
Contemporary tourism issues in Asia Pacific journals 1989-1996: a thematic perspective

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Reviews articles published in three Asia Pacific-based tourism journals: the *Journal of Tourism Studies*, *Tourism Recreation Research* and the *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*. Identifies five tourism themes relating to articles published over an eight year period from 1989-1996. These are: tourist markets, tourist flows, tourism development, sustainable tourism development and social, economic and cultural impacts of tourism.

Introduction

This paper reviews articles published in the three major tourism journals in the Asia Pacific region: the *Journal of Tourism Studies*, *Tourism Recreation Research* and the *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*. The review period covers eight years, from 1989 to 1996 inclusive. Articles reviewed are summarized in tabular form and grouped into five main themes: tourist markets, tourist flows, tourism development, sustainable tourism development, and social, economic and cultural impacts of tourism. A linking thematic diagram is included as Figure 1.

Theme 1: Tourist markets

While diverse in focus, the articles concerned with tourist markets reflect growing recognition of the value of VFR and domestic tourism markets, the emergence of particular niche markets and the importance of understanding tourist behaviour (Table I).

The significance of VFR markets was raised by Jackson (1990), who noted that VFR travel constitutes a major proportion of world tourism but is readily underestimated unless available data are carefully examined. He contended that further work in explaining VFR flows is warranted and that changing patterns of migration will create ongoing changes in VFR tourism. Similarly, Yuan *et al.* (1995) supported the sizeable economic contribution made by international VFR markets to local communities in their comparison of travel patterns of Dutch long-haul VFR and non-VFR travellers to the USA and Canada.

A number of scholars have also recognised the importance of VFR travel to repeat visitation. Opperman (1996) pointed out that, while it is less expensive to reattract previous visitors than acquire new ones, few tourism destinations actively pursue current visitors. In comparing repeat and first-time visitors to Rotorua, New Zealand, he found significant differences regarding trip characteristics and attractions frequented. Meis *et al.* (1995) also noted the cumulative revenue from repeat visitors and the importance of VFR travellers within this segment.

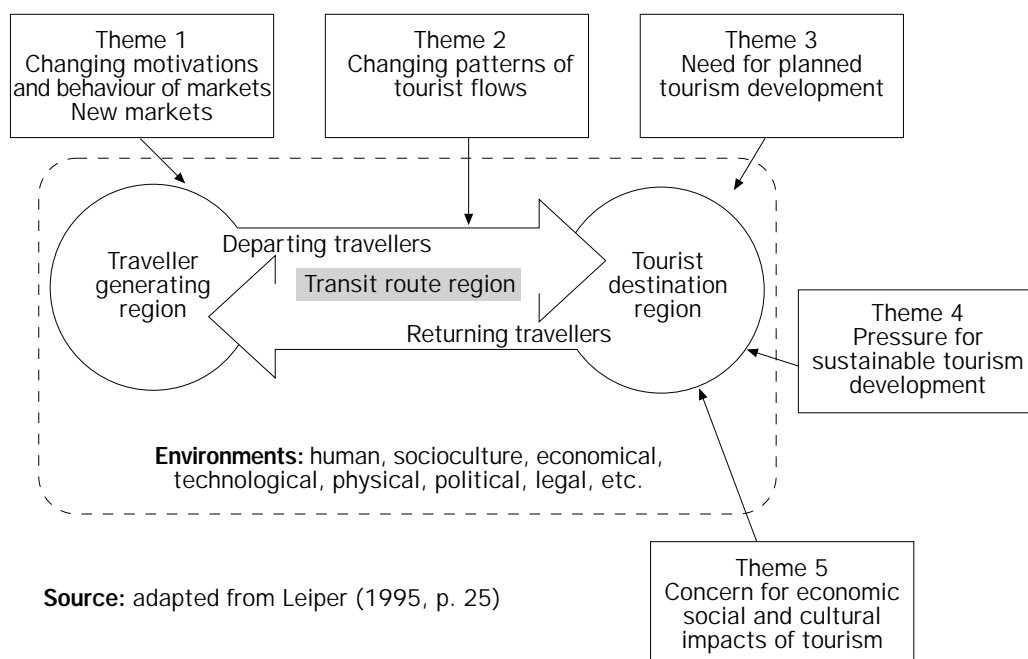
An aspect of the VFR market which is often understated is its use of tourist facilities and services. In their study of inbound tourism to the East North Central region of the USA, Braunlich and Nadkarni (1995) found that VFR travel comprises over half of all pleasure travel and that over one-fifth of VFR travellers use hotels. VFR travel constituted nearly 9 percent of all trips in which a hotel room was purchased, with VFR hotel users having longer stays, but lower per night expenditures than pleasure travellers. Morrison *et al.* (1995) also demonstrated that VFR travellers to Queensland Australia use the same tourism facilities and attractions as other pleasure travellers.

Disaggregation of the VFR market was proposed by Seaton and Tagg (1995) who suggested segmenting this supposedly homogeneous group into visiting friends (VF), visiting relatives (VR) and visiting both friends and relatives (VFR). Morrison *et al.* (1995) also challenged the assumption that VFR travel represents one homogeneous market. They suggested segmenting the VFR market by holiday activity participation to help explain past, and predict future, holiday behaviour in order to guide tourist destination marketing (Morrison *et al.*, 1994). They showed that sub-groups of Australian domestic VFR travellers differed on many key characteristics.

While the value of the VFR market is often underestimated, so too is the economic contribution of domestic tourism. Helleiner (1990) noted that within developing countries, the value of domestic tourism may not directly attract foreign exchange, but still has substantial economic impact through employment and the development of infrastructure that can attract international tourists. In his case example of Nigeria, Helleiner found that, while many conventional tourist attractions are of little interest to domestic tourists, facets of modern technology and cities are sufficiently interesting to generate domestic trips.

Other articles reviewed here have focused on the value of particular niche markets. For example, Weiler and Kalinowski (1990) analysed potential versus actual participation in educational travel programs, revealing significant opportunities for product development and diversification. Murray and Sproats

Figure 1
 Contemporary influences on the tourism system



Source: adapted from Leiper (1995, p. 25)

Table I
 Tourist markets

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Jackson (1990)	Discusses international tourism which involves visits to friends and relatives and examines in detail the phenomenon in Australia	VFR travel
Yuan, Fridgen, Hsieh and O'Leary (1995)	Explores the role of VFR travellers in the international market, concluding that the VFR traveller represents a sizeable segment of the market travelling to the USA and Canada	VFR travel
Opperman (1996)	Analyses international repeat and first-time visitors to Rotorua, New Zealand, to gain insights into their respective visitation of tourist attractions, trip and expenditure patterns	First-time vs. repeat visitors
Meis, Joyal and Trites (1995)	Determines how past experience visiting a Canadian destination affects US travellers' perceptions of Canada, their trip planning, buyer behaviour and future travel plans to Canada	Repeat visitation
Braunlich and Nadkarni (1995)	Investigates VFR, pleasure and business travel to the East North Central region of the USA, comparing demographics, travel habits and hotel expenditures of hotel users from each group	VFR travel
Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary (1995)	Challenges the assumption that the VFR market is one homogeneous market by dividing VFR travellers to Queensland, Australia into six distinct segments by past holiday activity participation	VFR market segmentation
Seaton and Tagg (1995)	Based on international tourist data, explores hypotheses proposed about potential value of disaggregating the VFR market to provide separate accounting of its component elements	VFR market segmentation
Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary (1994)	Identifies six market segments of Australian domestic travellers with unique sets of activity participation and other characteristics to argue that activity-based segmentation is a viable approach to segmenting travel markets	Activity-based market segmentation
Helleiner (1990)	Describes research in Nigeria to determine the demand for tourism as perceived by Nigerians themselves in order to recommend promotional efforts to increase domestic tourism	Domestic tourism in Nigeria

(Continued)

Table I

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Weiler and Kalinowski (1990)	A case study of educational travel programmes, describing potential and actual participants in terms of their values, demographics, activities and resources to assess the propensity for participating in educational travel	Educational travel
Murray and Sproats (1990)	Discusses the potential market value of providing facilities accessible to the disabled community and results of a survey of disabled facilities in North Queensland and disabled tourists and their families	Disabled travellers
Carlsen (1995)	Reviews meetings and conventions research in Australia, Asia, USA and Europe, discusses specific problems in conducting this research and identifies issues requiring further investigation	Meetings and conventions research
Zeppel and Hall (1991)	Provides an overview of cultural and heritage tourism by considering visitor motivations and market characteristics for the cultural tourism sector, strategies for marketing cultural tourism and a discussion of key management issues relating to cultural tourism	Cultural and heritage tourism
Moscardo (1992)	Takes a knowledge-based approach to understanding differences between international and domestic tourists and resident visitors in four Australian interpretive settings	Differentiating tourist and resident visitors
Heath (1990)	Compares local and foreign visitors to major resort areas of Zimbabwe and assesses whether they are seeking similar facilities and experiences and whether the Zimbabwe tourist industry should cater to two different markets	Distinguishing local and foreign tourists
Pearce (1996)	Reviews research projects in tourist behaviours by an Australian research team and specifies the value of four integrating concepts linking this research – the travel career ladder, cognitive steps, mindfulness and social situations	Tourist behaviour
Crompton (1996)	Focuses on four research programme endeavours into tourist decision making – choice sets, trip patterns, motivations and positioning	Tourist decision making
Hsieh, O’Leary, Morrison and Chang (1993)	Presents a choice model of package tours by Australian outbound travellers using socio-demographics, travel characteristics and psychographic attributes to predict the probability of choosing package tours	Tourist decision making
Kim, Pearce, Morrison and O’Leary (1996)	Attempts to reveal comprehensive information on the travel motivations of Korean tourists with regard to overseas trips by employing concepts in the travel career ladder (Pearce, 1991)	Tourist motivations
McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal (1996)	Examines female Australian leisure travellers and their motivations from a gendered perspective to examine differences in push and pull motivational factors	Tourist motivations
Pyo (1996)	Segments the Far East Asia tourist market by using push attributes to identify six clusters with unique characteristics and delineates related implications	Tourist motivations
Fielding, Pearce and Hughes (1992)	Examines how different motivations influence the experience of climbing Ayers Rock, Australia, exploring the effect of intrinsic versus achievement motivation on task enjoyment and time perception of the climbers	Tourist motivations

(1990) commented that the value of providing facilities and services to accommodate needs of disabled travellers has been underestimated and that market size warrants increased community awareness of opportunities for disabled travellers and effective marketing strategies by tourism operators. Carlsen (1995) noted that the meetings and conventions sector has the highest economic yield of all visitor types, necessitating a database to monitor overall sector growth and its economic, technological

and cultural benefits for a destination. Meanwhile, Zeppel and Hall (1991) identified increasing value placed on cultural and heritage tourism. They argued for effective management strategies to ensure a sustainable approach to resources. Within museums and other interpretive settings, Moscardo (1992) contended that visitation differences between residents and tourists should be recognized as part of a management strategy to enhance visitor satisfaction. Similar conclusions were

drawn by Heath (1990) in his study of the differences between domestic and international visitors to attractions in Zimbabwe.

The remaining articles reviewed here have focused on aspects of tourist behaviour. Pearce (1996) highlighted four concepts which link research in this area: the travel career ladder which is an approach to tourist motivation, cognitive steps and mindfulness which are conceptual organizers of how people think and process information, and social situations which provide an integrative view of key factors in describing social behaviour. Crompton (1996) provided an alternative framework for understanding tourist behaviour. He explained that tourism decisions are made through a complex process of evaluating and eliminating various choices. While there are numerous choice sets a tourist may select from, the initial consideration set and the late consideration set often provide conflicting marketing implications. However, by defining market segments according to choice set patterns, this conflict can be overcome. Hsieh *et al.* (1993) also adopted the concept of choice sets in designing a model of Australian outbound travellers to predict the choice of package tours. They found that package purchasers are likely to be older, travel with larger party sizes and seek a "being and seeing" benefit.

Kim *et al.* (1996) note that, while motivation is fundamental to explaining tourist behaviour, it has received only moderate research attention. Empirically, they utilised the travel career ladder (Pearce, 1996) to explain tourist motivation for Korean outbound travel. Conversely, McGehee *et al.* (1996) used the concept of "push" and "pull" motivations to examine the motivations of female Australian leisure travellers. As women are generally accepted as primary holiday planners, it is important to identify what motivates women to select travel destinations. "Push" factors were also utilized by Pyo (1996) to segment the potential tourist market to Far East Asia. He identified six segments differing in destination, country of origin and "push" attributes. Meanwhile, Fielding *et al.* (1992) examined how individual differences in motivation affect visitor experiences. From their study of climbers to Ayers Rock, Australia, they concluded that intrinsic motivation, rather than achievement motivation, led to greater enjoyment of the experience.

Theme 2: Tourist flows

Discussion of tourist flows in the review period has taken two distinct streams: theoretical and descriptive (Table II).

From a theoretical perspective, Morley (1990) drew on various models of tourism to

build a more general and inclusive framework based on two dimensions: tourist-tour-others and demand-supply-impacts. An alternative model, the travel dispersal index (TDI), was used by Opperman (1992a) to analyse intra-national travel flows of international tourists in destination countries. Drawing on data from Malaysia, he demonstrated that the TDI has utility in developing tourist typologies and as a market segmentation tool. Morley (1993) was also concerned with tourist flows and specifically in methodologies for forecasting these. He argued that extrapolative time series models are an appropriate alternative to multiple regression which has shortcomings of heteroscedasticity, multicollinearity and autocorrelation. Crouch (1993) evaluated the impact of exchange rates on the pattern of international tourism demand using meta-analysis. His findings highlighted that changes in currency exchange rates can impact on international tourism demand.

Recent changes in the world political map have been dramatic with the partitioning of many single states. Ramifications for business and family ties are numerous. Butler and Mao (1996) suggest that newly partitioned states experience several stages in building a new identity, with travel and tourism being significant to this process. The notion of counter-trade techniques was discussed by Wilson and Wang (1996) as useful in facilitating international tourism flows. A case study of counter-trade in tourism between Moscow and Shanghai suggested that barter in tourism might be worthwhile to promote tourism flows in areas where none previously existed.

From a more descriptive perspective, a number of scholars have examined domestic tourist flows in Muslim countries. While the accepted view is that recreational styles in Muslim and Western countries are distinctly different, Ritter (1989) argued that this may be due to an evolutionary time lag. He confirmed that domestic tourism in many Muslim countries has started to boom with a preference for spending leisure time in public spaces open to recreational use, such as beaches and deserts. He suggested that similar reasons may have lured English lower middle classes to resorts 120 years ago. Kopp (1989) also recognised evolutionary differences in tourism to Muslim countries. In his study of international tourism to the Yemen-Arab Republic, he noted that many centuries of restricted visitor access provide opportunities to study the juxtaposition of traditional native recreation with the effects of a recent influx of Western tourists.

Recent changes in domestic tourist flows in North African countries have also been the focus of other studies. For example, Hoehfeld (1989) noted the emerging preference for

Table II
Tourist flows

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Morley (1990)	Draws on various tourism models to build a more general and inclusive model, based on two dimensions: Tourist-Tour-Other and Demand-Supply-Impacts	Modelling tourism flows
Opperman (1992a)	Proposes the traversal dispersal index to analyse intra-national travel behaviour of international tourists in the designation country, as a differentiating variable for a tourist typology and as a market segmentation tool	Intra-national tourism flows
Morley (1993)	Investigates the use of extrapolative time series methods in forecasting tourist demand, with application to Australian tourism data	Forecasting tourism flows
Crouch (1993)	Provides a meta-analysis of empirical studies which have evaluated the impact of exchange rates on the pattern of international tourism demand	Exchange rates
Butler and Mao (1996)	Discusses separation of single states, stages partitioned countries goes through to build new identities and trust and the role of tourism in the reconciliation process between the partitioned states	Partitioned states
Wilson and Wang (1996)	Examines countertrade techniques in facilitating international tourism flows, particularly between foreign currency-starved Third World countries, drawing on countertrade in tourism between Moscow and Shanghai	Countertrade
Ritter (1989)	Discusses recreational tourism trends of Muslim tourists, identifies clear preferences for deserts and beaches and compares these trends to English lower middle class tourism a century earlier	Domestic Muslim tourism
Kopp (1989)	Juxtaposes recreation and native recreational travelling in Yemen with effects of an influx of Western sightseeing tourism	Domestic Muslim tourism
Hoehfeld (1989)	Discusses the recent development of seaside holidays by the native population in Turkey, which is replacing the age-old tradition of holidays in the mountains	Domestic Muslim tourism
Berriane (1989)	Presents results of a survey into recreational activities of the Moroccan population, modifying the notion that Third World countries do not have their own tourism	Domestic Moroccan tourism
Standl (1989)	Discusses rapid tourism development in Egypt due to increased awareness by Egyptians of the recreational potential of their own country, favourably influenced by government sponsored sightseeing programmes	Domestic Egyptian tourism
Barham (1989)	Measures the flow of excursionists to the Dead Sea region and explains motives behind such trips	Domestic tourism in Jordan
Al Moosa (1989)	Discusses domestic tourism trends in Kuwait, with new facilities available in the metropolitan areas and the proliferation of private coastal bungalows	Domestic tourism in Kuwait
Schliephake (1989)	Discusses domestic tourism trends in Saudi-Arabia, characterized by an "American" emphasis on motor cars and outdoor activities, but also development of recreational and accommodation facilities	Domestic tourism in Saudi-Arabia

seaside holidays by domestic tourists in Turkey, simulating development of coastal strips near larger cities, with simple wooden huts built as holiday homes. Moroccan nationals are also holidaying at seaside villages and towns, with large family groups preferring camping facilities and privately rented rooms to hotels (Berriane, 1989). Egypt has also witnessed recent growth in domestic tourism, with historic sites and coastal

regions being primary destinations (Standl, 1989). This has encouraged private investment in small hotels and holiday residences. In Jordan, climatic differences between cooler upland cities and the milder Dead Sea valley are one reason for the increase in domestic excursions to the valley area (Barham, 1989). While all strata of society are represented among these excursionists, the emphasis is on the better educated and

salaried groups. Al Moosa (1989) has studied leisure and recreation in Kuwait. Its growing importance among the resident population has encouraged new facilities in metropolitan centres and private bungalows in coastal regions. However, residents of Kuwait are still to be convinced of the quality of services offered in their country. Saudi Arabians, however, are increasingly fond of domestic travel owing to their increased mobility and urbanization (Schliephake, 1989). Schliephake notes that travelling for pleasure here is characterised by an almost "American" emphasis on using the motor car and outdoor activities. However, in some parts of the country, investments in recreational facilities and accommodation have also become important.

Theme 3: Tourism development

Development of tourist destinations, especially in developing countries, has been the focus of numerous articles in the review period (Table III).

Butler's tourist destination lifecycle has formed the basis for some studies in the review period. For example, Barr (1990) examined trends in tourist development in the Whitsundays, Australia, to show that, while many principles of the model still applied, the region experienced atypical patterns of facility growth, particularly regarding the transition from locally to externally funded expansion. These differences were attributed to indifferent community attitudes to tourism enterprise which stimulated the early influence of non-local entrepreneurs. Williams (1993) presented an expanded version of Butler's model to incorporate aspects of dependency and external control theories of tourism development. In the context of Minorca, Spain, he demonstrated that, despite high levels of industrialization before the arrival of tourism, it experienced similar developmental problems to less industrialised destinations, such as decline in indigenous economic sectors and external control of tourism development.

External control, as well as other challenges to tourism development, has concerned a number of scholars writing about developing nations. For example, Hall (1994a) concluded that, while Vanuatu has welcomed foreign investment in tourism development, it has attempted to maximise the benefits of tourism, through developing secondary transport activities and retaining local culture and heritage. Similarly in Fiji, Hall (1994b) noted that, although several aspects of the industry are dominated by foreign interests, the development of secondary tourism opportunities

and the absence of a single source of foreign tourism investment provides the Fijian government with greater bargaining power in international relations. Conversely, Adu-Febiri (1994) argued that Ghana's failure to develop a viable tourism industry based on its vast tourism resources is not due to foreign ownership and control, but rather to the wholesale adoption of conventional mass tourism which does not fit with the country's low capital accumulation capacity, unskilled tourism personnel and traditional entrepreneurial and management styles.

Also focusing on countries where tourism is rapidly developing, Dieke (1993) identified general planning and policy principles by examining tourism development in Kenya and Gambia. He highlighted the need for forward and flexible planning and considerable caution in monitoring and reviewing the effects of tourism to serve national development goals. Similarly, Chon and Oppermann (1996) reviewed progress of tourism development in the Philippines. After significant growth during the 1970s, political turmoil, natural disasters and bad publicity of sex tourism have severely impacted on its international image. The authors reviewed the potential impact of the new tourism master plan on the future of tourism in the area.

Opperman (1992b) makes the point that understanding the spatial distribution of tourists and tourism development is essential for successfully implementing tourism projects in developing nations. He analysed the spatial distribution of tourism in Peninsular Malaysia, concluding that variation existed both among regional areas, and between domestic and foreign tourists. Similarly, Zhang (1996) identified the spatial disparities in the location of tourism resources in China with the development of resorts in prominent tourism provinces and the designation of many attractions as scenic wonders and historic sites. Opperman *et al.* (1996) noted that in developing countries, national capitals have developed as gateway cities containing the largest proportion of hotel capacity. They examined Kuala Lumpur as an example of the importance of tourism to central business districts of developing countries.

With tourism development often concentrated in major cities (Timothy and Wall, 1995), urban tourism planning has attracted much attention. For example, Singh (1992) expressed concern at the deteriorating urban environment in India and noted that, while tourism can contribute to the problem, it can also encourage urban revival and revitalization. Similarly, Bhattacharya (1992) noted that the tourist attraction of Indian cities, such as Darjeeling and Sikkim, has created problems

of amenity. To overcome such problems, Haywood (1992) called for urban development which both satisfies tourists and enhances residents' quality of life. Similarly, Dredge and Moore (1992) recommended a methodology to plan proactively for tourism development. They noted that the integration of town planning is important in tourism development, influencing the efficiency and functioning of a destination, its image and character, and ultimately the host-guest relationship. However, this integration has been limited by town planners' lack of understanding of the nature and workings of tourism.

The promotion of heritage is one avenue for attracting tourists to urban centres. Black (1990) argued that a method for preserving

heritage buildings is to adapt them to alternative, economically viable uses. External changes to facades are acceptable if the impact of change is overridden by basic authenticity and uniqueness of the heritage building. In the context of Malaysia, Cartier (1996) described how political and financial support has been provided to preserve historic buildings and attract tourists. Alabi (1994) also identified the potential for the promotion of heritage tourism in Nigeria, as a strategy for development.

In addition to the impact of tourism on urban development, other scholars have focused on the linkage between tourism development and the rural sector. Bowen *et al.* (1991) presented a conceptual model of linkages between the agricultural and tourism

Table III
 Tourism development

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Barr (1990)	Examines the Whitsundays in Australia to reveal developmental trends similar to models of tourism development, but dissimilarities due to community attitudes and strategies of key entrepreneurs	Destination lifecycle
Williams (1993)	Presents expanded version of Butler's lifecycle model by incorporating aspects of dependency and external control theories belonging to tourism development, with emphasis on tourism development in Minorca	Destination lifecycle
Hall (1994a)	Provides a case study of tourism industry development, the effects of tourism and the role of government policy in Vanuatu	Tourism development in Vanuatu
Hall (1994b)	Examines the proposition that international tourism in the South Pacific has the characteristics of a new plantation economy, with reference to tourism development in Fiji	Tourism development in Fiji
Adu-Febiri (1994)	Discusses tourism industry development in Ghana, attributing its failure to development which has favoured wholesale adoption of conventional, mass tourism	Tourism development in Ghana
Dieke (1993)	Examines tourism development in Kenya and The Gambia to identify general planning and policy principles appropriate for where tourism is developing rapidly	Tourism development in Kenya and Gambia
Chon and Opperman (1996)	Analyses current tourism development and planning in the Philippines, discusses its competitive position, scrutinises regional effects of tourism and reviews the new tourism plan	Tourism development in the Philippines
Opperman (1992b)	Analyses spatial variation of tourism in Peninsular Malaysia to identify considerable differences between regions	Tourism development in Malaysia
Zhang (1996)	Reviews tourism growth in China, emphasizing resource planning, development, regional patterns, impacts of tourism, current problems and future prospects	Tourism development in China
Opperman, Din and Amri (1996)	Analyses the evolution of hotel locations in Kuala Lumpur, identifying five stages and revealing insights into urban tourism development patterns in a developing country	Tourism development in Malaysia
Timothy and Wall (1995)	Focuses on urban tourism, specifically tourist-historic cities to apply models of urban tourism to Yogyakarta, Indonesia	Urban tourism
Singh (1989)	Advocates image restoration of Lucknow, India, necessary owing to haphazard urban development and non-sustainable development policy which is adversely affecting the environment	Urban tourism

(Continued)

Table III

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Singh (1992)	Examines, within the framework of urban tourism, some problems associated with urban development and urban tourism with reference to Lucknow in India	Urban tourism
Bhattacharya (1992)	Examines the phenomenon of urban tourism in Darjeling and Sikkam in India	Urban tourism
Haywood (1992)	Discusses aspects of urban tourism, advocating development with emphasis not simply on tourism development, but overall urban development	Urban tourism
Dredge and Moore (1992)	Describes a methodology for town planners to meet challenges of significant growth expected in the tourism industry and to plan proactively for its development	Town planning
Black (1990)	Examines appropriateness of alternate futures for heritage buildings and explores what changes and what degree of change in heritage buildings appear acceptable	Heritage tourism
Cartier (1996)	Uses heritage tourism studies to compare the evolution of historic conservation based tourism in Malaysia	Heritage tourism
Alabi (1994)	Describes the tourism potential of Nigeria's traditional heritage and suggests alternative product-market development strategies for promoting heritage tourism	Heritage tourism
Bowen, Cox and Fox (1991)	Models linkages between agricultural and tourism sectors of a destination's economy, arguing that unique agricultural products, government policy and resources are key determinants of the linkage's character	Agricultural tourism
Cox and Fox (1991)	Presents a classification scheme and definition for agriculturally based leisure attractions	Agricultural tourism
Long and Nuckolls (1994)	Reviews development of local authority tourism strategies to appraise critically the approaches adopted and their underlying rationale	Regional tourism strategies

sectors, arguing that such linkages can benefit both sectors and enhance greater co-operation while contributing to industry growth. By providing services to support agriculturally-based leisure attractions, profit can be enjoyed by farmers and others in rural economies (Cox and Fox, 1991). For rural communities to benefit from tourism requires leadership, planning and technical assistance in the early stages of tourism development to address critical elements that lead to sustainable development (Long and Nuckolls, 1994).

Theme 4: Sustainable tourism development

Many factors are driving the call for more sustainable forms of tourism. These include increased environmental concern, greater interest in protecting remaining vestiges of natural ecosystems, empowerment of indigenous people in developing countries, and a significant rise in nature-based travel (McCool, 1994, p. 51). Pigram (1990) noted that the past decade has witnessed growing

endorsement of the concept of sustainability as the logical approach to matching both conservation and development requirements. He called for greater public involvement in decision making and continuing education of all tourism interest groups to achieve greater tourism-environment compatibility.

Ecotourism has been described as a potentially sustainable form of visitor demand and resource supply, requiring the operationalisation of ethics-based principles (Wight, 1993, p. 54). A number of articles have focused on the expectations and behaviour of ecotourists. Weiler and Richins (1995) described the "true" ecotourist as not just satisfied with a natural experience, but as wanting to be environmentally responsible, expecting to interact and engage with the natural environment, and prepared to be physically and intellectually challenged in doing so. They investigated characteristics of Earthwatch participants as a group of "extreme" ecotourists. However, they noted that not all ecotourists share these characteristics but that most may simply be seeking enjoyment of some relatively undisturbed phenomenon of nature.

Table IV
Sustainable tourism development

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
McCool (1994)	Discusses how changes in the nature of tourism and its relationship with the natural environment require new paradigms to manage tourism development	Limits of acceptable change model
Pigram (1990)	Discusses principles of sustainable resource management and the gap between policy endorsement and policy implementation in tourism development, necessitating continuing education of all interest groups	Stakeholder consultation
Wight (1993; 1995)	Views ecotourism as having a spectrum of demanded and supplied products, considers constraints of ecotourism and indicates relationships among adventure, nature-based and cultural tourism	Ecotourism
Weiler and Richins (1995)	Presents a case study of Earthwatch participants, concluding that they are “extreme” ecotourists, wanting not only to be environmentally responsible, but to enhance the environment visit	“Extreme” ecotourists
Finucane and Dowling (1995)	Discusses survey of Western Australian ecotourism operators, concluding that ecotourism has the potential for sustainable, low impact tourism, but can also destroy the natural base on which it depends	Ecotourism operators
Weiler (1993)	Examines nature-based tour operators in Australia to determine the extent to which they promote themselves as environmentally friendly, their perceptions of their environmental friendliness and ways in which they can contribute to an environmentally friendly industry	Nature-based tour operators
Fennell and Smale (1992)	Examines the concept of ecotourism, presents case examples that exemplify special concerns for the natural resource base of host nations and discusses implications of ecotourism for host nations and ecotourists	Ecotourism
Buckley and Pannell (1990)	Discusses environmental impacts of tourism and recreation in national parks and conservation reserves, strategies to minimise associated environmental degradation and provision of incentives to encourage low-impact and discourage high-impact recreation	Protected area management
Henning (1993)	Discusses potential socio-economic benefits to rural populations and the national economy of nature-based tourism in tropical forests, arguing that ecotourism can help protect and preserve national parks and reserves	Protected area management
Hvenegaard (1994)	Applies an integrated conceptual framework to ecotourism that identifies main actors, relationships, possible progressions over time and a suitable mode of thinking	Modelling ecotourism
Russell (1994)	Discusses whether present legislation and protection codes do enough to protect New Zealand’s natural heritage beauty and systems	Environmental protection
Ding and Pigram (1995)	Discusses how environmental auditing can assist in environmental management of tourism, by providing feedback about environmental performance, specific problem areas and corrective actions	Environmental auditing
Hall (1993)	Examines implications of ecotourism for the sub-Antarctic islands of Australia and New Zealand, outlines the nature of sub-Antarctic tourism, its impacts and management, and discusses implications of sub-Antarctic ecotourism for notions of sustainable tourism	Sustainable Antarctic tourism
Smith (1993)	Discusses visitor guidelines of ship tour operators made available to all visitors travelling with them to Antarctica to protect and preserve the continent	Sustainable Antarctic tourism
Stettner (1993)	Defines concepts of sustainable development, growth, community, commodity and carrying capacity and discusses ethics, environment and economics as criteria for sustainable tourism development in mountain resorts	Sustainable mountain tourism
Singh (1991)	Discusses opportunities and challenges of mountain tourism, noting that policy considerations warrant economically productive, socially responsible and ecologically sound development strategies	Sustainable mountain tourism
McIntyre and Boag (1995)	Provides insights into the effects of high user density on a variety of crowding variables within Uluru National Park, Australia	User density
Markwell (1995)	Explores ways in which attractions are used by ecotourists and non-ecotourists, and tensions between the ecotourist’s demands for authentic experiences and resource management imperatives of the natural area management authorities	Ecotourists vs. non-ecotourists

However, this enjoyment may not be free from environmental impacts. In their study of ecotourism operators in Western Australia, Finucane and Dowling (1995) identified some of these impacts as damage to vegetation, disturbance of wildlife, soil erosion and compaction, water pollution and noise. They concluded that although ecotourism has potential for sustainable, low impact tourism, it can also destroy the natural base on which it depends. They called for a code of practice to guide future ecotourism developers and operators. Similarly, Weiler (1993) studied nature-based tour operators in Australia to determine the extent to which they promoted themselves as environmentally friendly, their perceptions of themselves as environmentally friendly operators, and ways in which they can contribute to an environmentally friendly industry. She then developed a framework for analysing environmental friendliness in future research. Fennell and Smale (1992) also recognised the need to protect the resource base of a tourist destination while simultaneously providing the types of visitor experiences expected by ecotourists. They called for management strategies in host nations to facilitate economic benefits from ecotourism while conserving natural attributes.

Other articles have focused on potential conflict between conservation and recreation objectives of protected areas. In examining environmental impacts of tourism and recreation in national parks and conservation reserves, Buckley and Pannell (1990) contended that to minimize environmental degradation requires appropriate land use zoning, regulation and surveillance of access and activities, direct physical protection of particular areas, on and off site education, incentives for contemplative, naturalist and wilderness travel activities, and discouragement of high impact pursuits. Henning (1993) went further to argue that ecotourism can be a powerful force for protecting and promoting national parks and reserves, while increasing sustainable rural and national development. In the context of developing countries, he noted that the ecotourism attraction of tropical forests presents opportunities for their protection, in contrast to current deforestation and degradation patterns. He noted, however, that this requires cooperation by public and private sectors, as well as adequate funding, planning and training.

McCool (1994) also argued that tourism planning systems need a systematic and cohesive context to achieve the broadly stated philosophies of sustainability, environmental integrity and quality in recreational opportunities. He proposed a framework, the limits of acceptable change, which provides planners with ways of thinking about acceptable levels

of visitor impacts and how to manage them. He argued that this is a superior approach to the carrying capacity model which suffers conceptual and practical weaknesses. An alternative approach has been proposed by Hvenegaard (1994), who developed a model of ecotourism that identifies the main actors, relationships involved, possible progressions over time and a suitable mode of thinking.

Other writers have called for a more regulated approach to environmental protection from tourism. For example, Russell (1994) questioned whether current legislation and protection codes are sufficient to protect New Zealand's natural heritage beauty. He examined possible systems to ensure New Zealand has a sustainable tourism industry. Ding and Pigram (1995) proposed environmental audits as an alternative control mechanism. They contended that while environmental impact assessment prior to approving new tourism developments is necessary, post-development auditing could also assist by providing feedback about overall environmental performance, specific problem areas and corrective actions.

Given that Antarctica is the world's last pristine environment, it is appropriate that some scholars have been concerned with its protection in the face of increasing human presence. For example, Hall (1993) noted that tourists now exceed the number of government personnel in the Australian and New Zealand sub-Antarctic islands. He outlined the nature of sub-Antarctic tourism, its impacts, management and implications for sustainable tourism. Smith (1993) also noted the stress placed on the region by increasing human visitation. She described visitor guidelines to protect and preserve the environment made available by US cruise operators to all passengers travelling with them to the Antarctic.

Fragile mountain landscapes have also attracted research interest in sustainability. Stettner (1993) identified ethical differences between environmental and business interests towards developing mountain resorts. He discussed the role of ethics, environment and economics in achieving sustainable development. Singh (1991) noted that, while examples of sustainable tourism development in mountain regions are rare, the mountain environment provides both opportunities and challenges for wholesome tourism development. He advocated research-based, medium sized, integrated and controlled tourism involving local participation as the only hope of benign tourism which enriches both hosts and guests.

Growth in ecotourism also poses potential conflicts between ecotourists and other tourists. McIntyre and Boag (1995) examined the relationship between visitor density and

perceptions of crowding at Uluru National Park and the effect such perceptions had on visitor satisfaction. They highlighted growing concern about the effect that high visitor numbers may have on quality of the tourism experience. Similarly, Markwell (1995) explored different ways in which attractions may be used by ecotourists and non-ecotourists and tensions between the former's demands for authentic experiences and the resource management imperatives of the natural area management authorities. He drew on examples from East Malaysia to illustrate his arguments.

Theme 5: Social, economic and cultural impacts of tourism

Mings and Chulikpongse (1994) have noted tourism's role as an agent of change, bringing myriad impacts on regional economic conditions, social institutions and environmental quality. While articles reviewed in the preceding section reflect concern with environmental impacts of tourism, the articles reviewed here emphasise ongoing interest in economic and social consequences of tourism (Table V).

At a general level, Preister (1989) reviewed research on effects of tourism development, and proposed a modified dependency theory to account for many observed impacts. At the national level, Lee (1996) favoured the use of an input-output model to study economic effects of the tourism industry in South Korea. He concluded that tourism performed better than most industries in generating employment and tax revenues and performed moderately well in distributing income among household income classes. Pearce (1990) examined tourism development in New Zealand, noting that increasing visitor arrivals and a changing market mix have meant the economic impacts of tourism have not been uniformly spread throughout the country. However, while international tourism has concentrated growth in major metropolitan gateways and resort areas, domestic tourism has had some redistributive effect, with metropolitan centres being prime generators of domestic travel.

Altman's (1996) interest in economic impacts of tourism has been at a community level, specifically the Torres Strait Islander community of Seisia where nearly 15,000 tourists per annum visit an area inhabited by only 100 people. He assessed the current economic impact of tourism on the community and examined some wider economic development and policy issues to evaluate the potential of tourism as the leading sector of economic development for Seisia.

Other articles in the review period have focused on particular types of economic

impacts, rather than a holistic approach. For example, Cukier-Snow and Wall (1994) examined tourism employment growth in Bali, noting its association with increasing imbalances in regional development, migration to southern resorts, and increased employment of women. With tourism employment set to exceed traditional agricultural employment, significant challenges are evident for maintaining a vibrant culture and landscape historically rooted in agriculture. The impact of tourism on the traditional economic base of local residents has also been examined by Sindiga in Kenya (1995). With much of Kenya's tourism being wildlife based, about 8 percent of the country has been set aside for wildlife protection. However, this has denied access to invaluable herding and agricultural resources by local communities, who also suffer destruction of life and property from wildlife. While revenue sharing schemes have been initiated, questions have been raised whether local governments, communities or individual landowners should be compensated.

A different economic focus is taken by Din (1992) who, in a case study of the Penang Langkawi region of Malaysia, examined whether there is a definitive relationship between tourism and local entrepreneurship. He argued that, while most introductory tourism texts devote a small section to this issue, there are very few specific works which address this relationship.

Two studies have examined the economic impacts of special events. McCann and Thompson (1992) conducted a cost-benefit analysis of the first State Masters Games in Albany, Western Australia, while Jeong *et al.* (1990) surveyed Korean tourism professionals, academics and media editors to assess the expected impacts of the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. Primary expectations for hosting the Olympics were increased international awareness of Korea as a tourist destination, modification of Korea's image, and strengthening of Korean cultural values.

Other articles have examined cultural impacts of tourism. Teye (1991) argued that tourism can contribute to greater understanding between North and South Africa through developing genuine cultural tourism which promotes host-guest experiences, rather than superficial encounters. Similarly, Ahmed *et al.* (1994) described ethical problems within the tourism industry in developing countries and proposed that interaction problems between ethnocentric tourists and resentful hosts could be alleviated by introducing people-to-people programmes to reduce misunderstanding.

"Ethnic tourism" has been coined to describe authentic, traditional culture as a tourist attraction (Sofield, 1991). Singh (1989) pointed

Table V
Social, economic and cultural impacts of tourism

Authors	Focus	Sub-theme
Mings and Chlikpongse (1994)	Provides insights into tourism as an agent of local and regional change, with particular focus on southern Thailand	Regional impacts
Preister (1989)	Evaluates tourism development effects, suggests a modified dependency theory and outlines a philosophy of management consistent with both theory and experience	Dependency theory
Lee (1996)	Estimates the economic effects of the tourism industry in South Korea by using the input-output model	National economic impacts
Pearce (1990)	Focuses on regional implications to changing market mix of visitors to New Zealand in the context of recent reorganization of tourism within restructuring of the New Zealand economy	Regional economic impacts
Altman (1996)	Assesses economic impact of tourism on the Seisia (Torres Strait Islander) community and examines a range of wider economic development and policy issues	Community economic impacts
Cuckier-Snow and Wall (1994)	Examines tourism employment in Bali, associated with growing imbalances in regional development, migration to southern resorts, increased female employment and challenges to local culture and landscapes	Employment impacts
Sindiga (1995)	Examines government revenue-sharing policies for rural people who support wildlife conservation in national parks using the examples from Kenya	Regional economic impacts
Din (1992)	Uses a case study of Penang Langkawi region of Malaysia to establish whether there is a definitive relationship between tourism and entrepreneurship	Tourism and entrepreneurship
McCann and Thompson (1992)	Presents benefit-cost analysis of the first State Masters Games in Western Australia and describes procedures for undertaking similar analyses of other sporting events	Impacts of special events
Jeong, Jafari and Gartner (1990)	Presents a survey of Korean tourism professionals, members of the academic community and mass media editors to assess impacts of the 1988 Seoul Olympics	Impacts of special events
Teye (1991)	Discusses obstacles and potential for developing the kind of tourism which could foster greater understanding between north and south cultures in Africa	Cultural impacts
Ahmed, Krohn and Heller (1994)	Describes ethical problems of tourism in third world countries and offers recommendations to improve host-guest relations	Ethical issues
Sofield (1991)	Examines case from Vanuatu to draw out general principles of ethnic tourism and to define a model organization for sustainable ethnic tourism in the South Pacific	Ethnic tourism
Singh (1989)	Comments on contributions made by the Nawab Wazirs to Lucknow's cultural milieu, a precious tourist product which needs to be conserved, protected and preserved against eroding forces of modernization	Cultural impacts
Jain (1990)	Presents findings of a survey on the socio-economics impacts on the local people of the tourist attraction attraction of the Khajuraho temples in India	Socio-economic impacts
Altman and Finlayson (1993)	Reviews research on the impacts of tourism on Aboriginal communities and discusses policy alternatives to achieve an ecologically sustainable tourism industry for Aboriginal communities	Ethnic tourism
Swain (1989)	Discusses ethnic tourism in Yunnan and uses a model of indigenous tourism to promote ethnic group maintenance through indigenous control of resources	Ethnic tourism
Crotts (1996)	Uses hot spot theory and routine activity theory, to explore how communities expose tourists to risks of crime and what can be done about it	Tourism and crime
Kelly (1993)	Examines annual crime statistics in Queensland, Australia to ascertain whether popular tourist destinations differ from the state average in frequency and types of offences	Tourism and crime
Smith (1990)	Examines social and environmental impacts of "drifter" tourism to places such as Ceylon, Pattaya, Mombasa and Borocay	Social impacts
Long (1989)	Provides a case study of a social impact mitigation programme, with a community survey finding the response to be mixed, but largely negative	Social impact mitigation

out that cultural aspects of host regions act as tourist attractors, but are simultaneously vulnerable to acculturation. She commented on contributions made by the Nawab Wazirs to Lucknow's culture, a precious tourism product that needs protection and preservation among eroding forces of modernisation. Similarly, Sofield (1991) presented a case study from Vanuatu, to identify general principles of ethnic tourism and define a model organization for ethnic tourism in the South Pacific. He commented that, while much attention has been given to environmentally sustainable tourism, little has been devoted to sustaining traditional cultures which can be just as fragile as the physical environment. However, a case study by Jain (1990) of the impacts of tourism on the Khajuraho temples in India provides an example of how tourism can bring economic relief and prosperity to local populations, with minimal socio-cultural costs.

Altman and Finlayson (1993) examined the impacts of tourism on Australian aboriginal communities. They outlined characteristics of an ecologically sustainable tourism industry and noted that interest in aboriginal involvement in tourism has increased with a national tourism strategy that makes specific reference to indigenous Australians. Swain (1989) also advocated indigenous involvement in tourism, focusing on Yunnan province in China. She used a model of indigenous tourism to explore articulation of state political economy, tourism capitalism and local ethnic group economy as ways of promoting maintenance of ethnic groups and indigenous control of resources. She noted that, worldwide, ethnic minorities involved in tourism face a paradoxical push for change from tourist trade based on expectations that they will stay quaintly "ethnic".

Another social impact of tourism which continues to attract research attention is crime. Crotts (1996) noted that there are few tourist destinations immune to this problem. He used hot spot and routine activity theory to explore how communities expose tourists to risks of being criminally victimised. By placing the location and incidence of such crimes into a theoretical framework, Crotts provided insights into how communities can understand and manage their particular crime-related problems. Kelly (1993) examined the incidence of crime in Cairns and the Gold Coast, Australia, to compare their crime rates to the state average. He concluded that most criminal offences are overrepresented in these two areas, but that the predominant types of offences differ between the two destinations.

He proposed explanations for these differences and strategies for crime reduction.

More holistic assessments of the social impacts of tourism have been made. For example, Smith (1990) examined the "socially disruptive trail" left by "drifter" tourists, beginning with overland travels to Nepal by the 1960s drug cult "hippies". She noted that during the 1980s, a more affluent itinerant young population from industrialised countries moved from one tropical beach to the next, leaving a wake of social problems such as prostitution, alcoholism, juvenile crime and narcotics. Environmental impacts also followed. Long's (1989) interest in the social impacts of tourism were directed more at the success of social mitigation programmes, designed to alleviate negative effects. She presented a case study of a social impact mitigation programme in a desert beach destination in Mexico.

Conclusion

While diverse in their focus, it is possible to draw some general conclusions from the articles reviewed here.

- Better understanding of the motivations and behaviour of particular market segments, and of very specialized and/or emerging market segments, is gaining increased importance for tourism operators (theme 1).
- Changes in the world political map and increased affluence and mobility of residents in some developing countries will continue to change patterns of tourism flows, with accompanying implications for tourism destinations and operators (theme 2).
- Development of tourist destinations and their associated facilities and services are increasingly requiring planned strategies for success, especially in developing countries where particular opportunities and challenges are apparent in safeguarding the quality of life of resident populations while enjoying the economic benefits of tourism (theme 3).
- Demands for more sustainable forms of tourism have helped to stimulate the development of ecotourism and nature-based travel. However, even these forms of tourism are not free from environmental impacts and the management of such impacts will remain a major challenge for the future (theme 4).
- While the economic and social impacts of tourism have attracted substantial research interest in the past, there is increasing concern for the cultural consequences of tourism and ways to promote greater indigenous participation in, and control of, tourism resources (theme 5).

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