonable pedestrian access between a public road and a public beach, as is often done in the Caribbean.

Zoning regulations, which demarcate specific areas for defined uses and development standards, are another important tool for destination planning and management, as are districting strategies that designate special urban or rural landscapes for focused management or planning that seeks to preserve the special historical, natural or cultural properties of these places. In the designated Chinatown district of Toronto, bilingual Chinese and English road signs and relaxed standards for the display of food and other commercial goods are both permitted in order to distinguish this neighbourhood as a Chinese–Canadian culture area and tourist attraction. Destination governments also have considerable scope for offering sustainability-related incentives to their constituent private sector tourism operators. One example is the Barbados *Tourism Development Act* (2002), which allows a 150 per cent tax deduction on expenses related to the pursuit of Green Globe hotel certification.

Extending the Butler sequence

Attempts to model the process of tourist destination development in the field of tourism studies have mostly focused on the Butler sequence and its pessimistic outcomes (see chapter 10). However, recent developments in the field of sustainable tourism suggest that a broader framework is necessary in order to encompass the full range of possible developmental scenarios. Such a framework is provided in figure 11.10. This **broad context model of destination development scenarios** consists of four basic tourism ideal types, based on the scale of the sector (small to large) and the amount of sustainability-related regulation that is present (Weaver 2000b).

In this model, small-scale destinations fall into either the CAT (i.e. little or no regulation) or DAT (extensive regulation) category. Similarly, large-scale destinations in theory are either unsustainable (= unsustainable mass tourism, or UMT) or sustainable, depending on the presence or absence of a suitable regulatory environment (= sustainable mass tourism, or SMT). As with other category-based models cited previously in this book (e.g. the attraction inventory in chapter 5 or the psychographic model in chapter 6), the graphed data fall along a continuum rather than into discrete categories. Thus, many different types of CAT destination will emerge, depending on the extent to which CAT-like criteria of scale and regulation are evident.

DAT Deliberate alternative tourism SMT Sustainable mass tourism
CAT Circumstantial alternative tourism UMT Unsustainable mass tourism
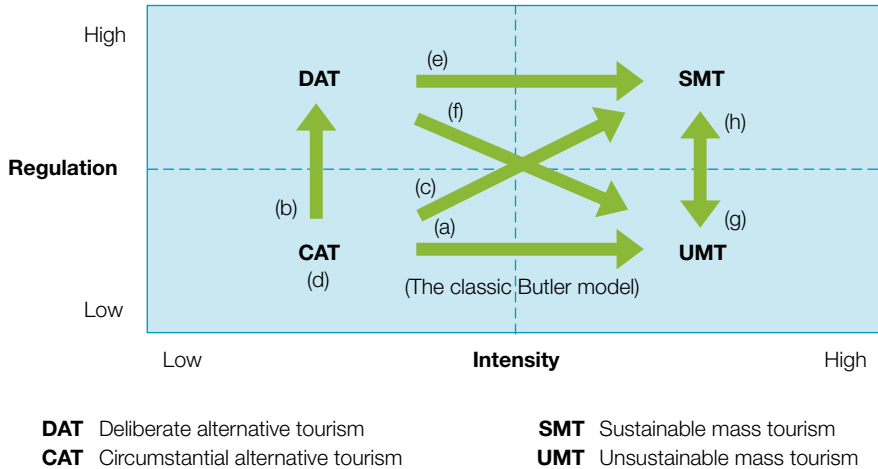
FIGURE 11.10 Broad context model of destination development scenarios

Possible paths of evolution

If only CAT destinations are taken into consideration initially, the broad context model offers four distinct possibilities for future development.

1 The Butler sequence is but one possible scenario, involving the movement of a destination from CAT to UMT (a). The progression in this scenario is from an unregulated 'involvement' stage to an unregulated and unsustainable 'consolidation' stage or beyond.

2 Alternatively, a CAT destination can move to DAT through the implementation of the regulatory environment required to maintain the characteristics of alternative tourism (b). The Caribbean island of Dominica and the Himalayan kingdom of Bhutan followed this trajectory before 2000.

3 A CAT-to-SMT sequence can occur when a mass tourism industry is superimposed over an undeveloped region in a highly regulated way (c) using a growth pole strategy.

4 A CAT destination where there is the absence of any evolution at all (d). This scenario assumes that not all CAT destinations will attract sufficient levels of demand to stimulate any further tourism development. For example, most of outback Australia is not likely within any foreseeable timeframe to move beyond exploration- or involvement-stage dynamics, given the absence of push or pull factors that would draw these areas into the mass tourism system. One implication is the lack of need in such cases to allocate resources towards the establishment of DAT. Instead, resources should be directed to identifying and managing locations where the potential for intensification to occur is higher, such as coastal and alpine destinations.

Moving beyond CAT, other depicted scenarios include the movement from DAT to either SMT (e) or UMT (f). The former situation occurs when the destination is able and wants to increase its carrying capacity thresholds to accommodate higher visitation levels. Both Dominica and Bhutan now appear to be following this strategy (Weaver 2012b). A DAT destination, however, can also move towards UMT if the appropriate adjustments to carrying capacity are not made, or cannot be made. This is

illustrated by national parks such as Amboseli (Kenya), where visitation levels during the 1970s far outpaced the capacity of park managers to cope with the resultant stresses (Weaver 1998).

Finally, SMT can be transformed into UMT as a result of similar dynamics (g), while the opposite is also possible. As described in chapter 10, Benidorm, on the Spanish pleasure periphery island of Mallorca, is an example of a previously unsustainable tourism-intensive destination that is making significant progress towards the attainment of sustainability (h).

CHAPTER REVIEW

In response to increasing contradictions and anomalies in the dominant Western environmental paradigm, our society appears to be moving towards a more eco-centric green paradigm. This shift has seen the concept of sustainable development become the focus of contemporary tourism sector management, with weak and strong interpretations possible, depending on whether a particular destination consists mainly of undeveloped natural habitat or heavily modified landscapes, respectively. These developments all suggest the emergence of a synthesis between the dominant Western environmental paradigm and the green paradigm. In any case, the identification and monitoring of indicators at the destination and operations level is essential if sustainable tourism (however defined) is to be achieved, but associated procedures are marred by our basic lack of understanding about the complexities of tourism systems, and other problems. Nevertheless, the concept is still worth pursuing, since not to do so is to virtually ensure unsustainable outcomes.

The mass tourism industry, long notorious for following an unsustainable path of development, is now pursuing sustainable tourism more seriously because of the rapid growth in green consumerism, the potential profitability of sustainability-related measures and self-enlightened ethical considerations. It is assisted in this effort by its own economies of scale. However, the penetration of sustainability-related practices within the conventional tourism industry does not appear to extend much beyond the establishment of facilitating structures within various sectors and the leadership of a few corporate innovators, suggesting a shallow level of adherence that complements the dominance of 'veneer' environmentalists within society at large. Practices such as recycling and linen reuse programs indicate paradigm nudge rather than paradigm shift because they can be easily accommodated within the precepts of the dominant capitalist ideology. The rudimentary state of specialised quality control mechanisms supports this contention. Codes of practice, for example, are abundant but controversial; as high-profile certification-focused global ecolabels have attracted only minimal participation to date, and there is no overarching accreditation body established to 'police' such tourism-related ecolabels.

Many researchers, therefore, remain sceptical about the motives of the conventional mass tourism industry, and a great amount of attention is still being given to the concept of alternative tourism as a presumably more benign alternative to mass tourism. Even so, alternative tourism itself has been criticised for its intrusiveness into back-stage spaces, its limitations of scale, and its potential for opening destinations to less benign forms of tourism. Ecotourism was initially conceived in the 1980s as a nature-based form of alternative tourism but has since been widely acknowledged as having both a hard (mainly alternative tourism/strong sustainability) and soft (mainly mass tourism/weak sustainability) manifestation. Protected areas remain the most popular ecotourism venue, though more attention is being paid to the suitability of less ecologically vulnerable urban and other highly modified spaces.

Tourist destinations, as opposed to businesses, present distinctive sustainability-related challenges such as the presence of diverse public and private constituencies as well as a usually dominant nontourism sector. Nevertheless, destination governments possess tools such as the establishment of development standards and zoning regulations that, with the cooperation of local businesses, aid the pursuit of sustainable tourism. They are assisted in this pursuit by the broad context model of destination development scenarios, which depicts the range of potential tourism options, of which

the Butler scenario (CAT-to-UMT) is just one. Deliberate alternative tourism (DAT) and sustainable mass tourism (SMT) are the two desirable scenarios, depending on whether a weak or strong interpretation of sustainability is warranted.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Accreditation the process by which the ecolabel is determined by an overarching organisation to meet specified standards of quality and credibility

Alternative tourism the major contribution of the adaptancy platform, alternative tourism as an ideal type is characterised by its contrast with mass tourism

Avalanche effect the process whereby a small incremental change in a system triggers a disproportionate and usually unexpected response

Aviation biofuel renewable plant or animal-based aircraft fuels; these are being more commonly used in commercial aviation, and mostly at present to supplement conventional fossil fuel loads

Benchmark an indicator value, often based on some past desirable state, against which subsequent change in that indicator can be gauged

Broad context model of destination development scenarios a framework for modelling the evolution of tourist destinations, which takes into account scale and sustainability-related regulations; various transformations are possible among four ideal tourism types CAT, DAT, UMT (unsustainable mass tourism) and SMT (sustainable mass tourism)

Certification the outcome of a process in which an independent third party verifies that a product or company meets specified standards, allowing it to be certified by the ecolabel

Circumstantial alternative tourism (CAT) alternative tourism that results by default from the fact that the destination is currently situated within the early, low-intensity stages of the resort cycle

Codes of practice commonly developed and espoused by tourism corporations and industry associations, these are intended to provide general guidelines for achieving sustainability-related outcomes

Corporate social responsibility the concept that corporations have a moral duty to operate in a socially and environmentally responsible way; it is increasingly recognised as a business imperative that combines elements of the green (i.e. 'social responsibility') and dominant Western environmental ('corporate') paradigms.

Deliberate alternative tourism (DAT) alternative tourism that is deliberately maintained as such through the implementation of an enabling regulatory environment

Dominant Western environmental paradigm the scientific paradigm as applied to environmental and related issues, holding the anthropocentric view that humankind is at the centre of all things, and constitutes the primary focus of reference in all relationships with the natural environment; humans are seen as being superior to nature, which exists only for their benefit

Ecolabels mechanisms that certify products or companies that meet specified standards of practice

Ecotourism a form of alternative tourism (and potentially mass tourism) that places primary emphasis on a sustainable, learning-based interaction with the natural environment or some constituent element

Emoscape an 'emotional landscape' a graphic that depicts the patterns of emotional response that arise from a focus issue or incident; it is extremely useful for gauging the reactions of residents or visitors to tourism-related phenomena

Geopolitical sustainability the viability of countries and of relationships between countries; in tourism this can be facilitated by constructive bilateral tourist movements

Green consumerism the proclivity to purchase goods and services that are deemed to be environmentally and socially sustainable; situates along a spectrum from 'true' green to 'veneer' green attitudes and behaviour

Green paradigm an emerging ecocentric worldview that is challenging the basic assumptions of the dominant Western environmental paradigm and accounting for its related anomalies and contradictions

Green traveller an emerging market niche that is highly discerning and critical in ensuring that its travel behaviour does not negatively affect destinations; similar to Plog's allocentric tourist

Greenwashing the process of conveying an impression of environmental responsibility that is not actually deserved; often associated with the misuse of terms such as 'sustainable tourism' and 'ecotourism'

Hard ecotourism a form of ecotourism that stresses an intensive, specialised and prolonged interaction with nature in a relatively undisturbed natural environment with few available amenities; a form of alternative tourism

Indicators variables or parameters that provide information about some phenomenon in order to facilitate its management in a desirable way

Netnography a type of ethnographic research that analyses the voices that are voluntarily expressed through internet-based social media

Paradigm the entire constellation of beliefs, assumptions and values that underlie the way that a society interprets the nature of reality

Paradigm nudge the opportunistic adaptation of an existing dominant paradigm to changing conditions; evident in the selective adoption of 'green' practices within the conventional tourism industry

Paradigm shift the replacement of one paradigm with another when the formerly dominant paradigm can no longer adequately account for various contradictions and anomalies

Quality control mechanisms (quality assurance mechanisms) mechanisms that provide some degree of assurance to consumers, government or others that a particular operation, product or destination follows standards associated with sustainable tourism

Scientific paradigm the currently dominant paradigm, which holds that reality is reducible and deterministic and can be understood through the application of the 'scientific method'

Soft ecotourism a form of ecotourism that emphasises a short-term interaction with nature as part of a multipurpose trip with ample provision for services and facilities; can exist as a form of mass tourism

Strong sustainable development an approach to sustainable development that assumes relatively rigorous environmental expectations in recognition of areas, such as wilderness, that are relatively undisturbed and have a low carrying capacity

Sustainable development in principle, development that meets the needs of present generations while ensuring that future generations are able to meet their own needs

Sustainable tourism tourism that is developed in such a way so as to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs

Threshold a critical value of indicator sustainability; when the threshold is exceeded, this indicates an unsustainable situation

Triple bottom line the principle in sustainable development and sustainable tourism that environmental, sociocultural and economic dimensions of sustainability must be taken concurrently into account in planning and management

Weak sustainable development an approach to sustainable development that assumes relatively relaxed environmental expectations in recognition of areas, such as intensively developed beach resorts, that are already extensively modified and have high carrying capacities

■ QUESTIONS

1 (a) What is meant when it is said that a clash between competing paradigms is likely to result in a synthesis of the two paradigms?

　(b) How has this synthesis been evident in the tourism sector since 1950?

2 Under what circumstances is a weak or strong interpretation of sustainable development warranted in tourism?

3 What factors over the next decade might stimulate the further growth of the green traveller segment?

4 (a) How much has the conventional mass tourism industry actually embraced the practice of sustainable tourism?

　(b) What accounts for this?

　(c) How could a higher level of engagement by the industry be achieved?

5 (a) What is the difference between certification and accreditation?

　(b) Why are these two processes complementary and important to the pursuit of sustainable tourism?

6 Is there merit in the argument that alternative tourists are essentially just another type of unsustainable mass tourist? Why?

7 Compare and contrast the green traveller with the allocentric tourist.

8 Why does Weaver (2006) describe ecotourism as the 'conscience of sustainable tourism'?

9 Are the canopy walks, cableways and submarines an appropriate form of ecotourism? Explain your response.

10 How is the broad context model of destination development scenarios potentially useful to the managers of tourist destinations?

■ EXERCISES

1 Design and administer a short survey in which you ask your peers to give their age, country and gender. Have them also rate, on a 1-to-7 scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree), their agreement with the following two statements:

　(i) I consider myself to be an environmentally responsible citizen of my country.

　(ii) I consider myself to be an environmentally responsible traveller during my holidays.

2 Describe the main patterns in the data and discuss the possible reasons for these responses.

　(a) Identify a region or locale in your country that has the appearance of circumstantial alternative tourism (CAT).

　(b) Discuss the likelihood that this destination will experience each of the four scenarios that can affect such a destination, according to the broad context model of destination development.

　(c) As a class, compare and contrast the findings from the various destinations.

■ FURTHER READING

Black, R. & Crabtree, A. (Eds) 2007. *Quality Assurance and Certification in Ecotourism.* **Wallingford, UK: CABI.** Twenty-four chapters consider the practice and evolution of certification within the ecotourism sector, which has provided leadership for tourism as a whole. Australia is featured, as is the community perspective and the role of awards and codes of conduct.

Butler, R. W. 1990. 'Alternative Tourism: Pious Hope or Trojan Horse?' *Journal of Travel Research* **28: 40–5.** Butler offers one of the most insightful and articulate critiques of alternative tourism, still relevant after two decades, pointing out the problems associated with different aspects of this subsector.

Leslie, D. (Ed.) 2012. *Responsible Tourism: Concepts, Theory and Practice.* **Wallingford: CABI.** Although using the rhetoric of 'responsibility' rather than 'sustainability', this text offers diverse perspectives on the latter concept. Chapters are provided on consumers, communities, transportation and climate change, politics, governance, the hotel sector, and politics and governance.

Miller, G. & Twining-Ward, L. 2005. *Monitoring for a Sustainable Tourism Transition: The Challenge of Developing and Using Indicators.* **Wallingford, UK: CABI.** Following a detailed introduction to sustainable development and sustainable tourism, the authors examine relevant motivations for measuring indicators, as well as issues related to indicator selection, monitoring and implementation. International case studies accompany the analysis.

Weaver, D. 2006. *Sustainable Tourism: Theory and Practice.* **London: Elsevier.** Weaver provides a comprehensive overview of sustainable tourism practices and theories in the context of alternative tourism, mass tourism and destinations, using global case studies.

Weaver, D. 2008. *Ecotourism.* **Second Edition. Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons.** This thorough analysis of the ecotourism sector elaborates issues such as the role of external environments and the emergence of new concepts such as mass, urban and comprehensive ecotourism.

case study

CERTIFYING THE CERTIFIERS THROUGH THE GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM COUNCIL

The Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC), established in 2010 with the endorsement of the UNWTO and UNEP (United Nations Environment Program) as foundation sponsoring agencies, is the most concerted attempt so far to establish an overarching international body to coordinate the global articulation

and implementation of sustainable tourism principles. Specifically, GSTC is mandated to:

- determine what constitutes sustainable tourism
- develop a consensus on how to measure it
- promote increased knowledge among all stakeholders, including consumers, through appropriate education and training, and
- promote the adoption of relevant principles and practices by destinations and industry (GSTC 2013).
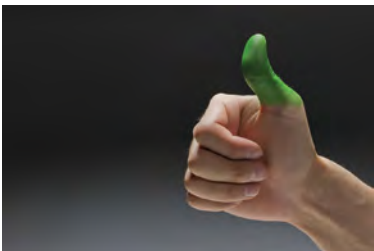
To advance the latter objective, GSTC is trying to establish itself as the global agency that will accredit qualifying tourism certification schemes — that is, it will 'certify the certifiers'. This critical objective requires the identification of a set of criteria small enough to be feasible for destinations and industry to implement, yet large enough to cover all the important aspects of sustainability. Such a set would represent the minimum standards that any product or business should satisfy to qualify as 'sustainable' and to ensure, collectively, that tourism achieves its potential to serve as a tool for global poverty alleviation, as per the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (Bricker & Schultz 2011). Additionally, the criterion set must be credible, transparent, universal and impartial (GSTC 2013).

To develop the criterion set, GSTC — in consultation with stakeholders from UN agencies, industry, academia and non-governmental organisations — assessed more than 60 existing tourism certification schemes and codes of conduct, analysing more than 4500 indicators. During this process it was determined that separate sets needed to be developed for destinations and for the industry (i.e. hotels and operators). The destination set as of early 2013 contained 45 criteria, while the set for 'hotels and tour operators' contains 25 criteria. Driven by the philosophy that these sets are works-in-progress, both are due for a thorough reassessment in 2016. As described in appendix 3, these sets are organised in conjunction with the 'triple bottom line' principle, around the four self-described pillars of:

1 effective planning through sustainable management systems (Category A)
2 maximising social and economic benefits to local communities (Category B)
3 reducing negative impacts on culture (Category C)
4 reducing negative environmental impacts (Category D).

Some of the differences between the two sets are fundamental yet complementary. For example, criterion A4 in the destination set calls for climate change adaptation to be incorporated into sustainable management systems, and criterion D4 calls for a program to assist individual operators in reducing their greenhouse gas emissions. In the hotels and tour operators set, criterion D2 requires operators to measure greenhouse gas emissions, reduce them as much as possible, and offset the remaining emissions. It also requires the operators to encourage their customers and suppliers to do the same.

A certification scheme that wants to be GSTC-accredited is required to pass through two stages; the first being GSTC-Recognition, which indicates that the scheme's standards are officially recognised as being equivalent to the GSTC standards. A transition period to full accreditation results in GSTC-Accredited status, which allows the scheme, with full GSTC approval, to certify relevant tourism businesses. Accreditation procedures are carried out on behalf of GSTC by third-party accreditation bodies that must have membership in the ISEAL (International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling) Alliance — a global association for sustainability standards — or in the International Accreditation Forum (IAF). In addition to the accredited certification schemes, GSTC maintains a membership of more than 100 organisations and provides access to various services and resources, networking opportunities, and a voice in decision making (including nominations and elections to the Board of Directors). The Board is intended to have a diverse membership, and in early 2013 it included representatives from United Nations agencies, other public authorities (e.g. Mexico Tourism Board, Inter-American Development Bank), academia, supporting

businesses (e.g. EcoSustainAbility), industry (e.g. Caesars Entertainment, InterContinental Hotels, Royal Caribbean Cruise Lines, TUI Travel), NGOs (e.g. ICRT South Africa, ECOTRANS), certification representatives (e.g. Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa), and industry associations (e.g. Adventure Travel Trade Association).

While these various initiatives and accomplishments indicate progress, GSTC is a long way from achieving its ambitious objectives, especially with regard to its accreditation aspirations. Bricker and Schultz (2011) examined 13 US-based certification schemes to determine the degree to which the GSTC criteria are already being employed, and found a high degree of congruency. Most, for example, had implemented sustainable management systems that take into account many of the selected criteria. However, those sampled also questioned the applicability of many of the supposedly 'universal' indicators, and were confused as to how some of the indicators were related to sustainability and how much adherence to these was necessary. That many of the indicators were *not* being implemented was attributed to businesses being too small, lacking sufficient knowledge or resources, lacking access to facilitating systems such as recycling or renewable energy sources, and local regulatory restrictions.

If this is an accurate portrayal of the situation in a highly developed country such as the United States, then the prospects for progress in less developed countries are not promising. Another major issue is the meaningful measurement and quantitative assessment of the indicators. For example, with regard to criteria D2 in the industry set, how much minimisation of greenhouse gas emissions is necessary for the applicable operator to be regarded as compliant with this standard? This is important since operators are only 'encouraged' to offset any remaining emissions. Long-term financial viability is also an issue, with GSTC in early 2013 transitioning to become an 'independent, self-sustaining non-profit organisation' (GSTC 2013), a goal that will depend on a high level of commitment from the world's many tourism-related certification schemes as well as a robust and diverse membership that reflects the diversity of the global tourism sector.

QUESTIONS

1 Playing the role of manager of a major local hotel or tour operator of your choice, write a 1000-word report in which you divide the hotel and tour operator criteria (as shown in appendix 3) into those that you would:
   • unconditionally support as a high priority
   • conditionally support as a low priority
   • oppose.

For each criterion, state the reason for your position. Finally, on the basis of your collective assessments, describe how the criterion set could be reconfigured to gain the support of your business, toward achieving certification from an accredited ecolabel.

2 Membership patterns are important because of the need to represent as many regions and sectors as possible. Prepare a 1000-word report in which you analyse the structure of GSTC's member organisations (information can be accessed through its website's 'About GCTC' tab). Take into account:
   (a) what regions are poorly represented
   (b) what tourism industry sectors are poorly represented
   (c) what strategies could be implemented to increase the membership base.

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12

Tourism research

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1   appreciate the critical role of research within the field of tourism management

2   describe the main types of research that are relevant to the field of tourism studies and outline the circumstances under which each is most suitable

3   differentiate between induction and deduction, and describe how these two approaches are complementary

4   classify any specific research initiative as per its adherence to the main types of research

5   list the major types of techniques associated with primary and secondary research

6   understand the advantages of mixing quantitative and qualitative research approaches in the same projects

7   discuss the basic stages of the research process

8   describe the four main levels of investigation and explain how they complement each other within a comprehensive research project.

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters of this book demonstrate that tourism is an increasingly diverse and complex phenomenon that requires sophisticated management and planning if it is to be practised in a sustainable as well as competitive manner by destinations and businesses. Whether the primary motivation is to maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts of tourism (as with most destinations), or to maximise profits (as with most businesses), stakeholder objectives can only be achieved if decisions are informed by sound knowledge. This is obtained through the pursuit of properly conceived and executed **research**, or the systematic quest for knowledge. It is therefore critical for students of tourism management to be familiar with the research process and related issues. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to research as it relates to tourism studies. The following section examines the various types of research and illustrates their applicability to tourism. The broader research process, including problem recognition and formulation, identification of appropriate methodologies or methods, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, and data presentation, is described in the final section.

TYPES OF RESEARCH

There are several standard ways of classifying research in the field of tourism studies and elsewhere, and four of the most important are discussed as follows:

1 basic versus applied
2 cross-sectional versus longitudinal
3 qualitative versus quantitative
4 primary versus secondary.

Allowing for a certain amount of overlap within each pairing (e.g. a particular research design may combine elements of the qualitative and quantitative approach), any research initiative can be described simultaneously in terms of all four approaches. For example, a long-term research project examining changing consumer preferences may concurrently be applied, longitudinal, quantitative and primary. Each of these research types in turn is associated with a particular **research methodology**, or set of assumptions, procedures and methods that is used to carry out the research process. Methodological issues, because they are pervasive, are raised in the following section as well as in the discussion of the research process in the final section.

Basic research

The distinction between basic research (sometimes referred to as pure research) and applied research focuses on the intended end result of the investigation. **Basic research** reveals knowledge that will increase the understanding of tourism-related phenomena per se, and is not intended to address specific short-term problems or to achieve specific short-term outcomes (Jennings 2010). However, the knowledge gained from basic research may prove relevant in the subsequent context of more specific issues, especially if the knowledge is expressed in the form of general laws, theories or models that have practical ramifications. This is illustrated by the Butler sequence, which is an outcome of basic research that has proven to be highly relevant to the tourism industry (see chapter 10).

Basic research is commonly associated with universities, given their core mandate to engage in the unfettered search for knowledge. Corporations, and smaller ones in particular, are less inclined to carry out this type of investigation, since the ensuing

applications are not usually apparent right away, and therefore cannot be easily justified on financial grounds. Jones and Phillips (2003) go as far as describing the research cultures of universities and corporations as fundamentally different, with the former focused on publication in academic journals. One intriguing type of basic research is the 'fishing expedition'. This occurs when the researcher applies many different techniques and experiments to some database or subject matter without knowing what will result, but in the hope that some major and unexpected 'big catch' revelation will emerge.

Induction and deduction

Basic research can be carried out through methodologies of **induction** or **deduction**. In induction, the repeated observation and analysis of data lead to the formulation of theories or models that link these observations in a meaningful way. Deduction, in contrast, begins with an existing theory or model, and applies this to a particular situation to see whether it is valid in that case. In other words, induction progresses from the specific (i.e. the evidence) to the general (i.e. the theory), while deduction moves from the general to the specific (Sarantakos 2004). Theories are commonly generated through induction and then applied and assessed through deduction.

Figure 12.1 illustrates this relationship with respect to the Butler sequence, wherein many different observations and unconnected studies led to the formulation of the resort cycle concept through a process of inductive generalisation. These observations pointed towards a common process of accelerated growth culminating in the breaching of a destination's carrying capacities (see chapter 10). Subsequently, many other researchers have applied Butler's general model in a deductive way to specific destinations, leading to varying conclusions about its applicability as well as refinements and extensions that take into account these new investigations. These notions of refinement and extension are very important to basic research, since they imply an evolution in our knowledge of tourism-related phenomena.

Observations and evidence
from many different destinations
about development trends

INDUCTION

Butler sequence =

Theory resulting from
inductive generalisation
of this evidence

DEDUCTION

Subsequent *deductive* applications
to various case study situations
= refinement of Butler sequence
and formulation of subsidiary models
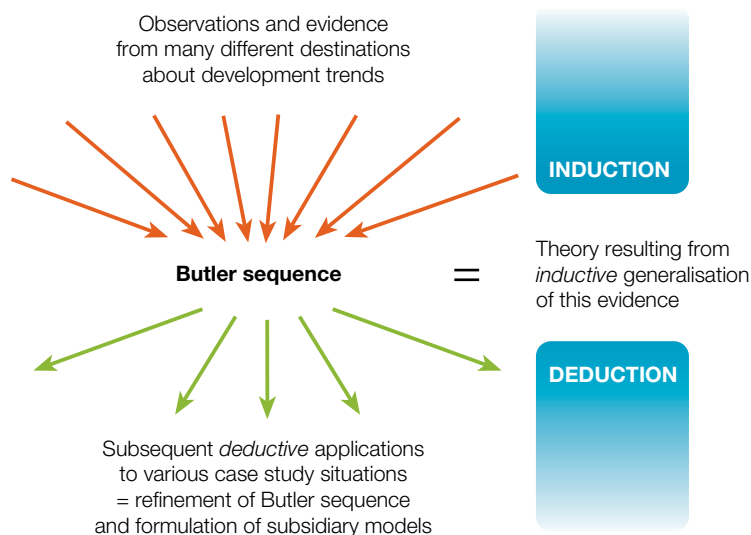
FIGURE 12.1 The place of induction and deduction in the Butler sequence

Often, the testing of a model through the inductive or deductive approach is informed by the formulation of one or more **hypotheses**, which are informed tentative statements or conjecture about the nature of certain relationships that can be subsequently proved or disproved through systematic testing and other investigation. For example, a researcher testing the Butler sequence (i.e. a deductive approach) may establish the following hypothesis to address one particular aspect of the model:

'The control of the tourism sector passes from the local community to external interests as the level of tourism development increases.'

Such a statement then provides a focal point for research into the applicability of the model, containing several variables (i.e. 'control', 'local community', 'external interests', 'increased level of tourism development') that can be measured, collected and evaluated collectively. As long as investigations continue to verify the hypothesis, then there is no need to alter the model. However, if the hypothesis is rejected, then the model itself needs to be reconsidered. In some cases, the rejection may be a 'one-off' occurrence resulting from unusual local circumstances. However, as with paradigm shifts, a pattern of repeated rejection means that a fundamental modification of the original model may be required.

Applied research

As implied in the term, the orientation in **applied research** is towards specific practical problems and outcomes. These may be associated with product development, the identification of target market segments, community reactions towards specific tourism planning scenarios, or the relationship between tourism and climate change. Applied research is commonly associated with private corporations or government agencies charged with the task of addressing specific issues within certain time and resource constraints (see the case study at the end of this chapter). If industry-based, the research results may be kept confidential so that competitors cannot use this same information for their own purposes. However, like basic research, applied research can also lead to theoretical breakthroughs and the advancement of knowledge if the results are made available to the public. The psychographic typology is one example (see chapter 6).

Cross-sectional research

The difference between cross-sectional research (sometimes referred to as latitudinal research) and longitudinal research is based on the time period that is represented by the resulting data. **Cross-sectional research** entails a 'snapshot' approach that describes a situation essentially at one point in time (although the data may be collected over several weeks or months). In its simplest form, cross-sectional research is undertaken at a single site (scenario (a) of figure 12.2). A more complex variation involves the collection of information at multiple sites as per scenario (b). Scenario (a) might involve the administration of a one-time survey during the Gold Coast Schoolies Week in 2014 to determine the attitude of residents toward this event (see figure 12.3). Scenario (b) might involve a similar one-off Schoolies Week survey carried out simultaneously in Hervey Bay, the Gold Coast and Sunshine Coast. The advantage of the second scenario is the opportunity to make comparisons and perhaps identify common trends, but it has the disadvantage of being more expensive. In addition, careful planning must be exercised in order to ensure that all the surveys are carried out at about the same time and in a similar manner.

(a) Simple cross-sectional

Time   •   = one sampling
                               site, one period
                               of time

                Space

(b) Multiple site cross-sectional

Time • • • • • •   = multiple
                               sampling sites,
                               one period
                               of time

                Space

(c) Longitudinal

Time   •   = one sampling
         •   site, multiple
         •   periods of time
         •
         •
         •
         •
         •
         •
         •

                Space

(d) Multiple site longitudinal

Time • • • • • •   = multiple
      • • • • • •   sampling
      • • • • • •   sites, multiple
      • • • • • •   periods of time
      • • • • • •
      • • • • • •
      • • • • • •
      • • • • • •
      • • • • • •
      • • • • • •

                Space
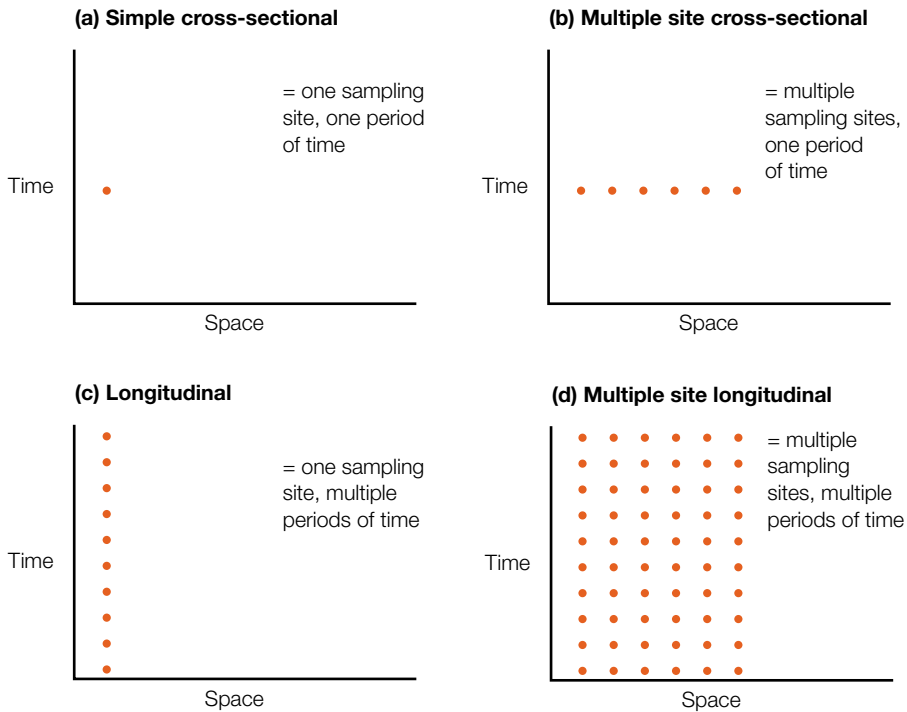
FIGURE 12.2 Basic cross-sectional and longitudinal surveying options

Longitudinal research

Longitudinal research examines changes in the target phenomenon over a period of time. Forward longitudinal research commences at some present or future time and continues for a usually defined period into the future. Backward longitudinal research involves the reconstruction of the phenomenon during some stipulated period in the past. In both scenarios, which can be combined, a sequence of snapshots is produced and analysed. An example of scenario (c) of figure 12.2 (i.e. single-site forward longitudinal research) is the monitoring of Gold Coast resident attitudes toward Schoolies Week over the five-year period from 2014 to 2018. The most comprehensive (and most expensive) form of forward longitudinal research entails the

FIGURE 12.3 Schoolies Week on the Gold Coast — a tourism event in need of more research

examination of many sites over multiple time periods (scenario (d) of figure 12.2). This scenario would occur if the five-year period applied to the Gold Coast, Sunshine Coast and Hervey Bay. The International and National Visitor Surveys, conducted by Tourism Research Australia, are good illustrations of this latter approach. As a result of such ambitious investigations, considerable insight is gained into spatial as well as temporal patterns, and on this basis we are more likely to generate useful models and theories. Continuing problems, however, include the possible necessity of extending the time period of the inquiry if no clear trends emerge within a given timeframe, and logistical challenges in doing so.

A variation in forward longitudinal research carried out by survey is the continued solicitation of the same respondents from one time period to the next. The advantage of this approach is the ability to monitor the changing behaviour of known individuals. However, such an approach may not be practical due to the attrition of participants due to death, migration or respondent fatigue. This is a more realistic option where the time period of the research is more limited. For example, consumers who have already booked a trip to a particular location may be asked to express their expectations about that destination. Upon their return several weeks later, they could be asked whether their expectations were met. Note that this form of forward longitudinal research is also distinguished by the different questions that are asked in each phase of the surveying.

A major challenge for longitudinal research is maintaining consistency in the research design over the duration. If, for instance, the survey questions, definition of 'resident' or sample size is radically altered halfway through the period of investigation (whether the approach is forward or backward), or a change is made in the cities where residents are surveyed, the subsequent results will no longer be neatly comparable to data collected prior to the changes. Any apparent trends that emerge from the study will therefore be misleading. In general, longitudinal research, and forward longitudinal research in particular, is infrequently undertaken in tourism studies due to the many methodological challenges it entails (Ritchie 2005), as well as the practical need for academics to publish research in a timely manner in order to best progress their career development.

Qualitative research

The distinction between **qualitative research** and **quantitative research** is concerned mainly with the type of data that is sought. Qualitative research can be 'negatively' defined as a mode of research that does not place its emphasis on statistics or statistical analysis; that is, on the objective measurement and analysis of the data collected (Goodson & Phillimore 2004). In terms of subject matter, it usually involves a small number of respondents or observations, but considers these in depth (see Breakthrough tourism: Interrogating yourself with autoethnography). It is for this reason that qualitative research methods are sometimes referred to as 'data enhancers' that allow crucial elements of a problem or phenomenon to be seen more clearly and in greater depth. Qualitative research is suited for situations where little is known about the subject matter, since the associated methodology is intended to gain insight into the phenomenon in question. Socially or psychologically complex research issues are also amenable to qualitative analysis, which is well suited to capture or clarify nuances of meaning and associated external factors.

breakthrough tourism

INTERROGATING YOURSELF WITH AUTOETHNOGRAPHY

Calls for tourism research to make more use of personal narratives have led some researchers to include their own subjective experiences and perceptions in their investigations. **Autoethnography** is a potentially useful tool for interrogating changing ideas about the self within a broader social perspective. It was employed by Coghlan and Filo (2012) to compare their respective experiences as participating cyclists in philanthropic adventure tourism and charity sport events. The tourism event, during which Coghlan collected autoethnographic field notes, was the

Hospital Foundation's Cardiac Challenge, a three-day cycling trip between Cairns and Cooktown in northern Queensland. The sporting event, which involved participant focus group data collected by Filo, was the Lance Armstrong Foundation Livestrong Challenge in the United States. The interdisciplinary exploration of deeply personal aspects of these experiences revealed a greater understanding of common meanings, including a strong sense of connectedness with the target cause and with other participants. A prevalent sense of wellbeing was also evident. The links between these two types of activity were therefore much stronger than expected, opening the way for further and richer interdisciplinary collaboration between sport and tourism researchers. The discomfort felt by many researchers in positioning *themselves* as research subjects helps to explain why autoethnography has not yet been more widely adopted as a mode of qualitative research. That the results are not meant to be generalisable to broader populations is also a cause for hesitation by conventional researchers. For the authors, the process was revealed to be very intensive and time consuming, requiring both of them to question the foundations of their respective fields of study. For the managers of philanthropic and charity events, autoethnography yields valuable insights into participant motivations and outcomes. 'Wellbeing', for example, seems to have promise as the basis of a more holistic marketing strategy to attract new participants and support, pending further investigation.

An example of qualitative research would be a situation where the researcher non-randomly selects a group of ten Gold Coast residents and conducts an in-depth two-hour interview with each to see what they think about Schoolies Week. Many researchers criticise such 'data-enhancing' qualitative research for lacking the objective rigour and validity of a statistical approach, and for not necessarily being representative of any group larger than that which was actually interviewed or observed. This criticism, however, is best directed towards the careless execution of qualitative methods, and not to qualitative methodology itself, which can be extremely rigorous and challenging in its assumptions and applications. Text analysis software such as NVivo and Leximancer are increasingly popular tools for applying methodological rigour to qualitative data. Another way of improving the validity of such research is to expose the research subject matter to a variety of qualitative methods (see Contemporary issue: Qualitative reinforcement).

contemporary issue

QUALITATIVE REINFORCEMENT

To reveal the experiences of migrant Polish tourism workers in the United Kingdom, Janta and colleagues (Janta et al. 2011) used a variety of qualitative research methods. In the first stage, a netnographic method was used to analyse social media postings from these workers, which had the advantage of capturing the perspective of current as well as former workers, since the 'footprint' of past employees was retained on some websites. In addition, traffic on UK-based Polish websites increased ninefold during the two-year study period, thereby providing a critical

mass of material and revealing its importance as a mode of communication for these workers. In the second stage of the study, based on these netnographic outcomes, an in-depth interview method was used with six migrants to clarify indicative themes that would inform an online survey. These semi-structured interviews evolved around the four themes of (1) reasons for entering the sector, (2) career paths, (3) adaptations, and (4) experiences within the sector. Unlike the first-stage netnography, the researchers could be regarded as 'co-creators' of knowledge here because of the close and prolonged interpersonal nature of the interviews. In the study's third stage, an online survey (requiring a moderate level of researcher involvement) was posted to United Kingdom-based Polish social networking sites and internet forums. This yielded 315 usable completed questionnaires out of 420 received. This survey method included two open-ended questions to determine what respondents felt they gave to and received from the sector. Because of the non-systematic way in which the participants were recruited, none of the three methods of analysis could be said to provide a representative sample of the target population. However, comparison of the three databases compiled through these methods resulted in cross-validation since they all revealed common macro-themes of 'relationships' with British people, other Poles, and other foreigners. The results were confidently presented by the authors as 'emergent themes' that could usefully inform subsequent research on this tourism stakeholder group.

Quantitative research

Quantitative research relies on the collection of data that are then analysed through a variety of statistical techniques. Numerous quantitative research methods are used in the field of tourism studies, and it is beyond the scope of this introductory tourism management text to describe these methods. It can be said, however, that qualitative techniques are 'data enhancers', whereas quantitative research techniques typically are 'data condensers' that yield a relatively small amount of information about a large number of respondents or observations. Table 12.1 depicts some of the contrasting characteristics associated with quantitative and qualitative research techniques and in so doing illustrates the very different assumptions and philosophies that inform each approach.

TABLE 12.1 Quantitative and qualitative research styles

Quantitative style	Qualitative style
Measure objective facts	Construct social reality, cultural meaning
Focus on variables	Focus on interactive processes, events
Reliability is the key	Authenticity is the key
Value free	Values are present and explicit
Independent of context	Situationally constrained
Many cases or subjects	Few cases or subjects
Statistical analysis	Thematic analysis
Researcher is detached from subject	Researcher is involved in subject

Source: Neuman (2010)

Because it often involves a rigorous process or 'road map' of hypothesis formulation, detached observation, data collection, data analysis and acceptance or rejection of the initial hypotheses, quantitative research is regarded as the core of the scientific method. This paradigm has always been at the heart of the natural sciences, but has only recently become more prevalent in tourism studies. It claims to 'reliably' reflect the 'real world' through its rigorous procedures and the ability to extrapolate its results to a wider population if executed properly. Many of its exponents, accordingly and unfairly, adopt a dismissive attitude towards 'soft' and subjective qualitative research approaches.

This perception is unfortunate, since the two research approaches are complementary. For example, much inductive research is qualitative and intuitive, but can generate models and hypotheses that may be tested using quantitative (or qualitative) techniques. Similarly, we may accept or reject a hypothesis based on some test of statistical significance, but find that we subsequently have to conduct in-depth qualitative interviews or focus groups to interpret or account for these outcomes. Another link is the possibility of analysing qualitative data, such as newspaper letters to the editor, using quantitative methods such as NVivo-mediated content analysis.

The student, therefore, should be aware of the circumstances under which a qualitative or quantitative approach is warranted, but should further realise that a particular research agenda can usually combine both. This potential for synergy is illustrated by questionnaires that provide for quantitative response patterns (e.g. 'How old are you?' or 'On a scale of 1 to 5, how would you rate Uluru as a tourist attraction?') as well as qualitative insights through open-ended questions (e.g. 'Why did you rate Uluru in this way?') and follow-up focus groups and one-on-one interviews.

Primary research

The distinction between **primary research** and **secondary research** depends on the source of the data used by the researcher. In primary research, the data are collected directly by the researcher, and did not exist prior to their collection. This is necessary when the data required to address some issue or problem of concern — for example, Gold Coast resident attitudes toward Schoolies Week — are absent. Hence, a major advantage of primary research is the ability of the investigator to design a tailored research framework relevant to the specific topic and questions of interest. As with longitudinal and multiple site cross-sectional data, a widespread problem is high cost in time and money. There are numerous techniques associated with primary research methodology, some of the most important of which are now described.

Surveys

The survey is the most common method for conducting primary research in tourism studies, as in the social sciences more generally. Accordingly, much useful generic information is available for students wishing to undertake this type of investigation (e.g. Fowler 2009). The design and administration of any specific survey (and whether a survey is even the right way to proceed), however, ultimately depends on the goals of the researcher and the resources that are available to conduct the survey. Depending on the responses to those concerns, the researcher can select from three basic types of surveys:
- face-to-face interviewing (conducted at households, in the field, or at some other agreed-upon location)
- telephone interviewing
- distributed (self-completed) surveys (with field, postal, fax, iPad/mobile phone, internet and email variations).

Table 12.2 provides an overview of the key characteristics associated with major surveying techniques. If the researcher has a limited budget and no access to trained interviewers, then a distributed survey is usually the best way to proceed, even though — as with landline telephone surveys — there is evidence that response rates to postal surveys have declined substantially since the early 1970s (Fowler 2009). Web-based options, accordingly, are becoming increasingly popular in countries where most consumers have access to a personal computer or other enabling devices (see Technology and tourism: SurveyMonkey). Face-to-face procedures are warranted where the researcher is interested mainly in in-depth, qualitative responses with a small number of respondents.

Focus groups

Focus groups involve face-to-face group discussions conducted with a small number of people usually pre-selected because of their relevance to a particular research problem (Bloor 2001, Krueger & Casey 2009). A researcher who is interested in resident attitudes toward Schoolies Week, for example, may gather together ten community leaders who are judged to be informed, concerned, willing to participate, and representative of a broader cross-section of the local community. Focus groups rely a great deal on the interactions and synergies that take place among the participants, and are an excellent means of obtaining in-depth, qualitative data (Weeden 2005). They are often used in the initial phases of research to identify problems and issues, and as a prelude to quantitative inquiry.

TABLE 12.2 Characteristics of survey types				
Characteristic	**Face-to-face surveys**	**Telephone surveys**	**Postal surveys**	**Web-based surveys**
Cost	High	Medium	Low	Low
Response time	Medium	Fast	Slow	Fast
Response rate	High	Medium	Low	Low
Interviewer bias	High	Medium	Low	Low
Need for trained interviewers	Very high	High	None	None
Accommodation of sensitive questions	Difficult	Good	Good	Good
Accommodation of multiple item scales and ranking questions	Reasonable	Difficult	Good	Good
Accommodation of qualitative questions	Very good	Good	Difficult	Difficult
Survey length	Medium	Short	Long	Medium
Sample size	Small	Medium	Large	Large

Relevant questions that must be asked when considering focus groups as a research method include how large a group to form (optimum group size may be affected by cultural and political factors), who to include, whether to offer some kind of incentive to participants, and how to ensure equitable participation from all members. A more recent possibility is the use of virtual focus groups mediated by online technology such as the voice over internet protocol (VoIP) application, Skype.

technology and tourism

SURVEYMONKEY

The many technical and logistical problems once associated with web-based surveys are being addressed by specialised online services. Major companies, such as SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com), are focused on building larger customer bases — presenting tourism researchers with an increasingly attractive means of collecting primary social data. SurveyMonkey's questionnaire design stage allows researchers to create their own questions using specific formats such as multiple choice or Likert-type (1-to-5) scales, or select from a database of questions/ statements 'certified' as being methodologically sound. A custom branding feature allows the designer to add their own company logo and other desired images to any of many possible templates. For the response collection stage, a single URL is generated that can be included as a hyperlink for distribution via social media networks, websites or email. On a fee-per-response basis, the company can also send a survey on behalf of the researcher to a desired target market segment within the company's database of respondents. SurveyMonkey's database comprises over 30 million people in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia and elsewhere, who have been recruited from those who have filled out SurveyMonkey surveys in the past and are willing to fill out other surveys sent to them if they meet the target demographic criteria. Survey respondents are rewarded with charitable donations in their name, sweepstakes entries or other incentives. This option saves the researcher the problem of obtaining their own valid set of responses. Finally, in the data analysis stage, options such as bar charts and pie graphs are available for reporting simple frequencies, distributions and cross-tabulations. SurveyMonkey has also become popular because its basic package is free, although this restricts questionnaires to just 10 questions and 100 responses per survey. Profits are realised because many users will pay progressively higher fees for a sequence of increasingly sophisticated service packages which, for example, allow databases to be readily linked to SPSS software to facilitate more sophisticated types of analysis.

The Delphi technique

The Delphi technique involves assembling a panel of experts, ranging in size from ten or less to as many as one thousand (but typically around 50), who are asked to respond to several rounds (usually three or four) of questioning about a particular research issue (Garrod & Fyall 2005). In each subsequent round, the participants (who remain anonymous) are made aware of the results of the previous round of questioning, so that the opinions expressed in that new round are influenced by those earlier outcomes. Knowledge and opinion are thus systemically focused as feedback to arrive at an eventual consensus about the issue. The Delphi technique is often applied as a forecasting tool to obtain a general picture of the probable future, rather than as a means of achieving highly accurate predictions (which are almost always impossible to attain). Its fundamental principle is that useful speculations will emerge from the repeated and focused interrogation of a group of individuals who are highly

qualified and informed about a particular issue. Among the problems associated with this technique are:

- identifying the appropriate pool of experts who represent the desired balance of opinions, philosophies, experience etc. (however, the membership of a professional organisation often provides a convenient participant pool)
- convincing these experts to participate
- obtaining panel feedback in a timely fashion
- the assumption that participants are willing to have their judgements changed by exposure to judgements of other participants
- panel attrition (tight time commitments are a common reason for this and the previous two problems)
- misinterpretation of responses, e.g. 'specious consensus' caused by experts who conform in order to be left alone or because of participation fatigue
- inability to obtain consensus or the temptation to 'fit' responses into a pattern of consensus (Garrod & Fyall 2005).

From a student perspective, few (if any) experts are likely to participate in a study that is not being sponsored and coordinated by a well-known professor or university, or lacks an incentive (e.g. privileged access to the results). Despite these pitfalls, the results can still be prophetic. One Delphi study undertaken in 1974 (Shafer & Moeller 1974) predicted that wildlife resources would be used mainly for nonconsumptive recreational uses such as photography by the year 2000, a forecast which has largely been realised through the growth of ecotourism (see chapter 11). More recently, the Delphi technique was used by Garrod (2003) to define 'ecotourism'. This approach revealed consensus as to its core criteria, but exposed divisions as to the importance of local ownership, and the status of ecotourism as a process rather than just a type of tourism. Participating experts also tended to favour medium-length definitions that compromised between simplicity and comprehensiveness.

Observation

The collection of information through observation is warranted in many tourism-related research issues. Applications include:

- noting the changing number and physical condition of hotels in a particular resort strip over a given period of time
- recording the average length of time that visitors to a theme park have to wait in a queue before gaining entry, and noting their body language and other behaviour during the wait
- counting the number of people who attend a major free entry event
- identifying how people create and maintain their own personal space when spending time on a beach
- observing where a hotel disposes of its garbage over a certain time period
- recording the reaction of tourists towards souvenir hawkers at the entrance to a scenic site
- following a tour group or individual tourists to observe their behaviour and spatial distribution in a duty-free shop.

In anthropological research, observation usually assumes that the humans being investigated are aware of and interact closely with the researcher who is trying to understand the subjects' perspective. However, some efforts to observe the 'unself-conscious' behaviour of human subjects may involve attempts to remain undetected. Serious ethical questions are raised if this involves 'stalking' or the use of deception so that people are unaware that they are the subject of an investigation. The latter can

occur in certain types of 'participant observation' research, as when the researcher temporarily assumes a certain false identity in order to gain access to the unself-conscious views and behaviour of the target group (Bowen 2002). For example, a researcher might work for several months among a group of lifeguards who assume that the researcher is 'one of them'. In reality, the real intention of the researcher is to gain the confidence of the group so that the authentic behaviour and perceptions of the lifesaving subculture can be observed as part of a research project. Technologies such as webcams, RFID (see chapter 8) and GPS enhance the possibilities for observation-based research, but generate additional ethical and practical concerns.

Most universities maintain special committees that assess the ethical dimensions of such research and outline the conditions under which the projects are allowed to pro-ceed. Because of the ethical questions raised and the amount of time involved, obser-vation is not widely practised as a research technique within tourism studies despite its potential to yield knowledge that cannot be obtained as easily through survey or questionnaire-based methods.

Content analysis

Content analysis (CA) describes a variety of techniques used to systematically examine and measure the meaning of communicated material by classifying and evaluating selected words, themes or images (Hall & Valentin 2005). Four examples suffice to illus-trate the varied use of CA within the contemporary tourism literature. First, Garrod (2008) had resident and tourist volunteers in a Welsh seaside resort take photographs of sites that were meaningful to them. The photographs were then content analysed and compared, revealing a high level of commonality in the meanings held by both groups. Second, Buckley (2008) analysed recent editions of the popular Lonely Planet guide-book series to assess whether the content was congruent with relevant academic theory, and found that the publication tended to reflect current social sustainability thinking more than the environmental perspective. Third, Govers, Go and Kumar (2007) analysed destination images by applying artificial neural network software to narratives solicited from a web-based survey. Finally, Shakeela and Weaver (2012) analysed the social media responses of Maldivian residents to a negative tourism incident posted on YouTube.

Secondary research

In secondary research, the investigator relies on material and research that has been compiled previously by other researchers. This substantially reduces the time and money required to obtain the desired information, especially given the availability of comprehensive and easily searched databases (such as www.leisuretourism.com) that contain a large number of secondary sources. However, a disadvantage is that users of this information cannot be entirely sure about its validity or reliability, since they were not involved in its original collection or compilation. Information sources that are important in secondary research are discussed as follows, and it should be noted that some primary research projects (e.g. Buckley 2008 and Shakeela & Weaver 2012 as pre-viously described) use secondary material as their sources for generating primary data.

Academic journals

The proliferation of refereed journals within the field of tourism studies was discussed in chapter 1. Articles in academic journals, as described in that chapter, have the advan-tage of having undergone a double-blind reviewing process, which in theory increases the quality and objectivity of the published results. However, the time involved in

undertaking the review process means that the results are often outdated by the time the article is released to the public, notwithstanding the time saved by the provision of pre-print online versions. In addition, refereed journals often tolerate tedious and technical writing styles that are not readily accessible to students, the tourism industry or even other academics. Proliferation itself is an emerging problem in the tourism field to the extent that there may not be enough quality manuscripts being submitted to sustain the many titles, forcing the editors of many of the newer journals in particular to accept mediocre manuscripts which would otherwise be rejected. Nevertheless, academic journals are a core source of secondary data for students and other researchers wishing to access research outcomes in all aspects of tourism. Good induction often occurs through the thorough and careful review of the academic journal literature on particular tourism topics.

Academic books

Academic books have also proliferated since the early 1990s. Although books usually undergo a less rigorous process of peer review, they are also generally subject to much less stringent page limitations, allowing for more in-depth analyses of particular issues. Increasingly, academic tourism books are edited compilations covering specific themes, in which individual authors or author teams prepare one or more chapters. The following are just a few of the edited academic books useful to researchers wishing to investigate specialised themes:

- *Frontiers in Nature-based Tourism: Lessons from Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden* (Fredman & Tyrväinen 2012)
- *Philosophical Issues in Tourism* (Tribe 2009)
- *Nautical Tourism* (Lukovic 2013)
- *Dark Tourism and Place Identity: Managing and Interpreting Dark Places* (White & Frew 2013)
- *The Business and Management of Ocean Cruises* (Vogel, Papathanassis & Wolber 2011)
- *Journeys of Discovery in Volunteer Tourism: International Case Study Perspectives* (Lyons & Wearing 2008)
- *Island Tourism: Sustainable Perspectives* (Carlsen & Butler 2011)
- *Adventure Tourism: Meanings, Experiences and Learning* (Taylor, Varley & Johnston 2013).

Statistical compilations

Tourism statistics are compiled by various government departments and nongovernmental organisations. Within Australia, Tourism Research Australia publishes a number of important compilations, including the *International Visitor Survey* and the *National Visitor Survey* (see the case study at the end of this chapter). The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) publishes *Overseas Arrivals and Departures*, which details the origins of inbound tourists and the destinations of outbound Australians. The ABS also publishes the *Survey of Tourist Accommodation (STA)*, which is a quarterly Australia-wide survey of supply and demand for hotels containing at least 15 rooms. New Zealand is similarly comprehensive with regard to the regular serials that describe the development of its tourism sector, and is additionally innovative in making a large proportion of its tourism-related data publically accessible online.

Trade publications

Trade publications include paper magazines, online magazines and newsletters published by various industry organisations as well as government. As a source of data, they have the

disadvantage of being 'unscientific' and journalistic in orientation. There is no equivalent of a double-blind review process, and the content often mirrors the vested interests and biases of the organisation producing the material. However, they are extremely useful for providing news of events that may have happened within the previous few weeks and indications of industry trends and perspectives. A prominent Australian trade publication relating to the tourism sector is *Travel Weekly* (www.TravelWeekly.com.au).

Newspapers and magazines

Newspapers and nonspecialised magazines such as *Time* and *Newsweek* (now usually available in abbreviated and/or augmented form on the internet) are subject to the same advantages and disadvantages as outlined for trade publications. Students should therefore be discerning and use these mainly as a source of current news, and also as a basis for content analysis exercises (i.e. a secondary source used to conduct primary analysis).

The internet

In addition to its increasingly important role as a medium for conducting primary research, the internet is now also a very popular source of secondary research information, especially as many of the previously mentioned publications are available online as a more accessible alternative to hard copy. While much reliable data can be obtained through the internet, quality and reputability are major issues that must be considered when using this source. The internet is an extremely attractive source of information for students as well as professional academics due to the convenience of being able to access an enormous amount of material on even the most obscure topics at a single computer terminal. An internet search, moreover, requires far less time to undertake than an exploration of conventional research sources. However, there are still no standards or controls that regulate material appearing on the internet (Wikipedia being a case in point), and the result is an enormous oversupply of useless, unreliable and misleading information that can overwhelm the reputable material.

THE RESEARCH PROCESS

In order to produce substantive and useful outcomes, research must be carried out in a deliberate and systematic manner. The steps that are required to carry out a research project from its origins to its conclusions comprise the **research process** (see figure 12.4). The specific way in which each of these stages and their substages is operationalised will vary from project to project, and the process is seldom one that is strictly sequential. For example, the results from an analysis of data may prompt a rethinking of the original research questions. Alternatively, the research methods may have to be reconsidered once the researcher has begun to collect the data and discovers that in-depth interviewing would be more effective than an online survey in eliciting information from a particular group. More fundamentally, the methodological biases of the researcher often dictate, in the first instance, the problems that are identified and the questions that are posed.

Problem recognition

The first step in any research process is **problem recognition**, or the identification of the broad issues or problems that interest the investigator. For a tourism-based corporation, possible core issues that require research include declining market share, high employee turnover, and high levels of customer dissatisfaction. From a destination perspective, additional concerns may be harboured about negative community reactions

to tourism or declining environmental conditions that both affect and are affected by tourism. Existing theories, such as the Butler sequence, may provide a useful framework for clarifying or contextualising the broad problem, which often emerges as a consequence of subjective perceptions, personal experiences or other qualitative input. As suggested earlier, methodological bias might dictate the problems that are identified. For example, a scientist trained in 'hard' quantitative techniques might not perceive relatively subjective issues such as cultural commodification or psychographic profiles (see chapter 9) as being amenable to or worthy of scientific analysis, and hence would not recognise them as problems that require a research agenda.
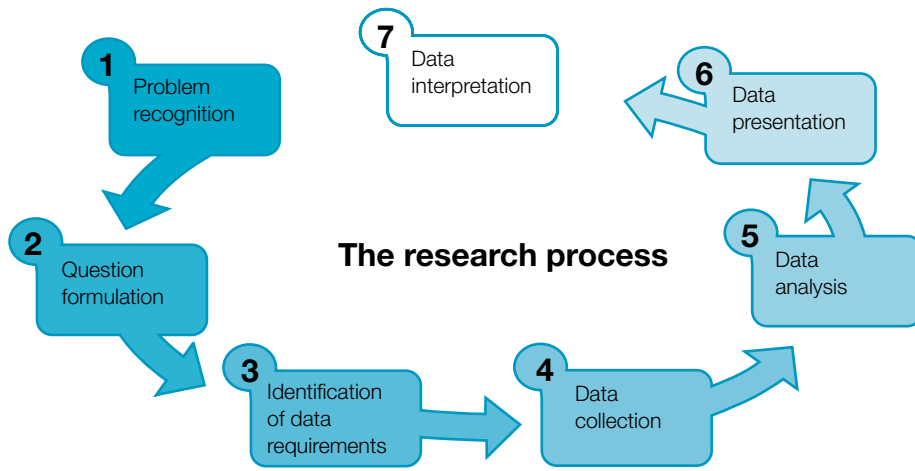
FIGURE 12.4 The research process

Question formulation

Once these broad problems or issues are identified, the research questions must be focused, at least in applied research, so that time and resources are not wasted on tangential or distracting avenues of investigation. As a basis for **question formulation** (which may be expressed as hypotheses or propositions), it is helpful to clarify the level of investigation that is warranted by the problem and the resources of the company or destination that are available. Four levels of investigation (description, explanation, prediction and prescription) are possible, each of which builds on the previous level.

Description

Description is the most basic level of inquiry. Imagine that the managers of a destination are concerned that local residents appear to be behaving in an increasingly hostile way towards schoolies during Schoolies Week. The logical first step in addressing this issue is to describe and clarify the actual situation. The following questions might be posed:
- What are the attitudes of local residents towards schoolies and Schoolies Week?
- How do these attitudes compare with past attitudes?
- How do these attitudes vary within the local population?
- Are the anti-schoolie sentiments more noticeable during Schoolies Week?
- Are there particular locations within the destination where anti-schoolie sentiments are more noticeable?

Explanation

The decision whether to proceed to the next level of investigation, which is to explain the resultant patterns, is often constrained by the availability of resources. However, the decision should be based on whether one or more serious problems have been revealed after the research process has been completed at the descriptive level. If it is found, for example, that the perceived hostility of residents involves only a few isolated incidents instigated by a few troublemakers, then there is probably no compelling reason to proceed any further with the collection of data. If, however, the suspicions of a broader hostility within the population have been confirmed, then explanation is a necessary stage towards its resolution. In the hypothetical Schoolies Week situation, the following explanation-based questions may emerge:

- Why is a growing proportion of long-time residents in the community expressing increasingly hostile attitudes and unfriendly behaviour toward schoolies?
- Why is most of the anti-schoolie behaviour occurring in Surfers Paradise and Broadbeach (an adjacent suburb)?

The subsequent research process might reveal that long-time residents remember when Schoolies Week involved only a few students and was not disruptive to residents. It also becomes apparent that Surfers Paradise is ground zero for Schoolies Week partying and that a spillover effect into Broadview has been occurring during the previous two years.

Prediction

Once plausible explanations for the problems are identified, the next level of investigation is to predict the consequences of the problem if no remedial measures are taken. As with any prediction involving people, this stage of inquiry is speculative and often begins with a process of extrapolation wherein past patterns are assumed to continue into the future. However, extrapolation must be qualified by intelligent and well-considered speculation and scenario-building that takes into account all available information, including the experience of similar destinations. Following on from the Schoolies Week example, the following predictive questions can be posed:

- At what point and in what location is a serious confrontation (e.g. murder, riot) involving schoolies and locals likely to occur?
- What will happen to the local tourism industry during and outside Schoolies Week if no steps are taken to address the growing hostility of some residents?
- What will happen to the local community if nothing is done to contain troublemakers during Schoolies Week?

Prescription

Prescription is the culmination of the research process, involving the informed assessment of various solutions to minimise the problem. If the predictive phase reveals that the above situation is highly volatile, and that the community will endure great inconvenience if nothing is done, then the prescriptive phase will be essential. The following core question may emerge:

- What steps can be taken before, during and after Schoolies Week to ensure that the situation does not escalate out of control?

Possible responses include increased policing of areas in Surfers Paradise where schoolies congregate, and a zero tolerance policy toward troublemakers.

The question of intervention, or the actions that should be taken to ensure optimum outcomes for the company or destination, is a core component of the management

process, and a very important arena for applied research. However, appropriate solutions or prescriptions will only emerge as a result of the knowledge that is obtained through good preliminary research at the levels of description, explanation and prediction. In the aforementioned Schoolies Week example, to illustrate, it would be prudent and logical to interview a sample of past, present or future schoolies to gain *their* perspective. Furthermore, if the research questions raised at those levels are engaged effectively, it is more likely that problem areas will be intercepted and addressed before they evolve into major crises. Hence, it is difficult to see how good management can be undertaken in the absence of good research (see Managing tourism: Visitor tolerance levels at Victorian zoos).

managing tourism

VISITOR TOLERANCE LEVELS AT VICTORIAN ZOOS

Managers at zoos and wildlife parks are increasingly involved in pursuing sustainable outcomes by encouraging visitors to participate in pro-wildlife behaviour. However, at what point does solicitation

Werribee Open Range Zoo near Melbourne

to do so become a 'turnoff' or even harassment for visitors, and hence ineffectual? To address this issue, Smith and colleagues (2012) conducted research among visitors at the Melbourne Zoo and Werribee Open Range Zoo, which respectively attracted 1.14 million and 300 000 visitors in the 2010–11 reporting period. In the first of two studies, 162 visitors were asked to recall how many requests to sign a petition (for example, to free bears from slavery) were made during face-to-face presentations by keepers, and to provide the number of requests that they thought appropriate. On average, only 1.2 requests were recalled but 6.6 requests were considered appropriate. Only 2 per cent of the 162 participants indicated that their threshold of tolerance in this regard had been crossed during their visit. In the second study, 508 visitors were presented with a *specific* behaviour request (to purchase a Beads for Wildlife product made by poor communities in Kenya) and asked how often and where they had heard this during their current visit. Here, the respective figures were 1.7 requests recalled and 2.8 requests considered as the appropriate number; with 9 per cent declaring that too many requests were made. The tentative implication for zoo managers is that it may be better to make a variety of behaviour requests (e.g. a sequence of petitions for various causes) than to focus on a particular behaviour, although the research treated each request equally and did not take into account that short and subtle entreaties might produce a different response than ones that are prolonged and more direct.

Identification of research methodology or methods

The next stage usually involves the identification of the specific **research methods** that will best allow the questions to be addressed. This is usually informed by a search of secondary literature sources to see how other researchers in the past have approached similar problems. In the descriptive phase of the example used, the investigator may initially focus on observing tourist–schoolie interactions at a variety of locations and

times during Schoolies Week. This can be augmented by quantitative surveying among residents and schoolies to provide a statistical basis for determining whether certain segments are more hostile towards schoolies than others. Depending on resources and time, observation and community focus groups may augment observation and surveying.

Cultural and social context must be considered in selecting an appropriate research methodology. For example, Likert-scaled survey questions (e.g. agreement with a statement on a 1 to 5 scale) are a reasonably effective means of eliciting accurate information from adults in mainstream, 'Western' societies such as those that predominate in Australia. However, there is evidence that East Asians for cultural reasons tend to avoid extreme responses on such instruments (i.e. they avoid 'strongly' agree or 'strongly' disagree options), even if this is the way they really feel about the situation. For research issues involving indigenous people, a standard quantitative methodology based on the scientific paradigm is often grossly inappropriate given the importance in those cultures of building trust through face-to-face contact over a long period. When interviewing local residents, it might be appropriate to employ trained locals rather than 'outsiders' who may be viewed with suspicion.

At the explanatory level, the researcher, in virtually any cultural context, should consider engaging in qualitative, in-depth interviews (e.g. with a sample of schoolies) to identify the reasons for revealed attitudes and behaviour. For prediction, the interviewer has a number of options that can be pursued in conjunction with each other to see whether the different methods yield the same results, or whether the outcomes can be combined to arrive at a probable scenario. These include:

- an interview or survey question that asks residents what they are likely to do during the next Schoolies Week if the situation does not change
- a modified Delphi technique to see what experts believe will occur
- a literature review to identify the outcomes of similar situations in other destinations
- extrapolation of past trends (e.g. if the number of hostile encounters has been increasing by 2 per cent a year over the past five years, then it could be assumed that this trend will continue to increase by a similar percentage in subsequent years).

To use all of these techniques in the same research process (whether at the explanatory or some other level of investigation) is to engage in methodological **triangulation**, or the use of several methods to gather information about and gain insight into the research issue (Belhassen & Santos 2006) (see also the 'Contemporary issue: Qualitative reinforcement' feature earlier in this chapter). If all of these four methods reveal similar outcomes, then the researcher can have a high degree of confidence that the real situation has been identified. Moreover, it is likely that each method will yield its own unique insights into this situation, thereby strengthening the knowledge base that is obtained from the research. Constraints of time, expertise and money, however, often rule out the use of triangulation.

At the prescriptive level, many approaches are also possible, including continued Delphi inquiries as to appropriate solutions, as well as solicitation of the community to see what local residents (and residents of Surfers Paradise and Broadbeach in particular) are willing to accommodate or suggest. Interviews with tourism managers in other destinations with similar experiences may also provide insight.

Data collection

Once the most appropriate methods have been identified, the **data collection** phase of the research process can proceed. In most cases, the researcher cannot access the entire population that is being investigated, or observe every event associated with a particular

process. It is therefore expedient in such circumstances to select a sample from the target population. Sampling can be carried out on a probability or nonprobability basis. In the former case, a sample is randomly drawn from the population so that each member of that population has an equal or known probability of being selected. This can be done by simply drawing names out of a hat (in a small population), by using random number tables or selecting every *n*th name from a telephone directory or other source list.

However attained, it is important to select a large enough sample so that inferences can be made about the entire population within an acceptable margin of error. If carried out properly, a sample of 2000 households (or about 0.02 per cent) can accurately reflect all Australian households within a very small margin of error. However, for a population of around 1000, it is necessary to sample at least 30 per cent of that population to achieve the same effect, while a population of 100 would require a sample of around 80 per cent (Neuman 2010). Nonprobability or convenience sampling is commonly practised in qualitative research, and involves the deliberate selection of certain cases to build the sample. This type of sampling is not recommended for quantitative research except under special circumstances.

Once the sample size and selection procedure have been decided, the collection of data can begin. Factors that must be considered at this stage include the timing of interviews or observations, consistency in the application of the research method or methods, and the collection of all results in as short a time period as possible so that new developments do not skew the response patterns. Specific issues may have to be considered depending on the research method and the conditions that are encountered in the 'field'. For example, telephone surveys carried out around dinner time are likely to yield a high potential response rate (i.e. people are likely to be at home), but a lower participation rate (i.e. because they do not wish to be bothered at that time).

Data analysis

The **data analysis** stage attempts to answer the relevant research questions by examining and assessing the collected information to identify patterns and meanings. Examination usually involves the filtering and organising of the database to eliminate invalid responses. This is then followed (mostly in quantitative research) by the coding and entering of the data into a computer software system such as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), which facilitates further classification and analysis. Once the data are 'cleaned' to eliminate errors in the coding procedure, the main analysis can be undertaken.

The most basic analysis in quantitative research is the recording of simple descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means and standard deviations (i.e. how much the data clusters around the mean). These are sufficient to answer many types of questions. At a more sophisticated level, tests of significance can be used to see whether the responses of one particular group are significantly different than those of the overall population or other specified subsections of that population. The relationships between many different variables and groups can be examined simultaneously using multivariate techniques such as factor analysis, cluster analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM). The level of sophistication that is appropriate depends on the nature of the research questions, the competency of the researcher and the characteristics of the data that are collected.

In qualitative research, analysis can involve the sorting, comparing, classifying and synthesis of the collected information, usually with a much higher level of subjective or personal judgement than occurs in quantitative analysis. Because of this subjectivity, qualitative researchers are more likely to practise triangulation.

Data presentation

In the **data presentation** stage, the results of the analysis should be communicated in a way that can be easily interpreted by the target audience. Tables and graphs are the most common devices for presenting data, but great care should always be taken to avoid complexity and clutter, particularly if the intended audience is not academic. Confusion often results when researchers wrongly assume that the audience is familiar with specific techniques and jargon. In general, the reader should be able to read a table or figure on its own, so that the accompanying text can focus on analysis rather than description.

Maps are underused as a means of data presentation, even though they are an extremely efficient means of presenting spatial information if constructed properly. Imagine, for example, that the researcher wishes to examine patterns of tourism intensity in Africa relative to resident population. To identify this, figure 12.5 uses choropleth mapping — a technique which uses shading or patterns — to depict increasing (red) or decreasing (blue) levels of intensity relative to a given baseline (the average for all of Africa). In this case, intensity is measured as the number of inbound visitors to a country per 1000 residents in 2010. Almost instantaneously, the observer can appreciate the very low intensity that characterises middle Africa and the high intensity in the far north and south as well as offshore SISODs. Such a map is far more effective in conveying a pattern than a table or bar graph.

Number of tourists per 1000 residents, 2010

- 659–2011 (very high)
- 161–496 (high)
- 72–73 (high medium)
  66 = Africa average
- 50–62 (low medium)
- 22–38 (low)
- 1–17 (very low)
- Data not available
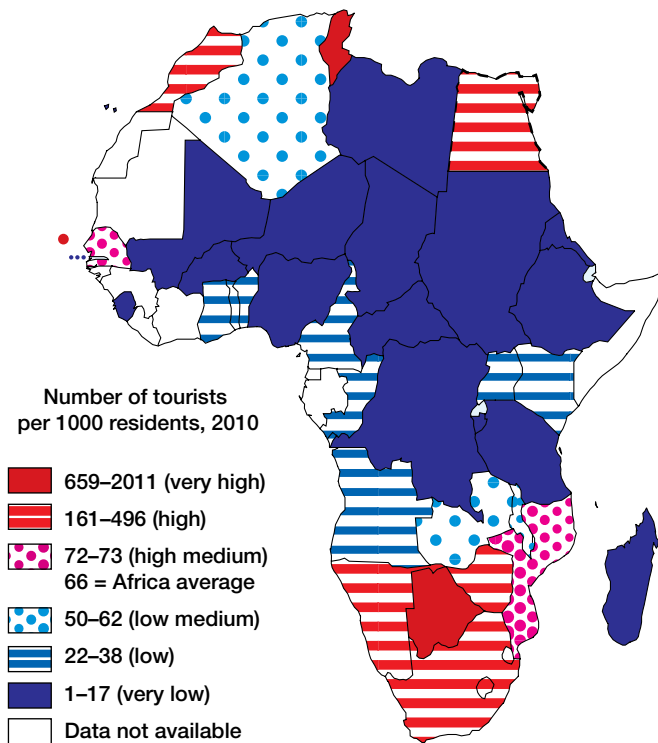
FIGURE 12.5 Effective cartography: Number of inbound visitors per 1000 residents of each country in Africa, 2010

Source: UN Statistical Division (2013), UNWTO (2012)

Data interpretation

The final stage, and in many ways the most difficult, is the extraction of meaning from the research results through **data interpretation**. This is where the significance and implications of the results are considered from a theoretical or practical perspective, or both. The researcher may consider higher levels of investigation at this stage (e.g. move from description to explanation), or may revisit previous stages. As with earlier stages in the research process, interpretation will be influenced by the methodological and other biases of the researcher. In quantitative research, the acceptance or rejection of a hypothesis at the previous stage is a more objective form of interpretation, since this is determined by the outcome of particular statistical applications. In such instances, the term 'significance' has a specific meaning — that is, the result of the technique tells us, for example, whether the difference between two populations is statistically significant within some specified margin of error. Interpretation may or may not in this case lead to broader and more subjective speculations about less tangible matters, such as the implications of these results for the community or company.

While it is possible for two researchers to produce almost identical results up to the point of hypothesis acceptance or rejection, it is likely that their interpretations of the results will differ at this broader level. Interpretation, in essence, can be as much an art as a science, and the effective interpreter is an individual who is well versed and experienced in the broader topic area and knowledgeable about the external environments that affect tourism. The importance of effective interpretation at the specific or broad level cannot be overstated, since this leads to the translation of research results into policy decisions and other outcomes that are important to the target audience.

CHAPTER REVIEW

The essential role of research is to provide a sound knowledge base that allows the managers of destinations and businesses to make the best possible planning and management decisions. Research can be categorised into several dichotomies. Basic research uses an inductive or deductive approach to broaden our understanding of tourism, while applied research is directed towards addressing a particular problem or issue. Cross-sectional research is undertaken during a single time period, while longitudinal research considers trends over two or more time periods in the past or future. Qualitative research tends to examine a small number of cases in great detail, while quantitative research usually considers a large number of cases in less depth. Finally, primary research occurs when investigators gather their own data, while secondary research involves the use of data that has already been gathered by other researchers.

The process through which research is undertaken comprises seven stages, although there is usually considerable flexibility in the sequence of steps that are actually followed in a research project. The process begins with problem recognition, and proceeds to the formulation of questions or hypotheses that provide a specific focus for investigation. At this point, the researcher also needs to consider the level of investigation that is of interest — description, explanation, prediction or prescription. Subsequently, a methodology (if not predetermined) and methods must be selected that address the research questions, and data collected that can then be analysed using those techniques. Once the data have been presented, the research process culminates in the interpretation of the results, which allows these to be translated into usable outcomes by the target audience.

■ SUMMARY OF KEY TERMS

Applied research research that addresses some particular problem or attempts to achieve a particular set of outcomes; it is usually constrained by set time schedules

Autoethnography a form of qualitative research in which the researcher positions herself or himself as a subject of investigation

Basic research research that is broadly focused on the revelation of new knowledge, and is not directed towards specific outcomes or problems

Cross-sectional research a 'snapshot' approach to research that considers one or more sites at one particular point in time

Data analysis the process by which the collected information is examined and assessed to identify patterns that address the research questions

Data collection the gathering of relevant information by way of the techniques identified in the research methodology stage

Data interpretation the stage during which meaning is extracted from the data

Data presentation the stage during which the results of the analysis are communicated to the target audience

Deduction an approach in basic research that begins with a basic theory that is applied to a set of data to see whether the theory is applicable or not

Hypotheses tentative informed statements about the nature of reality that can be subsequently verified or rejected through systematic deductive research

Induction an approach in basic research whereby the observation and analysis of data leads to the formulation of theories or models that link these observations in a meaningful way

Longitudinal research a trends-oriented approach to research, which examines one or more sites at two or more points in time or, more rarely, on a continuous basis

Primary research research that involves the collection of original data by the researcher

Problem recognition the first stage of the research process, which is the identification of a broad problem arena that requires investigation

Qualitative research research that does not place its emphasis on the collection and analysis of statistical data, and usually tends to obtain in-depth insight into a relatively small number of respondents or observations

Quantitative research research that is based mainly on the collection and analysis of statistical data, and hence tends to obtain a limited amount of information on a large number of respondents or observations; these results are then extrapolated to the wider population of the subject matter

Question formulation the posing of specific questions or hypotheses that serve to focus the research agenda arising from problem recognition; these questions can be descriptive, explanatory, predictive or prescriptive in nature

Research a systematic search for knowledge

Research methodology a set of assumptions, procedures and methods that are used to carry out a search for knowledge within a particular type of research

Research methods the techniques that will be used to answer the questions or prove or disprove the hypotheses

Research process the sequence of stages that are followed to carry out a research project from its origins to its conclusions

Secondary research research in which the investigator uses previously collected data

Triangulation the use of multiple methods, data sources, investigators or theories in a single research process

■ QUESTIONS

1 From a corporate perspective, what are the advantages and disadvantages of pursuing basic (as opposed to applied) research?

2 (a) What is the difference between induction and deduction?
(b) How do the two approaches work together in long-term research projects?

3 Why is cross-sectional research carried out infrequently?

4 (a) What are the relative strengths and weaknesses of:
   (i) qualitative research, and
   (ii) quantitative research?
(b) In what ways can qualitative and quantitative research display a complementary relationship?

5 What problems are potentially encountered when using observation as a means of gathering primary data about people?

6 (a) What are the strengths and weaknesses of web-based surveys as compared to postal surveys?
(b) Under what conditions is each the most appropriate method of surveying?

7 When interviewing local residents, what are the advantages and disadvantages respectively of having other local residents or outside academics conduct the interviews?

8 What is methodological triangulation and why is it considered desirable?

9 Why is a sampling rate of 80 per cent appropriate to represent a population of 100 individuals, but just 0.02 per cent for a population of 20 million individuals?

10 (a) Why can interpretation be considered an art as much as a science?
    (b) How important is interpretation to the research process?

■ EXERCISES

1 For each of the following destination or business management scenarios, write a 200-word report in which you list the data you would collect, and describe how you would collect and analyse these data.

(a) The Gold Coast is planning on building a major cruise ship terminal on The Spit, an area of sand dunes near the mouth of the Nerang River. Will local residents support this project?

(b) An ecolodge has been given permission to establish accommodation in the Tasmanian World Heritage listed wilderness, on the condition that it causes no significant harm to the environment. What type of accommodation and location will best meet this condition?

(c) A major downtown hotel in Beijing, to show its environmental credentials, has held EarthCheck Platinum status for the past two years. Many shareholders in the hotel, however, are concerned that this is not a financially sound decision. Is it wise to maintain this certification status? Why?

(d) The destination marketing organisation for Australia has just been given a 25 per cent cut in its budget, and must close 4 of its 16 (hypothetical) offices in Asia (Bangkok, Beijing, Chennai, Chongqing, Hong Kong, Jakarta, Kuala Lumpur, Manila, Mumbai, New Delhi, Osaka, Seoul, Shanghai, Singapore, Taipei and Tokyo). Which 4 offices should be closed? Explain your reasons.

2 (a) Using any recent article from *Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management* or the *Journal of Travel Research*, identify the type of research that is represented and the type of primary and/or secondary research methods and sources that are employed.

(b) Describe how these types of research and methods are related to the problem recognition, question formulation and identification of data requirements (i.e. first three stages of the research process in the final section of this chapter) used in the article.

■ FURTHER READING

Fowler, F. 2009. *Survey Research Methods.* **Fourth Edition. New York: Sage.** Web-based surveys and the use of mobile phones as survey media are among the contemporary surveying issues discussed in this textbook, which also focuses on data analysis.

Goodson, L. & Phillimore, J. (Eds) 2004. *Qualitative Research in Tourism: Ontologies, Epistemologies and Methodologies.* **London: Routledge.** This book provides a comprehensive exposure to and analysis of qualitative research methods as they pertain to the tourism sector.

Jennings, G. 2010. *Tourism Research.* **Second Edition. Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons.** Jennings discusses all essential aspects of research from a tourism studies perspective, including data sources, ethical considerations, qualitative and quantative methods, and the preparation of research proposals.

Neuman, W. L. 2010. *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.* **Seventh Edition. London: Allyn and Bacon.** A comprehensive

discussion of the application of research methods to social phenomena is provided in this popular general textbook.

Ritchie, B., Burns, P. & Palmer, C. (Eds) 2005. *Tourism Research Methods: Integrating Theory with Practice.* Wallingford, UK: CABI. The 17 chapters in this collection encompass a comprehensive array of research issues and methods, including longitudinal research, participant observation, qualitative research, and content analysis.

case study

BUILDING KNOWLEDGE CAPACITY THROUGH TOURISM RESEARCH AUSTRALIA

National-level tourism research, although widely acknowledged as critical to Australia's competitiveness as a destination, is an example of a service that individual private businesses are usually reluctant to pay for because it also benefits competing businesses. To address the resulting market failure — that is, the failure to conduct vital research about tourism in Australia — the Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism established a dedicated entity, Tourism Research Australia (TRA), to conduct such macro-level research. At the broadest level, the TRA is mandated to provide relevant and timely knowledge for Australia's tourism industry that helps to meet the government's goal of maximising tourism's contribution to the national economy within a context of environmental and social sustainability. To this effect, the TRA provides statistics, research and analysis in support of industry and product development, policy development, and marketing of tourism products and businesses.

Among the best known and most referenced TRA research outputs are the quarterly national surveys of international and domestic tourists. The International Visitor Survey (IVS) is based on face-to-face interviews with 40 000 departing short-term international visitors aged 15 or older (TRA 2013). These interviews are conducted over the course of the year at major international airports, and solicit such critical information as country of residence, expenditures (amount and by category), demographic characteristics, purpose of visit, transport and accommodation, activities, travel party, information sources, and places visited. The National Visitor Survey (NVS) uses a computer-assisted telephone interviewing system to each year interview 120 000 Australian residents aged 15 or older. The solicited data is similar to the IVS, and both surveys are jointly funded by the federal and state governments. A third type of data collection, the Destination Visitor Survey (DVS), focuses on specific regions or places that are selected for scrutiny in collaboration with state tourism organisations.

Beyond the intrinsic knowledge about Australian tourism that they reveal, data generated from the IVS and NVS are used by the TRA to make performance forecasts for tourist numbers and expenditures, usually over a 10-year time frame. They also contribute to the calculation of tourism satellite accounts and modelling for regional expenditure and economic value. An important publication that collates and synthesises all these findings is the annual 'State of the Industry' report. The 2012 version (TRA 2012) summarises the sector's performance and underlying factors, and uses the Tourism Scorecard as a way of tracking this performance in the context of goals set forth in the organisation's *Tourism 2020* long-term strategy. These goals are based on the 'hard' economic criteria of increased aviation capacity, revenue growth, and increased supply of visitor accommodations.

Acknowledging the diversity of Australia's tourism stakeholders, the TRA also provides 'snapshots' and fact sheets about specific sectors (e.g. business events, cultural and heritage tourism, food and wine tourism, Indigenous tourism, and nature-based tourism), markets (e.g. inbound Chinese, backpackers, mature age visitors), products (e.g. caravans, bed & breakfast accommodation) and issues (e.g. impact of the mining boom on tourism, internet use in trip planning and booking). It also accommodates customised requests for specific data outputs on a fee-paying basis, and maintains a subscription service that allows members to access, select and statistically manipulate online data however they wish. Member access to new data is immediate, customised tables can be stored and updated, and both face-to-face and online training sessions are available along with help desk assistance during business hours. Online access to the IVS and NVS is also available to students through subscribing educational institutions.

With regard to national tourism policy, the TRA provides the secretariat to the Tourism Research Advisory Board (TRAB), which was established under the National Long-Term Tourism Strategy to provide stakeholders with relevant research and analysis. Members include peak federal and state tourism agencies, which collectively identify national research priorities and themes that relate to the National Tourism Research Agenda. These are currently focused around current market dynamics, emerging trends, capacity building and dissemination pathways. To ensure that research outputs are objective and of high quality, the TRA operates under a Statement of Professional Independence which affirms that outputs are provided purely on the basis of sound statistical research and analysis, and are not unduly influenced by the politics or policy of the government in power. This entails recruitment of appropriate staff, research rigour, a clearance process for research outcomes, publication of research findings under its own brand rather than under the umbrella department, and media independence (TRA 2013).

The TRA maintains a well-deserved reputation for sustained research quality and objectivity, but there are areas of concern to address, including persistent budget uncertainty. This owes in part to the TRA's status as one relatively small entity within a large government department. A more immediate issue is that the capacity to identify long-term trends is impeded by the continual review and revision of data-gathering methods and targets, so that expenditure statistics from, for example, 2005 are not directly comparable to data from 2014. Research methods can also be challenged. For example, Tisdell (2012) argues that the TRA exaggerates the economic benefits to Australia from wildlife tourism (estimated by the TRA at $30 billion annually) by using total expenditures by 'nature tourists'. These are defined as any visitor engaging in activities such as 'visiting

national parks or state parks' at least once; however, *all* their trip expenditures are attributed to nature tourism. Alternative approaches that consider whether tourists would still have visited a region or stayed as long in the absence of wildlife attractions are more realistic but more complex and expensive to calculate. The TRA approach is simpler and produces large estimates of benefit that are more likely to generate political support, but this may have the unintended consequence of reducing support for conservation funding. By grossly inflating, through implication, the actual revenues gained by the specialised nature tourism industry, the TRA statistics might discourage government from providing support to that sector.

QUESTIONS

1 Imagine that you have been commissioned to identify four more variables for inclusion in the International Visitor Survey. Access the latest copy of the IVS to see what is already being collected, and then prepare a 1000-word report in which you:

 (a) explain why each of your own four selected variables is important for meeting the government's goal of revenue maximisation in the context of environmental and social sustainability

 (b) describe how each variable should be presented and measured

 (c) indicate how each variable strategically complements other standard variables already in the survey.

2 Write a 1000-word report in which you:

 (a) inventory all the sectors, markets, products and issues that have been addressed in the TRA snapshots and fact sheets during the past five years

 (b) identify two other sectors, markets, products or issues that should be addressed by the TRA next year

 (c) explain why each of your choices in (b) is appropriate with regard to your understanding that they are important to Australian tourism but under-researched.

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APPENDIX 1

SELECTED INTERNATIONAL AND AUSTRALIAN TOURISM ORGANISATIONS

Tourism organisation	Original date established	Purpose	Headquarters
Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) www.abs.gov.au	1976	Australia's official statistical organisation	Belconnen, ACT
Australian Tourism Export Council (ATEC) (predecessor Australian Incoming Tour Operators Association) www.atec.net.au	1972	Peak industry association representing Australia's inbound tourism industry	Sydney, NSW
Tourism Australia (predecessor Australian Tourist Commission) www.tourism.australia.com	1967	The Australian government statutory authority established to promote Australia as an international tourist destination	Canberra, ACT
Tourism Research Australia (predecessor Bureau of Tourism Research) www.tra.gov.au	1987	A branch of Tourism Australia that collects, analyses and disseminates information regarding the Australian tourism industry to government, industry and the general public	Canberra, ACT
Ecotourism Australia (predecessor Ecotourism Association of Australia) www.ecotourism.org.au	1991	Promotes an understanding of ecotourism and environmental issues in Australia, and aims to develop ethics and standards for the industry, and facilitate interaction between ecotourism stakeholders	Brisbane, QLD
EC3 Global (predecessor Green Globe) www.ec3global.com	1992	A private intercorporate company that promotes certified environmental sustainability among its member tourism companies	Turner, ACT
Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) www.pata.org	1951	A nonprofit travel industry association that promotes travel and tourism destinations in the Asia–Pacific region through networking, marketing, promotion and sales, destination promotion and trade shows; consists of approximately 2100 organisations, including governments, travel organisations and companies	San Francisco, United States (administrative headquarters)

(continued)

SELECTED INTERNATIONAL AND AUSTRALIAN TOURISM ORGANISATIONS *(continued)*			
Tourism organisation	**Original date established**	**Purpose**	**Headquarters**
Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism (DRET) **www.ret.gov.au**	1996	Provides advice and policy support to relevant sectors to increase Australia's international competitiveness; operates under the principles of environmental and social responsibility	Canberra, ACT
Tourism and Transport Forum (TTF) (predecessor Tourism Task Force) **www.ttf.org.au**	1989	Australia's peak national body promoting the interests and perspectives of the tourism and transport industries	Sydney, NSW
The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (predecessor IUOTO — International Union of Official Travel Organisations) **www2.unwto.org**	1975	A United Nations agency that provides a forum to discuss global tourism policy and issues, and has a mission to promote and develop tourism as a way of encouraging world peace, and as an agent of economic development; includes 133 countries and territories, and more than 300 affiliate members	Madrid, Spain
World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) **www.wttc.org**	n/a	The main forum for global tourism chief executive officers, including accommodation, catering, cruises, entertainment, recreation, transportation and travel-related services; central goal is to work with governments to fulfil the full economic potential of tourism	London, United Kingdom

INBOUND TOURISM DATA (*continued*)

Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
Burkina Faso	WAfr	16 469	536	289	274	66[1]	0.9[2]
Burundi	EAfr	8 383	246	192	142	20	0.1[1]
Cambodia	SEAsia	14 138	795	1 873	2 399	1 260	12.8
Cameroon	MAfr	19 599	1 205	477	573	159	1.3[2]
Canada	NA	34 017	46 361	17 931	16 097	15 775	1.2
Cape Verde	WAfr	496	3 323	267	336	289	23.3[3]
Cayman Islands	Car	56	56 751	292	288	385	n/a
Central African Republic	MAfr	4 401	451	17	54	6	0.8
Chad	MAfr	11 227	794	77	71	n/a	n/a
Chile	SA	17 114	12 640	2 507	2 766	1 636	1.2
China	NEAsia	1 318 170	4 515	54 720	55 664	45 814	0.9
Colombia	SA	46 295	6 186	2 254	2 385	2 083	1.0
Congo	MAfr	4 043	2 665	55	101	45[3]	0.7[2]
Cook Islands	AusSP	20	11 895	97	104	110	n/a
Costa Rica	CA	4 659	7 774	1 980	2 100	2 009	6.4
Croatia	SEur	4 403	13 506	8 559	9 111	8 050	13.5
Cuba	Car	11 258	5 714	2 119	2 507	2 187	n/a
Curacao	Car	n/a	n/a	300	342	385	n/a
Cyprus	EMed	809	28 483	2 416	2 173	2 153	10.5
Czech Republic	CEEur	10 493	18 960	9 370	8 185	7 121	3.9
Denmark	NEur	5 550	56 213	9 284	8 744	5 704	n/a
Djibouti	EAfr	889	1 271	40	53[2]	18	1.5[1]
Dominica	Car	68	7 107	81	77	87	22.7
Dominican Rep.	Car	9 927	5 135	3 980	4 125	4 209	8.2
Ecuador	SA	14 465	4 008	937	1 047	782	1.4
Egypt	ME	81 121	2 646	10 610	14 051	12 528	6.4
El Salvador	CA	6 193	3 460	1 339	1 150	390	3.0
Eritrea	EAfr	5 254	403	81	84	26[1]	n/a
Estonia	CEEur	1 341	14 153	1 900	2 120	1 065	7.3
Ethiopia	EAfr	82 950	320	358	468	522	3.9[1]

Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
Fiji	AusSP	860	3 687	539	632	523	n/a
Finland	NEur	5 365	44 142	3 519	3 670	2 892	1.8
France	WEur	64 731	39 637	80 853	77 148	46 597	1.8
French Polynesia	AusSP	271	24 654	218	154	403	n/a
Gambia	WAfr	1 728	557	143	91	32	7.9[2]
Georgia	CEEur	4 352	2 674	1 052	2 033	659	6.3
Germany	WEur	82 302	40 169	24 420	26 875	34 560	1.5
Ghana	WAfr	24 392	1 283	587	931	574	2.2
Greece	SEur	11 359	26 504	16 165	15 007	12 479	4.1
Grenada	Car	104	7 500	129	110	96	15.2
Guadeloupe	Car	n/a	n/a	408	392	384[2]	n/a
Guam	AusSP	n/a	n/a	1 225	1 196	n/a	n/a
Guatemala	CA	14 389	2 873	1 448	1 219	1 378	3.3
Guyana	SA	754	2 994	134	150	80	5.1[2]
Haiti	Car	9 993	608	386	255	167	2.6[3]
Honduras	CA	7 601	2 026	831	896	650	4.2
Hong Kong SAR	NEAsia	7 053	31 784	17 154	20 085	21 775	7.8[1]
Hungary	CEEur	9 984	12 818	8 638	9 510	5 339	4.9
Iceland	NEur	320	39 263	1 054	1 213	557	4.4
India	SAsia	1 224 614	1 370	5 082	5 776	14 160	0.9
Indonesia	SEAsia	239 871	2 952	5 506	7 003	6 958	1.1
Iran	SAsia	73 974	5 799	2 219	2 034[2]	2 707	n/a
Iraq	ME	31 672	3 495	n/a	1 518	144[3]	0.3[3]
Ireland	NEur	4 470	46 367	8 332	6 515	4 040	3.9
Israel	EMed	7 418	29 312	2 067	2 803	4 768	2.5
Italy	SEur	60 551	33 970	43 654	43 626	38 438	1.5
Jamaica	Car	2 741	4 910	1 704	1 922	2 001	16.8[1]
Japan	NEAsia	126 536	43 374	8 347	8 611	13 224	0.3
Jordan	ME	6 187	4 271	3 431	4 557	3 413	14.6
Kazakhstan	CEEur	16 026	9 238	3 876	3 393	1 005	0.9
Kenya	EAfr	40 513	794	1 686	1 470	800	4.2
Kiribati	AusSP	100	1 468	5	5	3[1]	n/a
Korea, South	NEAsia	48 184	21 063	6 448	8 798	9 765	1.4

INBOUND TOURISM DATA (*continued*)

Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
Kuwait	ME	2 737	45 430	292	207	225	0.6[1]
Kyrgyzstan	CEEur	5 334	899	1 656	1 316	284	7.3
Laos	SEAsia	6 201	1 088	1 142	1 670	382	4.9[1]
Latvia	CEEur	2 252	10 701	1 653	1 373	640	4.0
Lebanon	ME	4 228	8 781	1 017	2 168	8 012	20.5[1]
Lesotho	SAfr	2 171	1 004	292	414	34	1.9[2]
Libya	ME	6 355	11 275	38	34[3]	60	0.2[1]
Liechtenstein	WEur	36	143 063	58	50	n/a	n/a
Lithuania	CEEur	3 324	11 004	1 486	1 507	1 021	3.0
Luxembourg	WEur	507	105 095	917	793	4 107	7.5
Macau (China)	NEAsia	544	51 999	12 945	11 926	27 790	98.9
Macedonia	SEur	2 061	4 532	230	262	197	2.3
Madagascar	EAfr	20 714	422	344	196	321	n/a
Malawi	EAfr	14 901	357	735	746	70[1]	8.0
Malaysia	SEAsia	28 401	8 691	20 973	24 577	18 315	8.9[1]
Maldives	SAsia	316	6 570	676	792	714	33.8
Mali	WAfr	15 370	612	164	169	283	2.2[1]
Malta	SEur	417	19 471	1 244	1 332	1 066	15.2
Marshall Islands	AusSP	54	3 281	7	5	3	n/a
Martinique	Car	n/a	n/a	501	478	472	3.8[3]
Mauritius	EAfr	1 299	7 477	907	935	1 285	16.3
Mexico	NA	113 423	9 091	21 370	22 260	11 760	1.2
Moldova	CEEur	3 573	1 627	13	8	174	3.8
Monaco	WEur	35	154 486	328	279	n/a	n/a
Mongolia	NEAsia	2 756	2 250	452	457	244	5.8[2]
Montenegro	SEur	631	6 510	984	1 088	660	17.0[1]
Montserrat	Car	6	9 725	8	6	5	11.5[1]
Morocco	NAfr	31 951	2 842	7 408	9 288	6 702	9.0
Mozambique	SAfr	23 391	394	771	1 718	197	2.0[3]
Myanmar	SEAsia	47 963	880	248	311	73	n/a
Namibia	SAfr	2 283	5 013	929	984	439	n/a
Nepal	SAsia	29 959	545	527	603	344	2.3

Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
Netherlands	WEur	16 613	46 936	11 008	10 883	12 861	2.4
New Caledonia	AusSP	251	35 298	103	99	132	n/a
New Zealand	AusSP	4 368	32 757	2 434	2 492	4 907	3.4
Nicaragua	CA	5 788	1 139	800	1 011	309	5.4[1]
Niger	WAfr	15 512	366	48	74	79	1.6[2]
Nigeria	WAfr	158 423	1 449	1 212	1 555	571	0.5[2]
Niue	AusSP	n/a	n/a	4	6	2	n/a
Northern Marianas	AusSP	n/a	n/a	385	375	n/a	n/a
Norway	NEur	4 883	85 492	4 377	4 767	4 590	1.2
Oman	ME	2 782	21 286	1 271	1 524[1]	775	2.4[1]
Pakistan	SAsia	173 593	1 001	840	855[1]	304	0.6
Palau	AusSP	20	10 348	88	86	124	n/a
Panama	CA	3 517	7 561	1 103	1 324	1 676	9.5
Papua New Guinea	AusSP	6 858	1 415	104	146	2	n/a
Paraguay	SA	6 455	2 840	416	465	217	1.4
Peru	SA	29 077	5 411	1 916	2 299	2 274	1.8
Philippines	SEAsia	93 261	2 140	3 092	3 520	2 630	1.8
Poland	CEEur	38 277	12 274	14 975	12 470	9 446	2.2
Portugal	SEur	10 676	21 422	12 321	n/a	10 007	5.7
Puerto Rico	Car	3 749	26 342	3 687	3 679	3 598	5.7
Réunion	EAfr	n/a	n/a	381	420	392	2.2[3]
Romania	CEEur	21 486	7 653	7 722	7 498	1 125	1.0
Russia	CEEur	142 958	10 405	22 909	22 281	8 970	0.9
Rwanda	EAfr	10 624	529	566	619	202	4.2[1]
St. Kitts & Nevis	Car	52	12 850	123	92	86	15.3[1]
St. Lucia	Car	174	6 677	287	306	329	33.5
St. Maarten	Car	n/a	n/a	469	443	674	n/a
St. Vincent	Car	109	6 172	90	72	87	14.7
Samoa	AusSP	183	3 255	117	122	124	n/a
Saudi Arabia	ME	27 448	16 610	11 531	10 850	6 712	1.5

INBOUND TOURISM DATA (*continued*)							
Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
Senegal	WAfr	12 434	1 034	875	900	463[1]	4.6
Serbia	SEur	7 361	5 037	696	683	799	2.8
Seychelles	EAfr	87	11 131	161	175	274	n/a
Sierra Leone	WAfr	5 868	432	32	39	25	1.5[2]
Singapore	SEAsia	5 086	44 704	7 957	9 161	14 181	5.0[1]
Slovakia	CEEur	5 462	15 941	7 269	6 643[2]	2 228	2.7
Slovenia	SEur	2 030	23 235	1 751	1 869	2 554	5.7
Solomon Islands	AusSP	538	1 255	14	21	54	n/a
South Africa	SAfr	50 133	7 251	9 090	8 074	9 085	2.8
Spain	SEur	46 077	30 149	58 666	52 677	52 187	4.2
Sri Lanka	SAsia	20 860	2 375	494	654	576	2.1
Sudan	NAfr	34 534	1 634	436	495	94	0.5[1]
Suriname	SA	525	8 292	167	205	61	2.1[1]
Swaziland	SAfr	1 186	3 281	870	868	51	1.3[1]
Sweden	NEur	9 380	49 369	5 224	4 951	6 657	2.9
Switzerland	WEur	7 664	71 851	8 448	8 628	14 978	3.4
Syria	ME	20 411	2 962	4 158	8 546	6 190	1.7[1]
Taiwan	NEAsia	n/a	n/a	3 716	5 567	8 721	n/a
Tajikistan	CEEur	6 879	820	n/a	160	18	0.6
Tanzania	EAfr	44 841	526	692	754	1 255	n/a
Thailand	SEAsia	69 122	4 934	14 464	15 936	20 127	7.3
Timor-Leste	SEAsia	1 124	3 674	22	40	21	n/a
Togo	WAfr	6 028	526	86	202	40[1]	1.0[3]
Tonga	AusSP	104	3 587	65	69	16[1]	5.3[1]
Trinidad & Tobago	Car	1 341	15 171	449	386	393	2.8[1]
Tunisia	NAfr	10 481	4 222	6 762	6 903	2 645	8.1[1]
Turkey	EMed	72 752	10 050	22 248	27 000	20 807	3.4
Uganda	EAfr	33 425	531	642	946	730	n/a
Ukraine	CEEur	45 448	3 002	23 122	21 203	3 788	3.4
United Kingdom	NEur	62 036	36 529	30 870	28 295	32 399	1.8
United States	NA	310 384	46 457	55 979	59 793	134 847	1.1

Entity	Region	Population (000s) 2010	GDP per capita (2010) (US$)	Inbound (000s) 2007	Inbound (000s) 2010	International tourism expenditures 2010 (US$m)	Tourism as percentage of GDP (2010)
US Virgin Islands	Car	n/a	n/a	586	590	1 468[1]	n/a
Uruguay	SA	3 369	11 699	1 752	2 353	1 400	4.0
Uzbekistan	CEEur	27 445	1 427	903	975	121	n/a
Vanuatu	AusSP	240	2 851	81	97	92[3]	n/a
Venezuela	SA	28 980	13 589	771	510	739	0.2
Vietnam	SEAsia	87 848	1 211	4 229	5 050	4 450	n/a
Yemen	ME	24 053	1 207	379	536	622	3.0[1]
Zambia	EAfr	13 089	1 238	897	815	125	0.8[1]
Zimbabwe	EAfr	12 571	591	2 506	2 239	634	11.5

Notes:
1 2009 data
2 2008 data
3 2006 data
4 2003 data
5 2001 data
AusSP = Australia South Pacific
CA = Central America
Car = Caribbean
CEEur = Central Eastern Europe
EAfr = East Africa
EMed = Eastern Mediterranean
MAfr = Middle Africa
ME = Middle East
NA = North America
NAfr = North Africa
NEAsia = North-East Asia
NEur = Northern Europe
SA = South America
SAfr = South Africa
SAsia = South Asia
SEAsia = South-East Asia
SEur = Southern Europe
WAfr = West Africa
WEur = Western Europe
GDP per capita figures are estimates based on purchasing power parity — that is, adjusting for relative cost of living expenses

Sources: UN Statistical Division 2013. 'National Accounts Main Aggregates Database'. http://unstats.un.org; UNWTO 2012. *Compendium of Tourism Statistics: Data 2006–2010*. Madrid: UNWTO.

APPENDIX 3

GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM CRITERIA FOR DESTINATIONS

Section A: Demonstrate sustainable destination management

A1 Tourism strategy
The destination has established and is implementing a multi-year tourism strategy that is publicly available, is suited to its scale, that considers environmental, economic, social, cultural heritage, quality, health, and safety issues, and was developed with public participation.

A2 Tourism management organisation
The destination has an effective organisation, department, group, or committee responsible for a coordinated approach to sustainable tourism. This group has defined responsibilities for the management of environmental, economic, social, and cultural heritage issues.

A3 Monitoring
The destination has a system to monitor, publicly report, and respond to environmental, economic, social, and cultural heritage issues.

A4 Climate change adaptation
The destination has a system to identify challenges and opportunities associated with climate change. This system encourages climate change adaptation strategies for development, siting, design, and management of tourism facilities. The system contributes to the sustainability and resilience of the destination.

A5 Inventory of attraction sites
The destination has an up-to-date, publicly available inventory of its key tourism assets and attractions including natural, historical, archaeological, religious, spiritual, and cultural sites.

A6 Planning regulations
The destination has planning guidelines, regulations, and policies that integrate sustainable land use, design, construction, and demolition. The regulations protect natural and cultural heritage, are publicly communicated, and are enforced.

A7 Access for all
All tourist sites and facilities, including those of natural, cultural and historic importance, are accessible to all, including persons with disabilities and others who have specific access requirements. Where such sites and facilities are not immediately accessible, access should be afforded through the design and implementation of solutions that take into account both the integrity of the site and such reasonable accommodations for persons with access requirements as can be achieved.

A8 Property acquisitions
Laws and regulations regarding property acquisitions exist, are enforced, consider communal and indigenous rights, and do not authorise resettlement without informed consent and/or full compensation.

A9 Tourist satisfaction
The destination has a system to monitor, to publicly report and, if necessary, to take action to improve tourist satisfaction.

A10 Sustainability standards
The destination has a system to promote sustainability standards consistent with the GSTC criteria for tourism enterprises.

A11 Safety and security
The destination has a system to prevent and respond to tourism-related crime, safety, and health hazards.

A12 Crisis and emergency preparedness and response
The destination has a crisis and emergency response plan that is appropriate to the destination. Key elements are communicated to residents, tourists, and tourism-related enterprises. The plan establishes procedures and provides resources and training.

A13 Promotion
Promotion is accurate with regard to the destination and its products, services, and sustainability claims. The promotional messages are authentic and respectful.

Section B: Maximise economic benefits to the host community and minimise negative impacts

B1 Economic monitoring
The direct and indirect economic contribution of tourism to the destination's economy is regularly monitored. These results are publicly reported.

B2 Local career opportunities
The destination provides equal employment and training opportunities for local residents. The opportunities are open to women, youth, minorities, and other vulnerable populations.

B3 Stakeholder participation
The destination has a system that enables stakeholders to participate in tourism-related planning and decision making on an ongoing basis.

B4 Local community opinion
Residents' aspirations, concerns, and satisfaction with tourism are regularly monitored, recorded and publicly reported. Care is taken to ensure that key stakeholders are included and that responsive action is taken where needed.

B5 Local access
The destination protects, monitors, and safeguards local resident access to natural, historical, archaeological, religious, spiritual, and cultural sites.

B6 Tourism awareness
The destination provides regular programs to residents to enhance their understanding of tourism opportunities, tourism challenges, and the importance of sustainability.

B7 Preventing exploitation
The destination has a defined system and established practices to prevent commercial, sexual, or any other form of exploitation and harassment, particularly of children, adolescents, women, and minorities.

B8 Support for community
The destination has a system to enable tourism-related enterprises to support community and development initiatives.

B9 Supporting local entrepreneurs and fair trade
The destination has a system that supports local entrepreneurs and promotes fair trade principles.

Section C: Maximise benefits to communities, visitors, and cultural heritage and minimise negative impacts

C1 Attraction protection
The destination has a policy and system to conserve key natural, historical, archaeological, religious, spiritual, and cultural sites, including scenic, cultural, and wild landscapes.

C2 Visitor management
The destination has a visitor management system for attraction sites that includes measures to preserve and protect key natural and cultural assets.

C3 Visitor behaviour
The destination has publicly available guidelines for visitor behaviour that are designed to minimise adverse impacts.

C4 Cultural heritage protection
Historical and archaeological artifacts are not illegally sold, traded or displayed.

C5 Site interpretation
Interpretive information is provided at key natural, historical, archaeological, religious, spiritual, and cultural sites. The information is communicated in relevant languages.

C6 Intellectual property
The destination has a system to ensure respect for the tangible and intangible intellectual property of individuals and communities.

C7 Visitor contributions
The destination has a system that encourages visitors to volunteer or contribute to community development, cultural heritage, and biodiversity conservation.

(continued)

GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM CRITERIA FOR DESTINATIONS (*continued*)

Section D: Maximise benefits to the environment and minimise negative impacts

D1 Environmental risks
The destination has identified key environmental risks and has a system in place to address these.

D2 Protection of sensitive environments
The destination has a system to monitor the impact of tourism on sensitive environments and protect habitats and species.

D3 Wildlife protection
The destination has a system to ensure compliance with local, national, and international standards for the harvest or capture, display, and sale of wildlife (including both plants and animals).

D4 Greenhouse gas emissions
The destination has a system to encourage tourism-related enterprises and services to measure, monitor, report, and mitigate their greenhouse gas emissions.

D5 Energy conservation
The destination has a system to promote energy conservation, measure energy consumption, and reduce reliance on fossil fuels. The destination encourages tourism-related enterprises to conserve energy and use renewable energy technologies.

D6 Water management
The destination has a system to conserve and manage water usage. The destination encourages tourism-related enterprises to manage and conserve water.

D7 Water security
The destination has a system to monitor its water resources to ensure that use by tourism is compatible with the water requirements of the destination community.

D8 Water quality
The destination has a system to monitor drinking and recreational water quality. The monitoring results are publicly available.

D9 Wastewater
The destination has clear and enforced guidelines in place for the siting, maintenance and testing of discharge from septic tanks and wastewater treatment systems.

D10 Solid waste reduction
The destination has a system to ensure solid waste is reduced, reused, and recycled. The destination encourages tourism-related enterprises to adopt waste reduction strategies.

D11 Light and noise pollution
The destination has guidelines and regulations to minimise noise, light, and visual pollution. The destination encourages tourism-related enterprises to follow these guidelines and regulations.

D12 Low impact transport
The destination has a system to increase the use of low-impact transport, including public transport, in the destination.

GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM CRITERIA FOR HOTELS AND TOUR OPERATORS

Section A: Demonstrate effective sustainable management

A1 The organisation has implemented a long-term sustainability management system that is suitable to its reality and scope, and which addresses environmental, social, cultural, economic, quality, health and safety issues.

A2 The organisation is in compliance with all applicable local to international legislation and regulations (including, among others, health, safety, labor and environmental aspects).

A3 All personnel receive periodic guidance and training regarding their roles and responsibilities with respect to environmental, social, cultural, economic, quality, health and safety issues.

A4 Customer satisfaction, including sustainability aspects, is measured and corrective action taken.

A5 Promotional materials are accurate and complete with regard to the organisation and its products and services, including sustainability claims. They do not promise more than is being delivered.

Section A: Demonstrate effective sustainable management

A6 Planning, design, construction, renovation, operation and demolition of buildings and infrastructure

A6.1 Comply with zoning requirements and with laws related to protected areas and heritage consideration.

A6.2 Respect for the natural and cultural heritage surroundings in planning, siting, design and impact assessment.

A6.3 Use locally appropriate sustainable practices and materials.

A6.4 Provide access for persons with special needs, where appropriate.

A7 Land and water rights, and property acquisition are legal, comply with local communal and indigenous rights, including their free, prior and informed consent, and do not require involuntary resettlement.

A8 Information about and interpretation of the natural surroundings, local culture, and cultural heritage is provided to customers, as well as explaining appropriate behaviour while visiting natural areas, living cultures, and cultural heritage sites.

Section B: Maximise social and economic benefits to the host community and minimise negative impacts

B1 The organisation actively supports initiatives for local infrastructure and social community development including, among others, education, training, health and sanitation.

B2 Local residents are given equal opportunity for employment including in management positions. All employees are equally offered regular training, experience and opportunities for advancement.

B3 Local services and goods are purchased and offered by the organisation, following fair-trade principles.

B4 The organisation offers the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history and culture (including food and beverages, crafts, performance arts, agricultural products, etc.).

B5 A documented code of conduct for activities in indigenous and local communities has been developed and implemented with the collaboration and consent of the affected community.

B6 The organisation has implemented a policy against commercial, sexual or any other form of exploitation and harassment, particularly of children, adolescents, women and minorities.

B7 The organisation offers equal employment opportunities to women, local minorities and others, including in management positions, while restraining child labour.

B8 The international or national legal protection of employees is respected, and employees are paid at least a living wage.

B9 The activities of the organisation do not jeopardise the provision of basic services, such as food, water, energy, healthcare or sanitation, to neighbouring communities.

B10 Tourism activity does not adversely affect local access to livelihoods, including land and aquatic resource use, rights-of-way, transport and housing.

Section C: Maximise benefits to cultural heritage and minimise negative impacts

C1 The organisation follows established guidelines or a code of behaviour for visits to culturally or historically sensitive sites, in order to minimise negative visitor impact and maximise enjoyment.

C2 Historical and archaeological artifacts are not sold, traded or displayed, except as permitted by local to international law.

C3 The organisation contributes to the protection and preservation of local historical, archaeological, culturally and spiritually important properties and sites, and does not impede access to them by local residents.

C4 The organisation incorporates elements of local art, architecture, or cultural heritage in its operations, design, decoration, food, or shops; while respecting the intellectual property rights of local communities.

GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM CRITERIA FOR HOTELS AND TOUR OPERATORS (*continued*)

Section D: Maximise benefits to the environment and minimise negative impacts

D1 Conserving resources

D1.1 Purchasing policies favour locally appropriate and ecologically sustainable products, including building materials, capital goods, food, beverages and consumables.

D1.2 The purchase and use of disposable and consumable goods is measured and the organisation actively seeks ways to reduce their use.

D1.3 Energy consumption is measured, sources are indicated, and measures are adopted to minimise overall consumption, and encourage the use of renewable energy.

D1.4 Water consumption is measured, sources are indicated, and measures are adopted to minimise overall consumption. Water sourcing is sustainable, and does not adversely affect environmental flows.

D2 Reducing pollution

D2.1 Greenhouse gas emissions from all sources controlled by the organisation are measured, procedures are implemented to minimise them, and offsetting remaining emissions is encouraged.

D2.2 The organisation encourages its customers, staff and suppliers to reduce transportation-related greenhouse gas emissions.

D2.3 Wastewater, including grey water, is effectively treated and is only reused or released safely, with no adverse effects to the local population and the environment.

D2.4 Waste is measured, mechanisms are in place to reduce waste, and where reduction is not feasible, to re-use or recycle it. Any residual waste disposal has no adverse effect on the local population and the environment.

D2.5 The use of harmful substances, including pesticides, paints, swimming pool disinfectants, and cleaning materials, is minimised, and substituted when available, by innocuous products or processes. All storage, use, handling, and disposal of chemicals are properly managed.

D2.6 The organisation implements practices to minimise pollution from noise, light, runoff, erosion, ozone-depleting compounds, and air, water and soil contaminants.

D3 Conserving biodiversity, ecosystems, and landscapes

D3.1 Wildlife species are not harvested, consumed, displayed, sold, or traded, except as part of a regulated activity that ensures that their utilisation is sustainable, and in compliance with local to international laws.

D3.2 No captive wildlife is held, except for properly regulated activities, in compliance with local to international law. Living specimens of protected and wildlife species are only kept by those authorised and suitably equipped to house and care for them humanely.

D3.3 The organisation takes measures to avoid the introduction of invasive alien species. Native species are used for landscaping and restoration wherever feasible, particularly in natural landscapes.

D3.4 The organisation supports and contributes to biodiversity conservation, including natural protected areas and areas of high biodiversity value.

D3.5 Interactions with wildlife, taking into account cumulative impacts, do not produce adverse effects on the viability and behaviour of populations in the wild. Any disturbance of natural ecosystems is minimised, rehabilitated, and there is a compensatory contribution to conservation management.

Sources: Global Sustainable Tourism Council 2013. 'Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria for Hotels and Tour Operators'. www.gstcouncil.org; Global Sustainable Tourism Council 2013. 'Global Sustainable Tourism Destination Criteria'. www.gstcouncil.org.

GLOSSARY

3S tourism a tourism product based on the provision of sea, sand and sun; that is, focusing on beach resorts. (p. 85)

8P model a product-focused marketing mix model that incorporates place, product, people, price, packaging, programming, promotion and partnerships. (p. 207)

Academic discipline a systematic field of study that is informed by a particular set of theories and methodologies in its attempt to reveal and expand relevant knowledge; e.g. psychology examines individual behaviour, while geography examines spatial patterns and relationships. (p. 7)

Accommodation within the context of the tourism industry, commercial facilities primarily intended to host stayover tourists for overnight stays. (p. 144)

Accreditation the process by which the ecolabel is determined by an overarching organisation to meet specified standards of quality and credibility. (p. 334)

Adaptancy platform a follow-up on the cautionary platform that argues for alternative forms of tourism deemed to be better adapted to local communities than mass tourism. (p. 10)

Advanced economies a designation by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) of countries that are characterised by a high level of economic development and accompanying social indicators; these countries continue to account for most outbound and inbound international tourism activity. (p. 84)

Advocacy platform the view that tourism is an inherent benefit to communities that should be developed under free market principles. (p. 9)

Allocentrics according to Plog's typology, 'other-centred' tourists who enjoy exposing themselves to other cultures and new experiences, and are willing to take risks in this process. (p. 173)

Alternative tourism the major contribution of the adaptancy platform, alternative tourism as an ideal type is characterised by its contrast with mass tourism. (p. 335)

Amenity migrants people who move to an area because of its recreational and lifestyle amenities, including comfortable weather and beautiful scenery; amenity migrants are usually first exposed to such places through their own tourist experiences. (p. 273)

Applied research research that addresses some particular problem or attempts to achieve a particular set of outcomes; it is usually constrained by set time schedules. (p. 358)

Asian Century the projected economic and cultural dominance of Asia during the twenty-first century, including its status as a major destination region and source of outbound tourists. (p. 2)

Attraction attributes characteristics of an attraction that are relevant to the management of an area as a tourist destination and thus should be periodically measured and monitored; includes ownership, orientation, spatial configuration, authenticity, scarcity, status, carrying capacity, accessibility, market and image. (p. 136)

Attraction inventory a systematic list of the tourist attractions found in a particular destination. (p. 118)

Autoethnography a form of qualitative research in which the researcher positions herself or himself as a subject of investigation. (p. 360)

Avalanche effect the process whereby a small incremental change in a system triggers a disproportionate and usually unexpected response. (p. 326)

Aviation biofuel renewable plant or animal-based aircraft fuels; these are being more commonly used in commercial aviation, and mostly at present to supplement conventional fossil fuel loads. (p. 331)

Baby boomers people born during the post–World War II period of high TFRs (roughly 1946 to 1964), who constitute a noticeable bulge within the population pyramid of Australia and other Phase Four countries. (p. 69)

Backstage the opposite of frontstage; areas of the destination where personal or intragroup activities occur, such as noncommercialised cultural performances. A particular space may be designated as either frontstage or backstage depending on the time of day or year. (p. 258)

Backward linkages sectors of an economy that provide goods and services for the tourism sector; includes agriculture, fisheries and construction. (p. 234)

Basic research research that is broadly focused on the revelation of new knowledge, and is not directed towards specific outcomes or problems. (p. 356)

Basic whole tourism system an application of a systems approach to tourism, wherein tourism is seen as consisting of three geographical components (origin, transit and destination regions), tourists and a tourism industry, embedded within a modifying external environment that includes parallel political, social, physical and other systems. (p. 20)

Behavioural segmentation the identification of tourist markets on the basis of activities and actions undertaken during the actual tourism experience. (p. 176)

Benchmark an indicator value, often based on some past desirable state, against which subsequent change in that indicator can be gauged. (p. 326)

BRICS countries Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa, which account for 40 per cent of the world's population and are expected to achieve Burton's Phase Four status within two decades. (p. 62)

Broad context model of destination development scenarios a framework for modelling the evolution of tourist destinations, which takes into account scale and sustainability-related regulations; various transformations are possible among four ideal tourism types CAT, DAT, UMT (unsustainable mass tourism) and SMT (sustainable mass tourism). (p. 343)

Butler sequence the most widely cited and applied destination cycle model, which proposes five stages of cyclical evolution described by an S-shaped curve; these might then be followed by three other possible scenarios. (p. 287)

Carrying capacity the amount of tourism activity (e.g. number of visitors, amount of development) that can be accommodated without incurring serious harm to a destination; distinctions can be made between social, cultural and environmental carrying capacity, all of which can be adjusted with appropriate management. (p. 262)

Cautionary platform a reaction to the advocacy platform that stresses the negative impacts of tourism and the consequent need for strict regulation. (p. 10)

Certification the outcome of a process in which an independent third party verifies that a product or company meets specified standards, allowing it to be certified by the ecolabel. (p. 334)

Circumstantial alternative tourism (CAT) alternative tourism that results by default from the fact that the destination is currently situated within the early, low-intensity stages of the resort cycle. (p. 335)

Climate change the gradual increase in global surface temperatures that is usually attributed to the excessive release of heat-trapping greenhouse gases through human activity such as the burning of fossil fuels; human responses are usually divided into distinctive adaptation and mitigation categories. (p. 272)

Codes of practice commonly developed and espoused by tourism corporations and industry associations, these are intended to provide general guidelines for achieving sustainability-related outcomes. (p. 332)

Commodification in tourism, the process whereby a destination's culture is gradually converted into a saleable commodity or product in response to the perceived or actual demands of the tourist market. (p. 257)

Condensed development sequence the process whereby societies undergo the transition to a Phase Four state within an increasingly reduced period of time. (p. 73)

Consolidation as local carrying capacities are exceeded, the rate of growth declines; the destination is now almost wholly dominated by tourism. (p. 292)

Contagious diffusion spread occurs as a function of spatial proximity; the closer a site is to the place of the innovation's origin, the sooner it is likely to be exposed to that phenomenon. (p. 305)

Contemporary heritage structures and other sites from the latter half of the twentieth century that are deemed to be important as heritage sites; especially relevant to tourism cities that lack connections with a deeper history. (p. 129)

Corporate social responsibility the concept that corporations have a moral duty to operate in a socially and environmentally responsible way; it is increasingly recognised as a business imperative that combines elements of the green (i.e. 'social responsibility') and dominant Western environmental ('corporate') paradigms. (p. 321)

Cross-sectional research a 'snapshot' approach to research that considers one or more sites at one particular point in time. (p. 358)

Crusades a series of campaigns to 'liberate' Jerusalem and the Holy Land from Muslim control. While not a form of tourism as such, the Crusades helped to re-open Europe to the outside world and spawn an incipient travel industry. (p. 55)

Culinary tourism tourism that involves the consumption of usually locally produced food and drink. (p. 130)

Cultural events attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more locations, and are more constructed than natural; these include historical commemorations and re-creations, world fairs, sporting events and festivals. (p. 133)

Cultural sites geographically fixed attractions that are more constructed than natural; these can be classified into prehistorical, historical, contemporary, economic, specialised recreational and retail subcategories. (p. 126)

Dark Ages the period from about AD 500 to 1100, characterised by a serious deterioration in social, economic and political conditions within Europe. (p. 54)

Dark tourism tourism involving sites or events associated with death or suffering, including battlefields and sites of mass killings or assassinations. (p. 127)

Data analysis the process by which the collected information is examined and assessed to identify patterns that address the research questions. (p. 374)

Data collection the gathering of relevant information by way of the techniques identified in the research methodology stage. (p. 373)

Data interpretation the stage during which meaning is extracted from the data. (p. 376)

Data presentation the stage during which the results of the analysis are communicated to the target audience. (p. 375)

Decline the scenario of declining visitor intake that is likely to ensue if no measures are taken to arrest the process of product deterioration and resident/tourist discontent. (p. 293)

Decommissioning the process whereby vendors of travel products (e.g. airlines, cruise lines) no longer provide a monetary or other commission to an intermediary such as a travel agency in exchange for the sale of their products to consumers. (p. 140)

Deduction an approach in basic research that begins with a basic theory that is applied to a set of data to see whether the theory is applicable or not. (p. 357)

Deliberate alternative tourism (DAT) alternative tourism that is deliberately maintained as such through the implementation of an enabling regulatory environment. (p. 335)

Demarketing the process of discouraging all or certain tourists from visiting a particular destination temporarily or permanently. (p. 198)

Demographic transition model (DTM) an idealised depiction of the process whereby societies evolve from a high fertility/high mortality structure to a low fertility/low mortality structure. This evolution usually parallels the development of a society from a Phase One to a Phase Four profile, as occurred during the Industrial Revolution. A fifth stage may now be emerging, characterised by extremely low birth rates and resultant net population loss. (p. 68)

Demonstration effect the tendency of a population, or some portion thereof, to imitate the consumption patterns and other behaviours of another group; this can result in increased importation of goods and services to meet these changing consumer demands. (p. 238)

Destination branding the process of fostering a distinctive and integrated image about a destination that represents that destination to one or more target markets; usually undertaken by a destination tourism organisation. (p. 201)

Destination community the residents of the destination region. (p. 39)

Destination cycle the theory that tourism-oriented places experience a repeated sequential process of birth, growth, maturation, and then possibly something similar to death, in their evolution as destinations. (p. 286)

Destination government the government of the destination region. (p. 39)

Destination region the places to which the tourist is travelling. (p. 37)

Destination tourism authority (DTA) the government agency responsible for broad tourism policy and planning within a destination entity. (p. 204)

Destination tourism organisations (DTOs) publicly funded government agencies that undertake promotion and other forms of marketing; these are distinct from the government departments or bodies, or government tourism authorities, that dictate tourism-related policy. (p. 200)

Development the accelerated growth of tourism within a relatively short period of time, as this sector becomes a dominant feature of the destination economy and landscape. (p. 291)

Direct (or primary) impact expenditure or direct revenue obtained from tourists. (p. 232)

Direct financial costs direct expenses that are necessarily incurred to sustain the tourism sector; within the public sector, typical areas of outlay include administration and bureaucracy, marketing, research and direct incentives. (p. 237)

Direct revenue money that is obtained directly from tourists through advance or immediate expenditures in the destination and associated taxes. (p. 226)

Discretionary income the amount of income that remains after household necessities such as food, housing, clothing, education and transportation have been purchased. (p. 51)

Discretionary time normally defined as time not spent at work, or in normal rest and bodily maintenance. (p. 51)

Disintermediation the removal of intermediaries such as travel agents from the product/consumer connection. (p. 140)

Distance–decay in tourism, the tendency of inbound flows to decline as origin regions become more distant from the destination. (p. 88)

Domestic excursionists tourists who stay within their own country for less than one night. (p. 30)

Domestic stayovers tourists who stay within their own country for at least one night. (p. 30)

Domestic tourist a tourist whose itinerary is confined to their usual country of residence. (p. 23)

Dominant Western environmental paradigm the scientific paradigm as applied to environmental and related issues, holding the anthropocentric view that humankind is at the centre of all things, and constitutes the primary focus of reference in all relationships with the natural environment; humans are seen as being superior to nature, which exists only for their benefit. (p. 319)

Double-blind peer review a procedure that attempts to maintain objectivity in the manuscript refereeing process by ensuring that the author and reviewers do not know each other's identity. (p. 8)

Early modern tourism the transitional era between premodern tourism (about AD 1500) and modern mass tourism (since 1950). (p. 55)

Earned time a time management option in which an individual is no longer obligated to work once a particular quota is attained over a defined period of time (often monthly or annual). (p. 64)

Ecolabels mechanisms that certify products or companies that meet specified standards of practice. (p. 334)

Ecolodges typically upscale and environmentally-friendly accommodations which cater to ecotourists wanting convenient access to nearby national parks or other protected areas. (p. 144)

Ecological footprint (EF) the measurement of the resources that are required and wastes generated in sustaining a particular type of tourist or tourism activity. (p. 274)

Ecotourism a form of alternative tourism (and potentially mass tourism) that places primary emphasis on a sustainable, learning-based interaction with the natural environment or some constituent element. (p. 339)

Emerging economies a designation by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) of countries that are characterised by a lower level of economic development and accompanying social indicators; cumulatively, these countries are accounting for a growing share of outbound and inbound international tourism activity. (p. 84)

Emoscape an 'emotional landscape' a graphic that depicts the patterns of emotional response that arise from a focus issue or incident; it is extremely useful for gauging the reactions of residents or visitors to tourism-related phenomena. (p. 325)

Emotional labour a characteristic of services marketing, involving the expression of the willingness to be of service to customers, as through demonstrations of assurance, responsiveness and empathy. (p. 191)

Enclave resort a self-contained resort complex; enclave resorts are associated with high revenue leakages because of their propensity to encourage internal spending on imported goods. (p. 238)

Enclave tourism a mode of tourism characterised by external domination and weak linkages with the local economy. (p. 238)

Environmental impact sequence a four-stage model formulated by the OECD to account for the impacts of tourism on the natural environment. (p. 269)

Environmental responses the way that the environment reacts to the stresses, both in the short and long term, and both directly and indirectly. (p. 269)

Environmental stresses the deliberate changes in the environment that are entailed in the stressor activities. (p. 269)

Ephemeral attraction an attraction, such as a wildflower display or rarely filled lakebed, that occurs over a brief period of time or on rare occasions only. (p. 126)

e-WOM electronic word-of-mouth communication disseminated through blogs and other forms of social media. (p. 213)

Excursionist a tourist who spends less than one night in a destination region. (p. 26)

Exploration the earliest stage in the Butler sequence, characterised by few tourist arrivals and little impact associated with tourism. (p. 289)

External-intentional actions deliberate actions that originate from outside the destination. (p. 304)

External-unintentional actions actions that affect the destination, but originate from outside that destination, and are not intentional; these present the greatest challenges to destination managers. (p. 303)

Family lifecycle (FLC) a sequence of stages through which the traditional nuclear family passes from early adulthood to the death of a spouse; each stage is associated with distinct patterns of tourism-related behaviour associated with changing family and financial circumstances. (p. 168)

Film-induced tourism the tourism activity that results from the publicity generated by a particular movie, benefiting mainly the settings where the movie is filmed. (p. 220)

Fixed costs costs that the operation has little flexibility to change over the short term, such as interest costs on borrowed funds and basic facility maintenance costs. (p. 193)

Flashpackers backpackers who are hyper-connected to technology during their travel, thereby creating behaviour that is substantially distinct from conventional backpackers. (p. 178)

Flexitime a time management option in which workers have some flexibility in distributing a required number of working hours (usually weekly) in a manner that suits the lifestyle and productivity of the individual worker. (p. 64)

Formal sector the portion of a society's economy that is subject to official systems of regulation and remuneration; formal sector businesses provide regular wage or salaried employment, and are subject to taxation by various levels of government; the formal sector dominates Phase Four societies. (p. 235)

Freedoms of the air eight privileges, put in place through bilateral agreements, that govern the global airline industry. (p. 141)

Frontstage explicitly or tacitly recognised spaces within the destination that are mobilised for tourism purposes such as commodified cultural performances. (p. 258)

Functional adaptation the use of a structure for a purpose other than its original intent, represented in tourism by canals used by pleasure boaters and old homes converted into bed and breakfasts. (p. 131)

Gender segmentation the grouping of individuals into male and female categories, or according to sexual orientation. (p. 166)

Generation Y also known as Gen Y or the Millennials; the population cohort following Generation X that was born between the early 1980s and early 2000s. (p. 78)

Geographic segmentation market segmentation carried out on the basis of the market's origin region; can be carried out at various scales, including region (e.g. Asia), country (Germany), subnational unit (California, Queensland), or urban/rural. (p. 164)

Geopolitical sustainability the viability of countries and of relationships between countries; in tourism this can be facilitated by constructive bilateral tourist movements. (p. 324)

GIS (geographic information systems) sophisticated computer software programs that facilitate the assembly, storage, manipulation, analysis and display of spatially referenced information. (p. 164)

Global inequality in tourism a fundamental distinction pertaining to the relative spatial distribution of tourism at a global level. (p. 84)

Globalisation the process whereby the operation of businesses and the movement of capital is increasingly less impeded by national boundaries, and is reflected in a general trend towards industry consolidation, deregulation and privatisation. (p. 147)

Golden Weeks two one-week periods of annual holiday in China, focused around Chinese New Year and National Day, and characterised by extremely intensive domestic travel. (p. 34)

Golfscapes cultural landscapes that are dominated by golf courses and affiliated developments. (p. 131)

Grand Tour a form of early modern tourism that involved a lengthy trip to the major cities of France and Italy by young adults of the leisure class, for purposes of education and culture. (p. 55)

Green consumerism the proclivity to purchase goods and services that are deemed to be environmentally and socially sustainable; situates along a spectrum from 'true' green to 'veneer' green attitudes and behaviour. (p. 329)

Green paradigm an emerging ecocentric worldview that is challenging the basic assumptions of the dominant Western environmental paradigm and accounting for its related anomalies and contradictions. (p. 321)

Green traveller an emerging market niche that is highly discerning and critical in ensuring that its travel behaviour does not negatively affect destinations; similar to Plog's allocentric tourist. (p. 329)

Greenwashing the process of conveying an impression of environmental responsibility that is not actually deserved; often associated with the misuse of terms such as 'sustainable tourism' and 'ecotourism'. (p. 322)

Grey nomads older adults who spend a substantial portion of their time during their retirement travelling in caravans to various recreational destinations. (p. 143)

Gross national happiness (GNH) an index used officially by the government of Bhutan to measure development, based on principles of equity, environmental sustainability, cultural preservation and good governance. (p. 256)

Growth pole strategy a strategy that uses tourism to stimulate economic development in a suitably located area (or growth pole), so that this growth will eventually become self-sustaining. (p. 235)

Hard ecotourism a form of ecotourism that stresses an intensive, specialised and prolonged interaction with nature in a relatively undisturbed natural environment with few available amenities; a form of alternative tourism. (p. 340)

Hierarchical diffusion spread occurs through an urban or other hierarchy, usually from the largest to the smallest centres, independent of where these centres are located. (p. 304)

Horizontal integration occurs when firms attain a higher level of consolidation or control within their own sector. (p. 146)

Hotels the most conventional type of tourist accommodation; can be subcategorised into city, convention, airport, resort and apartment hotels, and motels. (p. 144)

Human responses the reactions of individuals, communities, the tourism industry, tourists, NGOs and governments to the various environmental responses. (p. 269)

Hyperdestinations destinations where the annual intake of visitors dramatically outnumbers the permanent resident population; often characteristic of tourist shopping villages. (p. 106)

Hypotheses tentative informed statements about the nature of reality that can be subsequently verified or rejected through systematic deductive research. (p. 358)

Iconic attraction an attraction that is well-known and closely associated with a particular destination, such as Mt Fuji (Japan) or the Statue of Liberty (United States). (p. 138)

Ideal type an idealised model of some phenomenon or process against which real-life situations can be measured and compared. (p. 301)

Image in tourism, the sum of the beliefs, attitudes and impressions that individuals or groups hold towards tourist destinations or aspects of destinations. Destination image is a critical factor in attracting or repelling visitors. (p. 95)

Inbound tour operators tour operators that coordinate and manage the component of the package tour within the destination, in cooperation with a partner outbound tour operator. (p. 145)

Inbound tourists international tourists arriving from another country. (p. 25)

Incremental access a policy, practised most notably in China, whereby new destinations within a country are gradually opened up to international (and possibly domestic) tourists. (p. 99)

Indicators variables or parameters that provide information about some phenomenon in order to facilitate its management in a desirable way. (p. 323)

Indigenous theories theories that arise out of a particular field of study or discipline. (p. 7)

Indirect financial costs costs that do not entail a direct outlay of funds, but indicate lost revenue. (p. 238)

Indirect impacts revenues that are used by tourism businesses and their suppliers to purchase goods and services. (p. 232)

Indirect revenues revenue obtained through the circulation of direct tourist expenditures within a destination. (p. 232)

Induced impacts revenue circulation that results from the use of wages in tourism businesses and their suppliers to purchase goods and services. (p. 233)

Induction an approach in basic research whereby the observation and analysis of data leads to the formulation of theories or models that link these observations in a meaningful way. (p. 357)

Industrial Revolution a process that occurred in England from the mid-1700s to the mid-1900s (and spread outwards to other countries), in which society was transformed from an agrarian to an industrial base, thereby spawning conditions that were conducive to the growth of tourism-related activity. (p. 56)

Informal sector the portion of a society's economy that is external to the official systems of regulation and remuneration; dominant in many parts of the less developed world, informal sector businesses are characterised by small size, the absence of regular working hours or wage payments, family ownership and a lack of any regulating quality control. (p. 236)

Inseparability a characteristic of services marketing, where production and consumption of tourist services occur at the same time and place and are thus inseparable. (p. 191)

Intangibility a characteristic of services marketing, where the actual tourism service cannot be seen, touched or tried before its purchase and consumption. (p. 191)

Interdisciplinary approach involves the input of a variety of disciplines, with fusion and synthesis occurring among these different perspectives. (p. 7)

Internal-intentional actions deliberate actions that originate from within the destination itself; the best case scenario for destinations in terms of control and management. (p. 302)

Internal-unintentional actions actions that originate from within the destination, but are not deliberate. (p. 304)

International excursionists tourists who stay less than one night in another country. (p. 30)

International stayovers tourists who stay at least one night in another country. (p. 30)

International tourism receipts all consumption expenditure, or payments for goods and services, made by international tourists (stayovers and excursionists) to use themselves or to give away. (p. 226)

International tourist a tourist who travels beyond their usual country of residence. (p. 23)

Intervening opportunities places, often within transit regions, that develop as tourist destinations in their own right and subsequently have the potential to divert tourists from previously patronised destinations. (p. 36)

Involvement the second stage in the Butler sequence, where the local community responds to the opportunities created by tourism by offering specialised services; associated with a gradual increase in visitor numbers. (p. 290)

Knowledge-based platform the most recent dominant perspective in tourism studies, arising from the sustainability discourse and emphasising ideological neutrality and the application of rigorous scientific methods to generate knowledge so that communities can decide whether large-or small-scale tourism is most appropriate. (p. 10)

Last chance tourism tourism activity and phenomena associated with people who want to visit a destination before the attraction disappears; associated with the loss of habitat, especially in coastal areas, due to climate change. (p. 294)

Leisure class in premodern tourism, that small portion of the population that had sufficient discretionary time and income to engage in leisure pursuits such as tourism. (p. 51)

Literary tourism any kind of tourism that is focused on a particular author, group of authors, or literary school; commonly regarded as a type of cultural tourism. (p. 312)

Literary village a small settlement, usually rural, where tourism development is focused on some element of literary tourism. (p. 312)

Long-haul tourists variably defined as tourists taking trips outside of the world region where they reside, or beyond a given number of flying time hours. (p. 25)

Longitudinal research a trends-oriented approach to research, which examines one or more sites at two or more points in time or, more rarely, on a continuous basis. (p. 359)

Low-cost carriers airlines that compete with traditional carriers by offering substantially lower fares but also a 'bare bones' selection of services; usually associated with short-haul routes and internet bookings. (p. 143)

Loyalty the extent to which a product, such as a destination, is perceived in a positive way and repeatedly purchased by the consumer. (p. 179)

Market failure the failure of market forces to produce a longer-term equilibrium in supply and demand, such as when individual businesses in the tourism industry are unwilling to provide the funds for destination promotion (to increase demand) because such investment will provide benefits to their competitors as well as to themselves. (p. 200)

Market segmentation the division of the tourist market into more or less homogenous subgroups, or tourist market segments, based on certain common characteristics and/or behavioural patterns. (p. 160)

Market segments portions of the tourist market that are more or less distinct in their characteristics and/or behaviour. (p. 160)

Marketing the interactions and interrelationships that occur among consumers and producers of goods and services, through which ideas, products, services and values are created and exchanged for the mutual benefit of both groups. (p. 190)

Marketing mix the critical components that determine the demand for a business or destination product. (p. 207)

Markets of one an extreme form of market segmentation, in which individual consumers are recognised as distinct market segments. (p. 161)

Matrix model of cycle trigger factors an eight-cell model that classifies the various actions that induce change in the evolution of tourism in a destination. Each of the following categories can be further divided into tourism stimulants and depressants. (p. 302)

Medical tourism travel for the purpose of obtaining medical treatment that is unavailable or too expensive in the participant's region of origin. (p. 29)

Mesopotamia the region approximately occupied by present-day Iraq, where the earliest impulses of civilisation first emerged, presumably along with the first tourism activity. (p. 50)

MICE an acronym combining meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions; a form of tourism largely associated with business purposes. (p. 28)

Midcentrics 'average' tourists whose personality type is a compromise between allocentric and psychocentric traits. (p. 173)

Middle Ages the period from about AD 1100 to the Renaissance (about AD 1500), characterised by an improvement in the social, economic and political situation, in comparison with the Dark Ages. (p. 54)

Modern mass tourism (Contemporary tourism) the period from 1950 to the present day, characterised by the rapid expansion of international and domestic tourism. (p. 59)

Motivation the intrinsic reasons why the individual is embarking on a particular trip. (p. 175)

Multidisciplinary approach involves the input of a variety of disciplines, but without any significant interaction or synthesis of these different perspectives. (p. 7)

Multilevel segmentation a refinement of simple market segmentation that further differentiates basic level segments. (p. 160)

Multiplier effect a measure of the subsequent income generated in a destination's economy by direct tourist expenditure. (p. 232)

Multipurpose travel travel undertaken for more than a single purpose. (p. 29)

Natural events attractions that occur over a fixed period of time in one or more locations, and are more natural than constructed. (p. 126)

Natural sites geographically fixed attractions that are more natural than constructed; these can be subdivided into topography (physical features), climate, hydrology (water resources), wildlife, vegetation and location. (p. 118)

Netnography a type of ethnographic research that analyses the voices that are voluntarily expressed through internet-based social media. (p. 325)

Niche markets highly specialised market segments. (p. 161)

North–south flow a common term used to describe the dominant pattern of international tourist traffic from the advanced economies (located mainly in the northern latitudes, except for Australia and New Zealand) to the emerging economies (located mainly to the south of the advanced economies). (p. 86)

Olympic Games the most important of the ancient Greek art and athletics festivals, held every four years at Olympia. The ancient Olympic Games are one of the most important examples of premodern tourism. (p. 52)

Opportunity cost the idea that the use of a resource for some activity (e.g. tourism) precludes its use for some other activity that may yield a better financial return (e.g. agriculture). (p. 243)

Origin community the residents of the origin region. (p. 33)

Origin government the government of the origin region. (p. 34)

Origin region the region (e.g. country, state, city) from which the tourist originates, also referred to as the market or generating region. (p. 32)

Outbound tour operators tour operators based in origin regions that organise and market volume-driven package tours that include transportation, accommodation, visits to attractions and other items of interest to tourists. (p. 145)

Outbound tourists international tourists departing from their usual country of residence. (p. 25)

Package tour a pre-paid travel package that usually includes transportation, accommodation, food and other services. (p. 58)

Paradigm the entire constellation of beliefs, assumptions and values that underlie the way that a society interprets the nature of reality. (p. 318)

Paradigm nudge the opportunistic adaptation of an existing dominant paradigm to changing conditions; evident in the selective adoption of 'green' practices within the conventional tourism industry. (p. 332)

Paradigm shift the replacement of one paradigm with another when the formerly dominant paradigm can no longer adequately account for various contradictions and anomalies. (p. 318)

Paradox of resentment the idea that problems of resentment and tension can result whether tourists are integrated with, or isolated from, the local community. (p. 264)

Perishability a services marketing characteristic; because production and consumption are simultaneous, services cannot be produced and stored in advance for future consumption (e.g. empty aircraft seats are a permanent loss that cannot be recouped). (p. 193)

Pilgrimage generic term for travel undertaken for religious purpose. Pilgrimages have declined in importance during the modern era compared with recreational, business and social tourism. (p. 54)

Pink dollar the purchasing power of gay and lesbian consumers, recognised to be much higher than the average purchasing power (sometimes used to describe the purchasing power of women). (p. 167)

'Play in order to work' philosophy an industrial-era ethic, which holds that leisure time and activities are necessary in order to make workers more productive, thereby reinforcing the work-focused nature of society. (p. 63)

Pleasure periphery those less economically developed regions of the globe that are being increasingly mobilised to provide 3S and alpine tourism products. (p. 85)

Political accessibility the extent to which visitors are allowed entry into a destination by a governing authority. (p. 90)

Post-Cook period the time from about 1880 to 1950, characterised by the rapid growth of domestic tourism within the wealthier countries, but less rapid expansion in international tourism. (p. 59)

Postdisciplinary approach advocates moving beyond the theoretical and methodological constraints of specific disciplines so that tourism studies are free to address critical issues in the most appropriate ways. (p. 7)

Premodern tourism describes the era of tourism activity from the beginning of civilisation to the end of the Middle Ages. (p. 50)

Primary research research that involves the collection of original data by the researcher. (p. 363)

Problem recognition the first stage of the research process, which is the identification of a broad problem arena that requires investigation. (p. 369)

Propulsive activity an economic activity that is suited to a particular area and thus facilitates the growth pole strategy; in the case of Cancún and other subtropical or tropical coastal regions 3S tourism is an effective propulsive activity. (p. 235)

Psychocentrics 'self-centred' tourists who prefer familiar and risk-averse experiences. (p. 173)

Psychographic segmentation the differentiation of the tourist market on the basis of psychological and motivational characteristics such as personality, motivations and needs. (p. 172)

Pull factors that help to stimulate a tourism product by 'pulling' consumers towards particular destinations. (p. 88)

Push factors economic, social, demographic, technological and political forces that stimulate a demand for tourism activity by 'pushing' consumers away from their usual place of residence. (p. 61)

Qualitative research research that does not place its emphasis on the collection and analysis of statistical data, and usually tends to obtain in-depth insight into a relatively small number of respondents or observations. (p. 360)

Quality control mechanisms (quality assurance mechanisms) mechanisms that provide some degree of assurance to consumers, government or others that a particular operation, product or destination follows standards associated with sustainable tourism. (p. 332)

Quantitative research research that is based mainly on the collection and analysis of statistical data, and hence tends to obtain a limited amount of information on a large number of respondents or observations; these results are then extrapolated to the wider population of the subject matter. (p. 360)

Question formulation the posing of specific questions or hypotheses that serve to focus the research agenda arising from problem recognition; these questions can be descriptive, explanatory, predictive or prescriptive in nature. (p. 370)

Refereed academic journals publications that are considered to showcase a discipline by merit of the fact that they are subject to a rigorous process of double-blind peer review. (p. 8)

Rejuvenation the scenario of a renewed development-like growth that occurs if steps are taken to revitalise the tourism product offered by the destination. (p. 295)

Renaissance the 'rebirth' of Europe following the Dark Ages, commencing in Italy during the mid-1400s and spreading to Germany and the 'low countries' by the early 1600s. (p. 55)

Research a systematic search for knowledge. (p. 356)

Research methodology a set of assumptions, procedures and methods that are used to carry out a search for knowledge within a particular type of research. (p. 356)

Research methods the techniques that will be used to answer the questions or prove or disprove the hypotheses. (p. 372)

Research process the sequence of stages that are followed to carry out a research project from its origins to its conclusions. (p. 369)

Resilience a system's capacity to maintain and adjust its essential structure and functions in the face of a disturbance, especially with regard to major natural and human-induced disasters; its particular relevance to tourism derives from the industry's presence in vulnerable settings such as coastlines and mountains. (p. 21)

Resorts facilities or urban areas that are specialised in the provision of recreational tourism opportunities. (p. 52)

Revenue leakages a major category of indirect financial costs, entailing erosion in the multiplier effect due to the importation of goods and services that are required by tourists or the tourist industry, through factor payments abroad such as repatriated profits, and through imports required for government expenditure on tourism-related infrastructure such as airports, road and port equipment. (p. 238)

RFID (Radio Frequency IDentification) miniature devices that allow tracking of a good or person; tourism applications include tracking of travellers and their expenditures. (p. 228)

Rifle marketing a mode of promotional advertising that is aimed just at the target market. (p. 213)

Roots tourism when persons of a particular ethnic group travel to their ancestral ethnic homeland as cultural or heritage tourists; also called 'genealogy tourism'. (p. 197)

Scientific paradigm the currently dominant paradigm, which holds that reality is reducible and deterministic and can be understood through the application of the 'scientific method'. (p. 319)

Seaside resorts a type of resort located on coastlines to take advantage of sea bathing for health and, later, recreational purposes; many of these were established during the Industrial Revolution for both the leisure and working classes. (p. 56)

Secondary (or 'flow-on') impacts the indirect and induced stages of money circulation in the multiplier effect that follows the actual tourist expenditure. (p. 233)

Secondary research research in which the investigator uses previously collected data. (p. 363)

Secular pilgrimage travel for spiritual purposes that are not linked to conventional religions. (p. 28)

Sense of place the combination of natural and cultural characteristics that makes a destination unique in comparison to any other destination, and thus potentially provides it with a competitive advantage. (p. 138)

Services marketing the marketing of services such as those associated with the tourism industry, as opposed to the marketing of the goods industry. (p. 190)

Short-haul tourists variably defined as tourists taking trips within the world region where they reside, or within a given number of flying time hours. (p. 25)

Shotgun marketing a mode of promotional advertising where the message is disseminated to a broad audience on the assumption that this saturation will reach target markets and perhaps attract new recruits. (p. 213)

Simple market segmentation the most basic form of market segmentation, involving the identification of a minimal number of basic market segments such as 'female' and 'male'. (p. 160)

Site hardening increasing the visitor carrying capacity of a site through structural and other changes that allow more visitors to be accommodated. (p. 139)

Slow tourism small-scale tourism that focuses on deep interaction with the authentic local culture of the destination; proposed as a more appropriate alternative to the fast-paced, homogenised, pleasure-seeking character of mass tourism. (p. 233)

Small island states or dependencies (SISODs) geopolitical entities with a population of less than three million permanent residents and a land mass of less than 28 000 km². SISODs are overrepresented as tourist destinations because of their ample 3S tourism resources. (p. 86)

Snowbirds individuals, usually from cooler climates, who spend a substantial portion of the winter in warmer climate destinations, often forming enclaves with other people from the same country or region. (p. 122)

Social exchange theory the idea that support for tourism is based on each individual's assessment of the personal and societal costs and benefits that result from this activity. (p. 266)

Social representations theory the tendency of individuals to make sense of the world around them through the shared meanings conveyed by the media, social reference groups, and personal experience. (p. 266)

Social tourism tourism that enables socially disadvantaged groups such as the poor, young, old, unemployed and those with a physical or intellectual disability to participate in holiday travel as a basic human right. (p. 65)

Sociodemographic segmentation market segmentation based on social and demographic variables such as gender, age, family lifecycle, education, occupation and income. (p. 166)

Soft ecotourism a form of ecotourism that emphasises a short-term interaction with nature as part of a multipurpose trip with ample provision for services and facilities; can exist as a form of mass tourism. (p. 341)

Soft power the projection of influence and power through subtle means such as foreign aid and cultural exports, in contrast to hard power such as military bases. (p. 129)

Space tourism an emerging form of tourism that involves travel by and confinement within aircraft or spacecraft to high altitude locations where suborbital effects such as zero-gravity or earth curvature viewing can be experienced. (p. 38)

Spas a type of resort centred on the use of geothermal waters for health purposes. (p. 56)

Spatial diffusion the process whereby some innovation or idea spreads from a point of origin to other locations; this model is more appropriate than the destination cycle to describe the development of tourism at the country level. (p. 304)

Stagnation the stage in the Butler sequence wherein visitor numbers and tourism growth stagnate due to the deterioration of the product. (p. 293)

Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) a system that uses standard alphanumeric codes to classify all types of economic activity. Tourism-related activities are distributed among at least 15 codes. (p. 6)

Stayover a tourist who spends at least one night in a destination region. (p. 26)

Stockpiler an employee who accumulates excessive leave time, thereby contributing to the financial liability of employers and underperformance of domestic tourism; estimated to account for about one-quarter of the Australian workforce. (p. 66)

Stopovers travellers who stop in a location in transit to another destination; they normally do not clear customs and are not considered tourists from the transit location's perspective. (p. 31)

Strategic marketing marketing that takes into consideration an extensive analysis of external and internal environmental factors in identifying strategies that attain specific goals. (p. 205)

Stressor activities activities that initiate the environmental impact sequence; these can be divided into permanent environmental restructuring, the generation of waste residuals, tourist activities and indirect and induced activities. (p. 269)

Strong sustainable development an approach to sustainable development that assumes relatively rigorous environmental expectations in recognition of areas, such as wilderness, that are relatively undisturbed and have a low carrying capacity. (p. 322)

Structural accessibility the extent to which a destination is physically accessible to markets by air routes, highways, ferry links etc., and through entry/exit facilities such as seaports and airports. (p. 89)

Subnational inequality the tendency of tourism within countries, states and individual cities to be spatially concentrated. (p. 104)

Sunbelt the name frequently applied to the 3S-oriented American portion of the pleasure periphery. Well-known destinations within the sunbelt include Hawaii, southern California, Las Vegas (Nevada), Arizona, Texas and Florida. (p. 85)

Sustainable development in principle, development that meets the needs of present generations while ensuring that future generations are able to meet their own needs. (p. 322)

Sustainable tourism tourism that is developed in such a way so as to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. (p. 322)

SWOT analysis an analysis of a company or destination's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats that emerges from an examination of its internal and external environment. (p. 205)

System a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting elements that together form a single functional structure. (p. 20)

Theory a model or statement that describes, explains or predicts some phenomenon. (p. 7)

Thomas Cook the entrepreneur whose company Thomas Cook & Son applied the principles of the Industrial Revolution to the tourism sector through such innovations as the package tour. (p. 58)

Threshold a critical value of indicator sustainability; when the threshold is exceeded, this indicates an unsustainable situation. (p. 326)

Timesharing an accommodation option in which a user purchases one or more intervals (or weeks) per year in a resort, usually over a long period of time. (p. 144)

Tour operators businesses providing a package of tourism-related services for the consumer, including some combination of accommodation, transportation, restaurants and attraction visits. (p. 145)

Tourism the sum of the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host

governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting, transporting, hosting and management of tourists and other visitors. (p. 2)

Tourism industries a term recommended by some over 'tourism industry', to reflect the distribution of tourism activity across a broad array of sectors. (p. 6)

Tourism industry the sum of the industrial and commercial activities that produce goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption. (pp. 40, 118)

Tourism participation sequence according to Burton, the tendency for a society to participate in tourism increases through a set of four phases that relate to the concurrent process of increased economic development. (p. 61)

Tourism platforms perspectives that have dominated the emerging field of tourism studies at various stages of its evolution; they are both sequential and cumulative. (p. 9)

Tourism product consists of tourist attractions and the tourism industry. (p. 118)

Tourism resources features of a destination that are valued as attractions by tourists at some particular point in time; a feature that was a tourism resource 100 years ago may not be perceived as such now. (p. 118)

Tourist a person who travels temporarily outside of his or her usual environment (usually defined by some distance threshold) for certain qualifying purposes. (p. 2)

Tourist attractions specific and generic features of a destination that attract tourists; some, but not all, attractions are part of the tourism industry. (p. 118)

Tourist bubble the alleged tendency of some package tourists to travel in a way that keeps them sheltered from the destination and close to the culturally familiar elements of their home culture; it is a concept that is associated with high leakage effects. (p. 244)

Tourist–historic city an urban place where the preservation of historical districts helps to sustain and is at least in part sustained by a significant level of tourist activity. (p. 255)

Tourist market the overall group of consumers that engages in some form of tourism-related travel. (p. 160)

Tourist shopping villages small towns where the downtown is dominated by tourism-related businesses such as boutiques, antique shops and cafés; they are also usually hyperdestinations. (p. 106)

Transit region the places and regions that tourists pass through as they travel from origin to destination region. (p. 35)

Transportation businesses involved in conveying tourists by air, road, rail or water. (p. 141)

Travel agencies businesses providing retail travel services to customers for commission on behalf of other tourism industry sectors. (p. 140)

Travel purpose the reason why people travel; in tourism, these involve recreation and leisure, visits to friends and relatives (VFR), business, and less dominant purposes such as study, sport, religion and health. (p. 26)

Triangulation the use of multiple methods, data sources, investigators or theories in a single research process. (p. 373)

Triple bottom line the principle in sustainable development and sustainable tourism that environmental, sociocultural and economic dimensions of sustainability must be taken concurrently into account in planning and management. (p. 323)

Ubiquitous attractions attractions that can be established almost anywhere and are usually specialised recreational facilities (e.g. golf courses, theme parks). (p. 138)

Urban–rural fringe (or exurbs) a transitional zone surrounding larger urban areas that combines urban and rural characteristics and benefits from proximity to each. (p. 106)

Variability a services marketing characteristic, where service encounters, even if they involve a similar kind of experience, are highly variable due to the differences and rapid changes in mood, expectation and other human element factors that affect the participants. (p. 192)

Variable costs costs that can be readily reduced in the short term, such as salaries of casual staff. (p. 193)

Vertical integration occurs when a corporation obtains greater control over elements of the product chain outside its own sector. (p. 147)

VFR tourism tourism based on visits to friends and relatives. (p. 27)

Virtual reality (VR) the wide-field presentation of computer-generated, multisensory information that allows the user to experience a virtual world. (p. 53)

Volunteer tourism a form of tourism involving extended visits to places where the volunteers assist with designated aid or research projects. (p. 263)

Weak sustainable development an approach to sustainable development that assumes relatively relaxed environmental expectations in recognition of areas, such as intensively developed beach resorts, that are already extensively modified and have high carrying capacities. (p. 322)

Webcasting the delivery of interactive multimedia to customers through the internet on either an 'on demand' or 'real-time' basis. (p. 213)

Winescapes a cultural landscape significantly influenced by the presence of vineyards, wineries and other features associated with viticulture and wine production; an essential element of wine-focused culinary tourism. (p. 130)

'Work in order to play' philosophy a post-industrial ethic derived from ancient Greek philosophy that holds that leisure and leisure-time activities such as tourism are important in their own right and that we work to be able to afford to engage in leisure pursuits. (p. 64)

Zero-commission tours package tour arrangements in which no commissions are paid and profits are realised through aggressive and captive sales strategies; often associated with Chinese outbound tourism. (p. 185)

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