



# PART 1

## TOURISM ESSENTIALS: AN INTRODUCTION

Tourism is both a victim and a vector of many contemporary trends in the world – climate change, for example, will impact severely upon destinations – but it can be argued that tourism is also a partial cause of climate change. In a world of constant and unexpected change, it is important to take a disciplined and analytical approach to the teaching and learning of tourism. This is particularly the case when tourism is the focus of so much media attention – newspaper travel supplements, TV programmes and an explosion of travel literature. Tourism, too, is a controversial activity, not just in terms of climate change, but also in that there are other consequences of tourism for, say, indigenous peoples. Again, it is important to provide a balanced view, taking into account the evidence and the burgeoning literature. It is important, too, to recognise that as tourism matures as a subject area there are new approaches to studying and analysing tourism to complement the more traditional ways of thinking. In this first chapter, for example, we examine one such approach – ‘the critical turn in tourism studies’. But, above all, tourism is an exciting subject for study – after all, most of us have experienced tourism and can relate the material in this book to our own experiences.

In this first chapter, we set out to provide a framework for the book and a way of thinking about tourism. The chapter begins with a historical perspective on tourism before introducing the concept of a tourism system. We go on to outline the role of a tourism system in offering a way of thinking about tourism and in providing a framework of knowledge for those of you studying the subject. This framework is particularly important in the twenty-first century when the world is experiencing rapid and unexpected change caused by both human and natural agents. In addition, tourism has now become a major economic sector in its own right, and we use this chapter to demonstrate the scale and significance of tourism. At the same time, we identify some of the issues that are inherent both in the subject area and in the study of tourism. In particular, we emphasise the variety and scope of tourism as an activity and highlight the fact that all elements of the tourism system are inter-linked, despite the fact that they have to be artificially isolated for teaching and learning purposes. Finally, we consider the difficulties involved in attempting to define tourism and provide some ideas as to how definitions are evolving.

# CHAPTER 1

## TOURISM ESSENTIALS

### Learning Outcomes

In this chapter, we focus on the concepts, history, terminology and definitions that underpin tourism. We also provide a framework for the study of tourism to guide you through this book. The chapter is designed to provide you with:

- an awareness of the historical background to tourism;
- an understanding of the nature of the tourism system;
- an awareness of the issues associated with the academic and practical study of tourism;
- an appreciation of vexed terminology associated with tourism; and
- a knowledge of basic supply-side and demand-side definitions of tourism.



## Introduction

In a world of change, one constant since 1950 has been the sustained growth and resilience of tourism both as an activity and an economic sector. This has been demonstrated despite the 'shocks' of '9/11', the dual bombings in Bali, the threat of bird flu, the second Iraq war, bombings of both the London and Madrid railway systems, the 2004 Boxing Day Tsunami, the financial crisis of 2008/2009 and the Iceland volcano eruption. Despite more recent crises, it was the events of '9/11' that triggered changes in consumer behaviour; changes which impacted on travel patterns and operations around the world. Yet, even with these challenges, in 2010 the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) demonstrated the tremendous scale of the world's tourism sector (WTTC, 2010):

- The travel and tourism industry's percentage of world gross domestic product was 9.4%.
- The world travel and tourism industry accounts for 9.2% of total investment in the world.
- The world travel and tourism industry supported 235 million jobs (8.1% of total world employment).

It is clear that tourism is an activity of global importance and significance and a major force in the economy of the world. It is also a sector of contrasts. It has the capacity to impact negatively upon host environments and cultures – the raw materials of many tourism products – but it can also promote peace and help alleviate poverty.



As the significance of tourism as an activity has been realised, increased prominence has been given to tourism in United Nation's summits such as the 'World Summit on Sustainable Development' in Johannesburg in 2002, when tourism featured for the first time. International mass tourism is at best only 50 years old, and the 'youth' of tourism as an activity – combined with the pace of growth in demand – has given tourism a Cinderella-like existence; we know it is important, but it is not taken seriously. This has created three issues for the sector:

1. As well as demonstrating sustained growth, tourism has been remarkable in its resistance to adverse economic and political conditions. Natural and man-made events, such as '9/11', clearly demonstrate the sector's ability to regroup and place emphasis on a new vocabulary including words such as 'safety', 'security', 'risk management', 'crisis' and 'recovery'. Inevitably, though, growth is slowing as the market matures and, as the nature of tourists and their demands changes, the sector will need to be creative in supplying products to satisfy the 'new tourist'. However, it is also clear that tourism as a sector can contribute to economic recovery from the financial crisis that began in 2008 (see for example the work of the UN World Tourism Organization's economic resilience committee [www.unwto.org/trc/](http://www.unwto.org/trc/)).
2. Technology increasingly pervades the tourism sector. From the use of the Internet to book travel and seek information about destinations, through to the use of mobile technology to revolutionise the way that tourism information can be delivered direct to the user *in situ* at the destination, to the innovative role technology plays in interpreting and displaying destinations, tourism is ideally placed to take advantage of developments in information technology. But change has come at the price of restructuring the distribution channel in tourism and in changing the nature of jobs in the sector. (Is it therefore at a fragile stage in growth?)
3. International organisations support tourism for its contribution to world peace, its ability to deliver on the Millennium Development Goals, in particular poverty alleviation, the benefits of the intermingling of peoples and cultures, the economic advantages that can ensue and the fact that tourism is a relatively 'clean' industry. But an important issue is the stubbornly negative image of tourism as a despoiler of destinations and a harbinger of climate change, and even the employment and monetary gains of tourism are seen to be illusory in many destinations. The International Labour Organization (ILO), for example, views tourism jobs as of low quality, arguing that the sector should deliver 'decent work', not just create jobs of low quality. A critical issue therefore, for all involved in the successful future of tourism, will be to demonstrate that the tourism sector is responsible and worthy of acceptance as a global activity. The WTTC has been an influential lobbyist in this regard (see [www.wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)). As the representative body of the major companies in the tourism sector, it has led an active campaign to promote the need for the industry to take responsibility for its actions and for close public and private sector coalitions.

All of these points connect to mean that the tourism sector must take responsibility for the consequences of tourism as an activity. This will involve engaging with the big issues of this century – ensuring that tourism whole-heartedly embraces the green economy and reduces its carbon footprint to help alleviate climate change; that tourism does not exacerbate the global issues of food and water security; and that tourism makes a real contribution to poverty alleviation.

And of course, despite the relative youth of international mass tourism, other forms of tourism have, in fact, a very long history, dating back thousands of years. In the following section we turn to the historical development of tourism.

## The History of Tourism

### Early Tourism

Most sources point to the Sumerians' development of trade around 4000 BCE as the birth of travel (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009). Trade remained the major motivation for travel with the development of vast trading networks during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries – the Silk Roads being a prime example. Travel was difficult and dangerous, however, and only conducted when necessary. As well as trade, military and administrative purposes were also motivations for early tourism, although religious festivals and pilgrimage were evident too. Travel for pilgrimage is evident in many Asian countries from an early period when people journeyed to the mountains and rivers to visit ancestral gods and spirits (Sofield and Li, 1998). Indeed, from the time of the ancient Egyptians, pilgrimages and festivals have taken travellers across borders, but tourism, as travel for pleasure, is evident in Egypt from 1500 BCE onward (Casson, 1994). Travel at this time, however, was still disjointed and a difficult undertaking on treks over long distances.

The building of roads during the Roman Empire facilitated a new, faster medium for travel. As a result, leisure travel across Europe gained popularity in Roman times, but after the collapse of the Roman Empire the roads were not maintained and travel once again became difficult and dangerous. Despite this, pilgrimages continued across Europe during the medieval period with travellers crossing regions to visit religious sites. Consequently, as the main sources of reception along the road, churches and monasteries were early sources of hospitality.

### The Grand Tour

From the late fifteenth century, the sons of the upper classes were sent to tour abroad as a means of completing their education. The Grand Tour, as it became known, was seen as part of the process of induction into society, as the 'tourists' expanded their knowledge and experience. Over the course of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, thousands of Britons, Germans, French and Russians travelled around the continent, principally to France, Italy, Switzerland and Germany. The term 'tourist' was first coined in the late eighteenth century to describe these travellers. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries saw travel more through the lens of scientific exploration and expedition, transforming the approach to natural history, and scientists travelled across the world. At this time, travel was still very much a privilege of the upper classes, but this soon changed.

### The Nineteenth Century

Cooper (2011) states that the Industrial Revolution's impact on technology and work transformed tourism. The revolution in transportation technology opened up leisure travel to greater numbers of people and the emergence of a tourism industry made the process of travelling much more organised. The railway, in Britain and later in Europe and North America, allowed greater access to a destination at greater speed. Thomas Cook's organised trip from Leicester to Loughborough in 1841 saw the start of mass rail travel for pleasure trips. And in North America, roads and then railways were constructed to facilitate travel across the country as the population spread west over the course of the nineteenth century. Sailing ships were replaced by steamships, allowing greater access to the world, not only for trade and scientific exploration but also for leisure. Other developments of the industrial age, such as the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, also facilitated this movement abroad.



Victorian holiday tastes were reflected in seaside architecture.

Source: Pearson Education Ltd/Jules Selmes

## The Twentieth Century

The relative peace in Europe in the late nineteenth century meant that these trends in tourism continued, and a growth in travel occurred up until World War I. In the years after the war, the car emerged as the new technology to dominate tourism. The first half of the twentieth century saw the car emerge as the main form of transport and the construction of highways and motels facilitated this desire for travel. The popularity of the car for leisure travel began in the USA and moved to Europe by the 1930s, but the car remained much more dominant in the USA. The majority of car travel was domestic, challenging the dominance of the train, while the emergence of passenger air travel in the mid-twentieth century saw a dramatic shift away from surface transport for longer trips.

The airplane transformed the way people travelled and opened up new regions, cultures and populations to tourism. Initially used for commercial purposes, airplanes began taking passengers in the 1920s. Air travel for tourism took off, literally, after the Second World War. The development of the jet engine, which increased the speed and range of aircraft, made international travel more accessible and, with greater affluence on both sides of the Atlantic from the 1950s onward, the tourism industry responded to demand for overseas travel by introducing cheap package holidays. This heralded the industrialisation of the industry and the onset of mass tourism in the second half of the century and into the new Millennium.

## The Subject of Tourism

As we have seen, in historical terms, tourism activity is a relatively new development and one which has only recently been considered worthy of serious business endeavour or academic study. However, as we have also seen, the tourism sector is of sufficient economic importance and its impact upon economies, environments and societies is significant enough for the subject of tourism to deserve serious academic consideration. There is no doubt in our minds that tourism is a subject area or domain of study, but that at the moment it lacks the level of theoretical underpinning that would allow it to become a discipline. Nevertheless, the popularity of tourism as a subject, and the recognition of its importance by governments, has accelerated the study of tourism.

Tourism as a subject is showing signs of maturity with its growing academic community, increasing numbers of both journals and textbooks which are becoming specialised rather than all-embracing and its measure of professional societies both internationally and within individual countries. We are also seeing a greater confidence in the approaches used to research tourism as the positivist and scientific approaches are augmented with qualitative and more experimental methods, as we see in the final case study for this chapter. All of these indicators point to the increasing professionalism of the tourism sector.

Nonetheless, the relative youth of tourism as an area of study creates a range of issues not only for the sector in general but for all of us involved in teaching, researching and studying the subject:

- The subject area itself remains bedevilled by conceptual weakness and fuzziness. We are therefore faced with many questions that would be taken as common ground in other subjects (such as finding our way through the maze of terminology related to the type of tourism which is less destructive – green, alternative, responsible, sustainable, eco!). This results in a basic lack of rigour and focus, leaving tourism as a subject area open to criticism by others. Franklin and Crang, for example, are unrelenting: ‘The rapid growth of tourism has led researchers to simply record and document tourism in a series of case studies, examples and industry-sponsored projects’ (2001, p. 6). This highlights the apparent conflict between ‘academic’ and ‘applied’ approaches which is also an unresolved issue.
- The subject encompasses a number of diverse industrial sectors and academic subjects, raising the question for those studying tourism as to whether or not tourism is, in fact, too diverse and chaotic to merit separate consideration as a subject or economic sector. According to Gilbert (1990), what makes tourism difficult to define is the very broad nature of the concept as well as the need for so many service inputs. Tourism also envelops other sectors and industries and therefore has no clear boundary, due to the expansive spread of activities it covers (Gilbert, 1990, p. 7). In reality, the tourism industry consists of a mass of organisations operating in different sectors each of which supplies those activities which are termed tourism. We would argue, of course, that it should warrant a subject and sector in its own right, but that there is a need for a disciplined approach to help alleviate potential sources of confusion for students. It is therefore important in this respect to provide a framework within which to locate these subject approaches and industries, something that we do in this book.
- As if these problems were not sufficient, tourism also suffers from a particularly weak set of data sources – in terms of both comparability and quality – although the UN World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ([www.unwto.org](http://www.unwto.org)) has made significant progress in this regard.
- Traditional approaches have tended to operationalise and reduce tourism to a set of activities or economic transactions while more recent authors have been critical of this ‘reductionism’, stressing instead post-modern frameworks which analyse the significance and meaning of tourism to individuals and therefore provide more explanation of the activity of tourism itself.



- Finally, tourism does suffer from an image problem in academic circles, recently having been criticised as having developed ‘Generation T’ – a generation with no other disciplinary or subject knowledge apart from tourism. Indeed, many are attracted to it as an exciting, vibrant subject and an applied area of economic activity – which we believe that it is. But to be successful, tourism demands very high standards of professionalism, knowledge and application from everyone involved. This is sometimes felt to be in contrast to the image of jet-setting, palm-fringed beaches and a leisure activity.

But there is light at the end of this tunnel. To quote Coles *et al.* (2006), tourism suffers from the difficulties of location ‘in a sea of competing academic territoriality and competing constituencies’ (p. 294). They suggest that our approach to tourism should be more flexible and fluid, recognising the inputs and value of differing subjects and disciplines to explanation in tourism. This is termed a ‘post-disciplinary’ approach, and it differs from the earlier ideas of multi- or interdisciplinary approaches to tourism by being a flexible and creative approach that breaks through the parochial boundaries of disciplines (Coles *et al.* 2006).

## A Tourism System

In response to the issues identified above, we feel that it is important at the outset to provide an organising framework for the study of tourism. There are many ways to do this. Individual disciplines, for example, view the activity of tourism as an application of their own ideas and concepts, and an approach from, say, geography or economics could be adopted. An alternative is to take a post-disciplinary approach as noted above. Figure 1.1 shows one such attempt to integrate a variety of subjects and disciplines and to focus upon tourism.

However, in a book of this nature it is impossible to cover the complete range of approaches to tourism. Instead, as an organising framework, we have adopted the model suggested by Leiper in 1979 and updated in 1990 (Figure 1.2). As Figure 1.2 shows, Leiper’s model neatly takes into account many of the issues identified above by considering the activity of tourists, allowing industry sectors to be located and providing the geographical element which is inherent to all travel. It also places tourism in the context of a range of external environments such as society, politics and economies. There are three basic elements of Leiper’s model:

1. tourists;
2. geographical elements; and
3. the tourism sector.

### Tourists

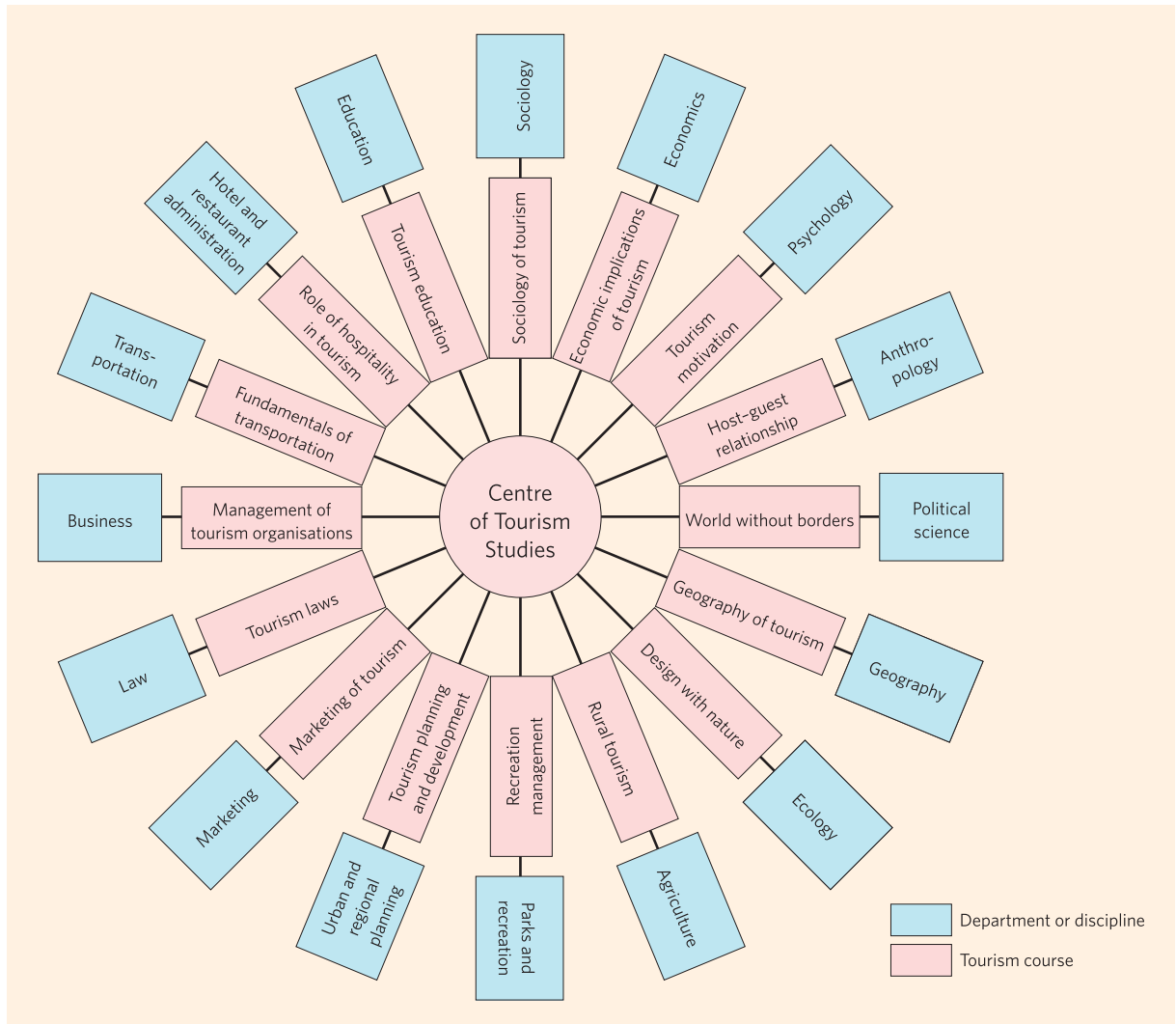
The tourist is the actor in this system. Tourism, after all, is a very human experience, enjoyed, anticipated and remembered by many as some of the most important times of their lives. We deal with definitions and classifications of tourists later in this chapter.

### Geographical Elements

Leiper outlines three geographical elements in his model as:

1. the traveller-generating region;
2. the tourist destination region; and
3. the transit route region.

The traveller-generating region represents the generating market for tourism and, in a sense, provides the ‘push’ to stimulate and motivate travel. It is from here that the tourist searches for information, makes the booking and departs.

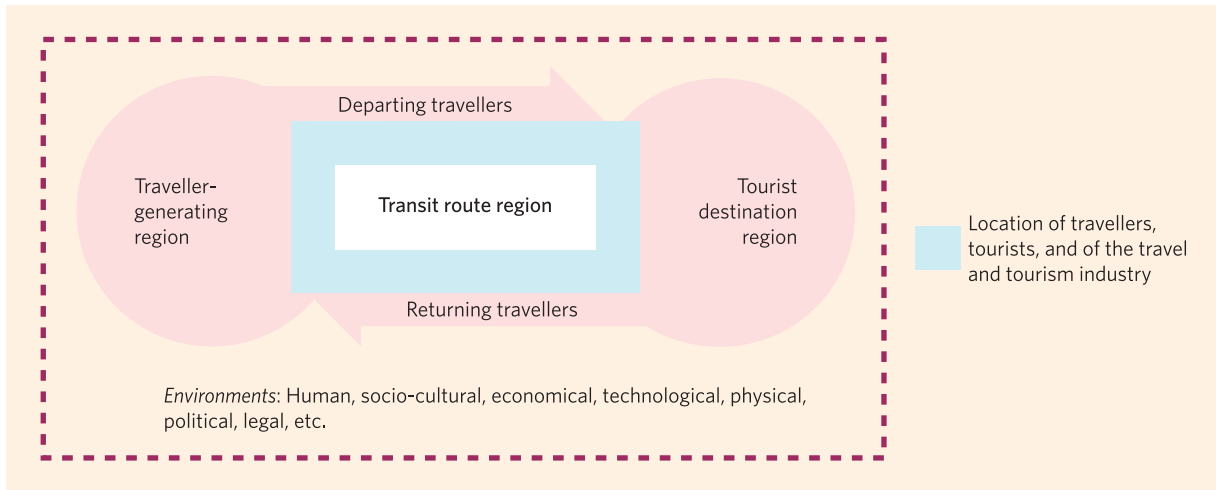


**Figure 1.1** A study of tourism and choice of discipline and approach

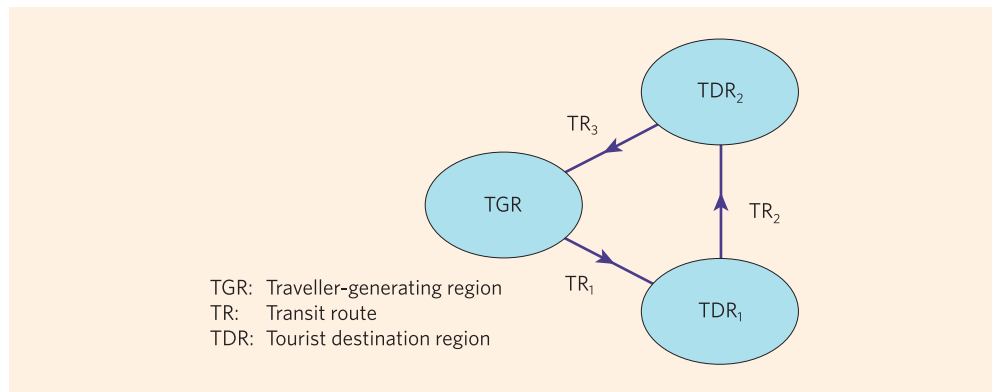
Sources: Jafari and Ritchie, 1981; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1990

In many respects, the tourist destination region represents the ‘sharp end’ of tourism. At the destination, the full consequences of tourism are felt and planning and management strategies are implemented. The destination too is the *raison d’être* for tourism, with a range of special places distinguished from the everyday by their cultural, historic or natural significance (Rojek and Urry, 1997). The ‘pull’ to visit destinations energises the whole tourism system and creates demand for travel in the generating region. It is therefore at the destination where the innovations in tourism take place – new products are developed and ‘experiences’ delivered, making the destination the place ‘where the most noticeable and dramatic consequences of the system occur’ (Leiper, 1990, p. 23). We analyse the tourist destination in Chapter 2.

The transit route region does not simply represent the short period of travel to reach the destination, but also includes the intermediate places which may be visited en route: ‘There is always an interval in a trip when the traveller feels they have left their home region but have not yet arrived . . . [where] they choose to visit’ (Leiper, 1990, p. 22). We analyse transport for tourism in Chapter 10.



**Figure 1.2** A basic tourism system  
 Source: Leiper, 1990



**Figure 1.3** Geographical elements in a tourism system with two destinations  
 Source: Leiper, 1990

### The Tourism Sector

The third geographical element of Leiper’s model is the tourism sector, which we can think of as the range of businesses and organisations involved in delivering the tourism product. The model allows the location of the various industrial sectors to be identified. For example, travel agents and tour operators are mostly found in the traveller-generating region, attractions and the hospitality industry are found in the destination region, and the transport industry is largely represented in the transit route region. We analyse the tourism sector in Part 3 of the book.

Each of the elements of Leiper’s tourism system interacts, not only to deliver the tourism product, but also in terms of transactions and impacts and, of course, the differing contexts within which tourism occurs (Figure 1.3). The fact that tourism is also a sector of contrasts is illustrated by examining two major elements of Leiper’s model. Demand for tourism in the generating region is inherently volatile, seasonal and irrational. Yet this demand is satisfied by a destination region where supply is fragmented, inflexible and dominated by fixed investment costs – surely a possible recipe for the financial instability of tourism!

The major advantages of Leiper’s model are its general applicability and simplicity which provide a useful ‘way of thinking’ about tourism. Indeed, each of the alternative models that we could consider tend to reveal Leiper’s basic elements when they are dissected.

There are also other advantages of this approach:

- It has the ability to incorporate interdisciplinary approaches to tourism because it is not rooted in any particular subject or discipline but instead provides a framework within which disciplinary approaches can be located.
- It is possible to use the model at any scale or level of generalisation – from a local resort to the international industry.
- The model is infinitely flexible and allows the incorporation of different forms of tourism, while at the same time demonstrating their common elements. For example, heritage or ecotourism can be analysed using the model as we show in the case study later in this chapter. Here, we can see that ecotourism does not require a completely new approach, but simply an analysis of each of the particular characteristics of the elements of the ecotourism system.
- Finally, the model demonstrates a highly important principle of tourism studies: that all the elements of tourism are related and interact; that, in essence, we are studying a system of customers and suppliers who demand and supply tourism products and services. Inevitably in any textbook or course, Leiper's elements of tourism have to be separated and examined individually, but in reality all are linked and the realisation of their interrelationships provides a true understanding of tourism.

## Definitions of Tourism

We can see from Leiper's model that tourism may be thought of as a whole range of individuals, businesses, organisations and places which combine in some way to deliver a travel experience. Tourism is a multidimensional, multifaceted activity, which touches many lives and many different economic activities. Not surprisingly, tourism has therefore proved difficult to define – while the word 'tourist' first appeared in the English language in the early 1800s, more than two centuries later definitions remain problematic. In some senses, this is a reflection of the complexity of tourism, but it is also indicative of its youth as a field of study. As a result, it is difficult to find an underpinning coherence of approach in defining tourism, aside from the need to characterise the 'otherness' of tourism from similar activities such as migration. Yet even this approach is under criticism as both geographers and sociologists increasingly believe that tourism is but one form of 'mobility' and should not be separated out (we examine this in more detail in a case study later in this chapter). In other words, definitions of tourism have been created to cater for particular needs and situations.

Despite these difficulties, it is vital to attempt definitions of tourism, not only to provide a sense of credibility and ownership for those involved, but also for the practical considerations of both measurement and legislation. Definitions of tourism can be thought of as either:

- demand-side definitions; or
- supply-side definitions.

Tourism definitions are unusual in that, until the 1990s, they were being driven more by demand-side than supply-side considerations. Some writers find this surprising: 'Defining tourism in terms of the motivations or other characteristics of travellers would be like trying to define the healthcare professions by describing a sick person' (Smith, 1989, p. 33). The 1990s saw considerable progress in the development and consensus of both demand- and supply-side definitions. This was stimulated by two key initiatives:

1. **Demand-side definitions.** The UNWTO's 1991 International Conference on Travel and Tourism Statistics was called to tidy up definitions, terminology and measurement issues. The recommendations of this conference were adopted by the United Nations Statistical

Commission (UNSTAT) and published as *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics* (WTO and UNSTAT, 1994). The conference and the subsequent publications represent the official 'technical' definitions of tourism.

2. **Supply-side definitions.** In March 2000, the United Nations Statistical Commission approved the adoption of tourism satellite accounts as the method of measuring the economic sector of tourism.

## Demand-side Definitions of Tourism

Demand-side definitions have evolved first, by attempting to encapsulate the idea of tourism into 'conceptual' definitions and second, through the development of 'technical' definitions for measurement and legal purposes.

From a conceptual point of view, we can think of tourism as: 'The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes' (WTO and UNSTAT, 1994). While this is not a strict technical definition, it does convey the essential nature of tourism, i.e.:

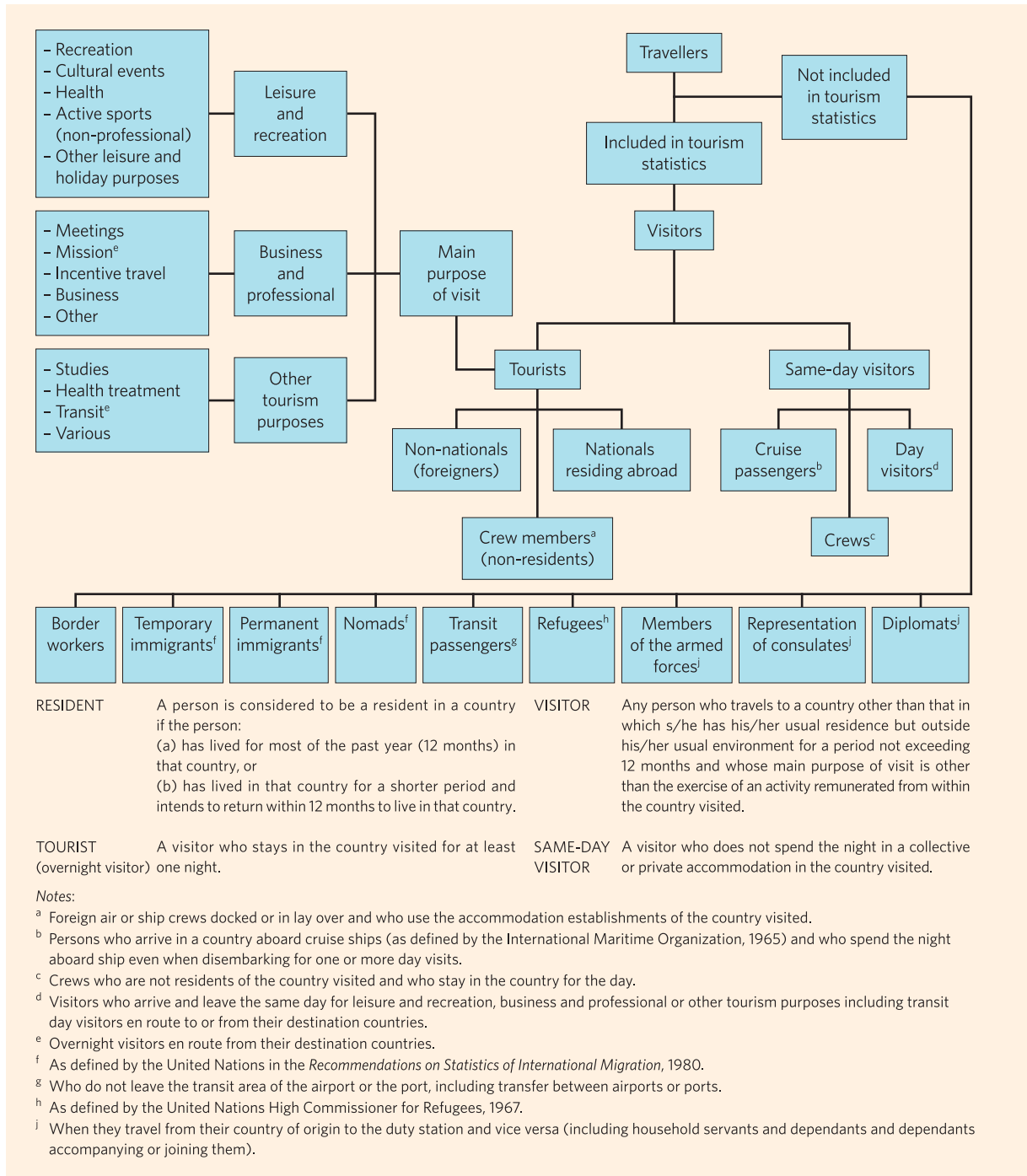
- Tourism arises out of a movement of people to, and their stay in, various places or destinations.
- There are two elements in tourism – the journey to the destination and the stay (including activities) at the destination.
- The journey and stay take place outside the usual environment or normal place of residence and work so that tourism gives rise to activities that are distinct from the resident and working populations of the places through which tourists travel and stay.
- The movement to destinations is temporary and short term in character – the intention is to return within a few days, weeks or months.
- Destinations are visited for purposes other than taking up permanent residence or employment in the places visited.

However, these 'conceptual' approaches do not allow precision for measurement or legislative purposes. As a result, 'technical' definitions were developed by the UNWTO in an attempt to isolate tourism trips from other forms of travel for statistical purposes (Figure 1.4). These 'technical' definitions demand that an activity has to pass certain 'tests' before it counts as tourism. Such tests include the following:

- Minimum length of stay – one night (visitors who do not stay overnight are termed same day visitors or excursionists).
- Maximum length of stay – one year, which is easy to control through immigration and also, as a consequence of being in a destination for more than one year, the behaviour of a 'visitor' may change to reflect that of locals.
- Strict purpose of visit categories, including leisure, business and common interest.
- A distance consideration is sometimes included on the grounds of delineating the term 'usual environment' – the UNWTO recommendation is 160 kilometres.

## Supply-side Definitions of Tourism

The very nature of tourism as a fragmented, diverse product, spread over many industries and comprising both intangible and tangible elements, means that it is a difficult sector to define. As with demand-side definitions, there are two basic approaches to defining the supply-side of the tourism sector – the conceptual, or descriptive, and the technical. From a conceptual point of view, Leiper (1979) suggests: 'The tourist industry consists of all those firms, organisations and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists' (p. 400).



**Figure 1.4** Classification of international visitors  
Source: WTO, 2000

A major problem concerning ‘technical’ supply-side definitions is the fact that there is a spectrum of tourism businesses and organisations, ranging from those which are wholly serving tourists to those who also serve local residents and other markets. The tourism satellite account (TSA) is the agreed approach to defining the tourism sector as it measures the goods

**Table 1.1** UNWTO supply-side definition of tourism (International Standard Industrial Classification, ISIC)

ISIC divisions	Business activity <sup>a</sup>	Example
Construction	T	Hotels, recreational facilities, transport facilities, resort residence.
Wholesale and retail	P	Motor vehicles sales, sales of motor vehicle fuels, retail food sales, retail sales of textiles.
	T	Retail sales of travel accessories, souvenir sales, etc.
Hotels and restaurants	P	Fast food restaurants, food.
	T	Hotels, camping sites.
Transport, storage and communications	P	Transport via railways, chauffeured vehicles, inland water transport.
	T	Inter-urban rail, airlines, special rail tour service, long-distance bus services, cruise ships.
Financial intermediation	P	Exchange of currencies, life insurance, credit cards.
	T	Travel insurance.
Real estate, renting and business activities	P	Buying or selling of leased property, letting or owning of leased property.
	T	Rental of ski equipment, letting of owned tourism property.
Public administration	P	Translation services, customs administration, fishing regulation, foreign affairs, border guards.
	T	Tourism administration, information bureaux, visa issuance, regulation of private transport.
Education	P	Adult education, driving schools, flying schools, boating instruction.
	T	Hotel schools, tourism education programmes, recreation and park service schools, tourist instruction.
Other community	P	Swimming, scuba instruction, flying instruction, boating instruction, motion picture entertainment.
	T	Visitor bureaux, travel clubs, travel unions.
Extra-territorial organisations	P	OECD, World Bank, IMF, ASEAN.
	T	International tourism bodies.

<sup>a</sup> P = part involvement with tourism; T = totally dedicated to tourism.

Source: WTO and UNSTAT, 1994

and services purchased by visitors to estimate the size of the tourism economic sector (WTO, 2001) (see also Table 1.1). The TSA:

- provides information on the economic impact of tourism including contribution to gross domestic product, investment, tax revenues, tourism consumption and the impact on a nation's balance of payments;
- provides information on tourism employment and its characteristics; and importantly
- allows tourism to be compared with other economic sectors.

It is clear from this section that the tourism sector has been late in recognising the importance of supply-side definitions. However, the benefits of doing so are clear. The TSA allows tourism to be compared with other economic sectors and delivers important data for planning and policy, as well as providing an important conceptual framework for studying and researching tourism.

This section has shown that official definitions of tourism have evolved over time and have proved difficult to agree. As we see in the following case study, an alternative view of tourism has emerged from the academic community and has the potential to confuse matters even further!

## Mini Case Study 1.1

### Tourism and Mobilities – A New Way of Thinking about Tourism



The social sciences – in particular geography and sociology – are rediscovering tourism as an area for research, case studies and examples. The approach that these subject areas have adopted, however, is different from the more traditional approach taken by tourism academics. In a new way of thinking about tourism, geographers and sociologists see it as one form of ‘mobility’, locating tourism within a spectrum ranging from permanent migration to daily shopping.

In other words, geographers and sociologists see tourism as one dimension of our ‘connections’ with the world ranging across many different localities. No longer are people’s activities disconnected and within distinct spaces, rather everyone is networked and connected. The key message from the idea of tourism ‘as a form of mobility’ is that tourism is no longer treated as a distinct and special activity, but simply as one that is a part of a range of other activities in society. Larsen *et al.* (2007) argue that the world in the twenty-first century is a highly mobile one and, because tourism is relatively inexpensive and convenient, it blends with other forms of mobility and connections. The reason that this way of thinking has emerged is partly due to ‘space–time compression’ – the fact that with transport and communication technology it is possible to visit distant places for a day. In Europe, for example, it is perfectly possible to visit Paris for lunch from the UK. This means that we can think of the idea of tourism being part of a ‘leisure mobility spectrum’ ranging from daily leisure around the home through to tourism where an overnight stay is taken. Here we can see that what may initially be a tourism-related mobility – travelling to and from a second home for example – may eventually become retirement migration. In this way, the concept of mobility does provide valuable insights into travel behaviour. In fact, Larsen *et al.* (2007) take this a step further and argue that tourism involves ‘travelling, visiting and hosting [that] are necessary to much social life conducted at-a-distance . . . [involving] connections with, rather than escape from, social relations and the multiple obligations of everyday social life’ (p. 245). They see tourism as part of ‘stretched’ social networks as opposed to a distinct and separate activity, divorced from everyday life. In part this has been made possible by technology, communications, advances in transport and the space-compressing nature of globalisation.

### The Issues

This approach does create three major issues relating to this chapter:

1. It blurs the distinction between home, work and tourist destinations; and between differing types of traveller – whether they are commuters, shoppers or migrants. This makes reconciling the ‘mobilities’ approach with drawing up ‘definitions’ of tourism problematic – particularly when we go back to the definitions of tourism designed by the UNWTO. The UNWTO’s definitions see tourism as a distinct activity, taking place away from home and for a period of more than 24 hours. Of course, the formal definitions do now recognise the day trip as an activity, but there is no recognition of the ‘spectrum of mobilities’ that tourism may embrace, and there is a rigid exclusion of certain types of mobile populations such as migrants, refugees and travellers.
2. The approach begs the question as to whether tourism as a subject of study should be a separate and ‘exotic’ area of study and research (Franklin and Crang, 2001). Instead, there is a case for some elements of tourism explanation to be more closely linked to geography and sociology in the spirit of ‘post-disciplinarity’ mentioned above.
3. The approach implies the imperative for ‘sustainable mobility’, embracing the green economy and low-carbon travel, and a mobile population creates mobile places – airports, service stations, railway stations and Internet cafes – where individuals ‘do’ tourism.

The classic paper in this chapter focuses upon these very issues.

### DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Is tourism still a ‘special’ activity or has it become part of everyday life and expectations?
2. Thinking of your own ‘mobility’ over the last week, how many trips could be seen as ‘leisure related’?
3. Thinking of the world and the idea of ‘space–time compression’, there are many places which are highly accessible due to improved transport access. Has this had any impact on your own travel patterns over the last few years?

#### Sources:

- Franklin, A. and Crang, M. (2001) ‘The trouble with tourism and travel theory’, *Tourism Studies* 1 (1), 5–22.  
 Larsen, J., Urry, J. and Axhausen, K.W. (2007) ‘Networks and tourism. Mobile social life’, *Annals of Tourism Research* 34 (1), 244–262.  
 Urry, J. (2000) *Sociology Beyond Societies. Mobilities for the Twenty-First Century*, Routledge, London.



## Spatial Interaction Between the Components of the Tourism System: Tourist Flows

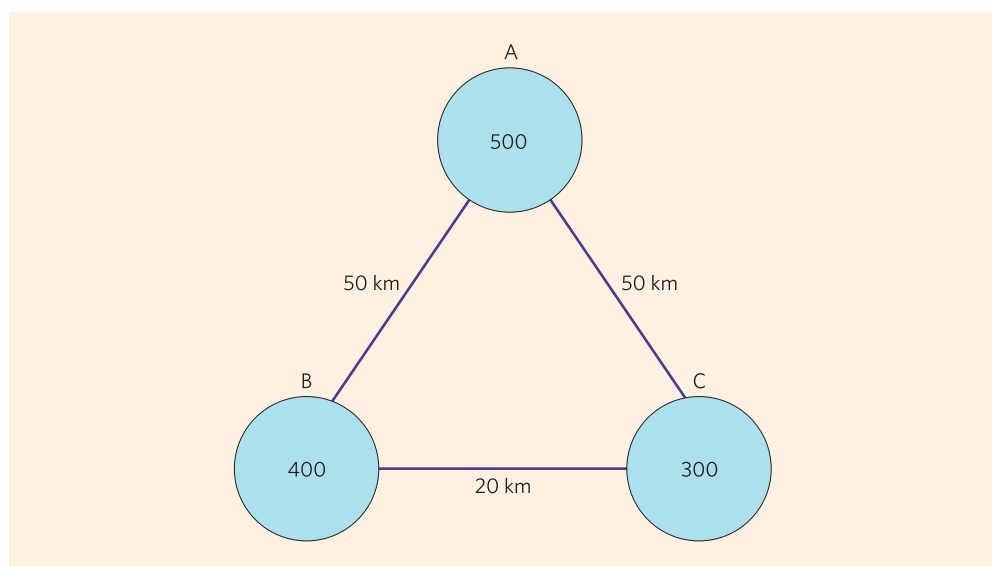
The consideration of tourist flows between countries or regions is fundamental to the study of tourism and critical for managing the environmental and social impacts of tourism, securing the commercial viability of the tourism industry and for planning new developments. We can detect regular patterns of tourist flows as they do not occur randomly but follow certain rules, influenced by a variety of 'push' and 'pull' factors:

- **Push factors** are mainly concerned with the stage of economic development in the generating area and will include such factors as levels of affluence, mobility, and holiday entitlement. An advanced stage of economic development will give the population the means to engage in tourism whilst an unfavourable climate will also provide a strong impetus to travel.
- **Pull factors** include accessibility and the attractions and amenities of the destination area. The relative cost of the visit is also important, as is the effectiveness of marketing and promotion by the destination.

Tourist flows are complex and are influenced by a wide variety of interrelated variables. A number of attempts have been made to explain the factors that affect tourist flows and to provide rules governing the magnitude of flows between regions. An early attempt by Williams and Zelinsky (1970) selected 14 countries that had relatively stable tourist flows over several years and which accounted for the bulk of the world's tourist traffic. They identified the following factors:

- distances between countries (the greater the distance, the smaller the volume of flow);
- international connectivity (shared business or cultural ties between countries); and
- the general attractiveness of one country over another.

The 'gravity model' is another way of explaining tourist flows (see Figure 1.5). Push and pull factors generate flows, and the larger the mass (population) of country 'A' or country 'B', the greater the flow between them. The other contributing factor, known as the friction of distance, refers to the cost in time and money of longer journeys, and this acts to restrain flows between the country of origin and more distant destinations.



**Figure 1.5** The gravity model

Source: Boniface and Cooper, 2009

## Classic Paper

Hannan, K., Sheller, M. and Urry, J. (2006). 'Mobilities, immobilities and moorings', *Mobilities* 1 (1), 1-22



Hannan, Sheller and Urry's 2006 paper is the editorial to the first issue of the journal *Mobilities*. As such, it represents a landmark in how we conceive tourism, a shift from the more traditional view of tourism to an all-embracing one where tourism is seen as but one form of human mobility – as we saw in the mini case on mobilities. The authors view mobility as ranging from the large-scale and global to the very local, exemplified by say mass migration on the one hand and shopping on the other. Hannan *et al.* state that issues of mobility are centre stage and the key is to understand, manage and govern human movements. As a result, there is a new paradigm emerging of which this new journal has become the flagship.

The paper shows how mobility has generated climate change and global inequality, encouraged migration and the need for people to keep in touch over long distances and, of course, generated tourism and travel patterns across the world. These mobilities all demand an infrastructure, not only in terms of transportation, but also mobile technology such as telephone masts. Of course, the availability of infrastructure and people's own resources either enhance or hinder their ability to travel. The creative class, for example (see the case study in Chapter 12), is a highly mobile group, not only in terms of physical travel but also through the Internet and mobile telephony that provide new forms of mobility, such as social networks, both real and virtual.

The paper goes on to illustrate the new mobilities paradigm by considering international airports. Airports have evolved from military airports to become extensive places, employing thousands of people connecting global cities largely for a hyper-mobile elite. Airports represent an international network of 'non places' where people interact in a routine and rule-based way, as for example at security checks. They are also places of 'cyber mobility' where computers and software ensure their smooth running. They are increasingly like cities with shops, hotels, restaurants, their own transport system and security. 'Mobilities thus entail distinct social spaces that orchestrate new forms of social life around such nodes, for example stations, hotels, motorways, resorts, airports . . . and so on' (p. 12).

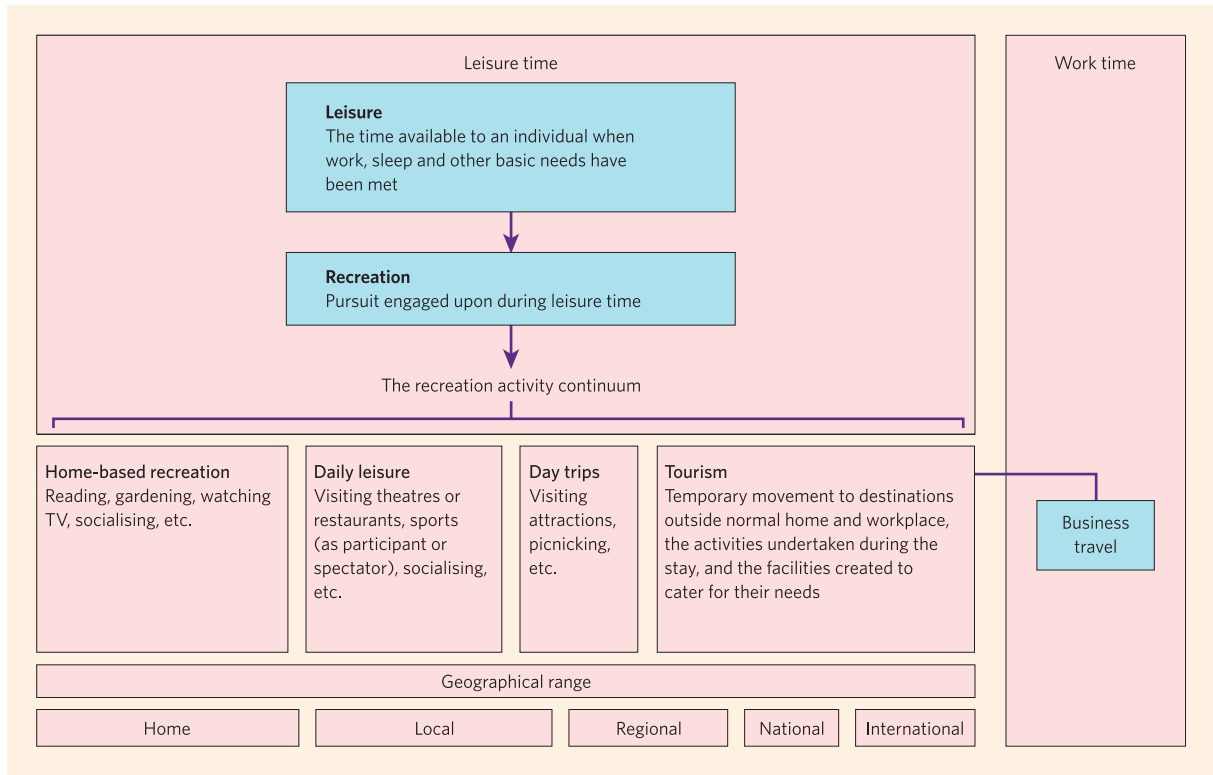
The paper takes a new view of the destination and the traveller and instead tries to show how they are linked and should be viewed in terms of their interaction and relationships, a view that we stress throughout this book. In short, this new paradigm of mobility challenges traditional ways of thinking about tourism and, as such, Hannan *et al.*'s paper is truly a classic.

## Interrelationships and Classifications

Not only are the elements of the tourism system all interlinked, but also we can see that tourism has close relationships with other activities and concepts. It is therefore a mistake to consider tourism in isolation from these other related activities. For example, most tourism throughout the world is a leisure activity and, as such, it is important to locate tourism in the spectrum of leisure activities (Figure 1.6). Let us take 'leisure' as an example of one activity to which tourism is related.

Although the Latin translation of leisure literally means 'to be free', defining leisure is, if anything, more problematic than defining tourism. In essence, leisure can be thought of as a combined measure of time and attitude of mind to create periods of time when other obligations are at a minimum. Recreation can be thought of as the pursuits engaged in during leisure time, and an activity spectrum can be identified with, at one end of the scale, recreation around the home, through to tourism, at the other end of the scale, where an overnight stay is involved.

Although same-day visits or excursions are a common recreational activity, for tourism to occur, leisure time has to be blocked together to allow a stay away from home. Traditionally, these blocks of leisure time were taken as paid holiday entitlement, though innovations such as flexi-time and three-day weekends have also facilitated tourism.

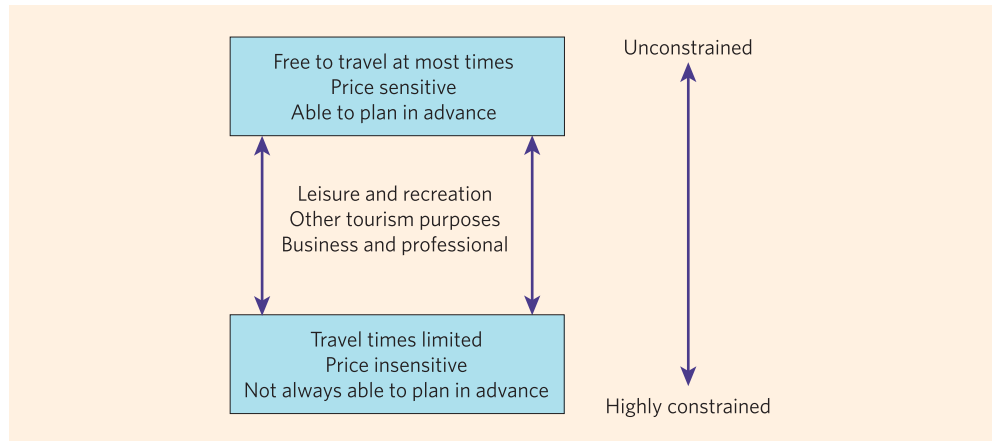


**Figure 1.6** Leisure, recreation and tourism  
 Source: Boniface and Cooper, 2001

## Tourists

While all-embracing definitions of tourism and the tourist are desirable, in practice tourists represent a heterogeneous, not a homogeneous, group with different personalities, demographics and experiences. We can classify tourists in four basic ways which relate to the nature of their trip:

1. A basic distinction can be made between domestic and international tourists, although this distinction is blurring in many parts of the world (for example, in the European Union). Domestic tourism refers to travel by residents within their country of residence. There are rarely currency, language or visa implications, and domestic tourism is more difficult to measure than international tourism. As a consequence, domestic tourism has received little attention, although the financial crisis has heightened awareness of domestic tourism as the 'staycation'. In contrast, international tourism involves travel outside the country of residence and there may well be currency, language and visa implications.
2. The type of travel arrangements purchased, such as:
  - an **inclusive tour** where two or more components of the trip are purchased together and one price is paid;
  - **independent travel** arrangements where the traveller purchases the various elements of the trip separately; and
  - **tailor-made travel**, which is a combination of the two and increasingly common due to the use of the Internet to purchase travel.
3. Distance travelled, which is used to make the distinction between long-haul tourism (which is generally taken to mean travel over a distance of at least 3000 kilometres



**Figure 1.7** Airline pricing and purpose of visit categories

(2000 miles)), and short-haul or medium-haul tourism (involving shorter journeys). This is important in terms of aircraft operations and for marketing. Because of their geographical location, Australians and North Americans are more likely to be long-haul tourists than their counterparts in Europe.

4. Tourists can also be classified by ‘purpose of visit category’. Conventionally, three categories are used:
- **leisure and recreation** – including holiday, sports and cultural tourism and visiting friends and relatives (VFR);
  - **other tourism purposes** – including study and health tourism; and
  - **business and professional** – including meetings, conferences, missions, incentive and business tourism.

These categories are not only used for statistical purposes; they are also useful for the marketing of tourism. Consider, for example, Figure 1.7 where we demonstrate the flexibility of travel for each of the categories from the point of view of airline fare pricing and validity.

There are many other ways to classify tourists. These range from simple demographic and trip classifications, through to their lifestyles and personalities, to their perception of risk and familiarity and post-modern interpretations of consumers and commodities. However, one approach with increasing relevance to contemporary tourism is to classify tourists according to their level and type of interaction with the destination.

Classifications of tourists that adopt this approach commonly place mass tourism at one extreme and some form of alternative, small-scale tourism at the other, with a variety of classes in between. It is then argued that mass tourism has a major impact upon the destination because of the sheer scale of the industry and the nature of the consumer. On the other hand, small-scale, alternative types of tourism are said to have a much reduced impact upon the destination, not only because of the type of consumer involved but also because they will shun the travel trade and stay in local pensions or with families. It is argued, then, that the impact of this type of tourism is less disruptive than that of mass tourism.

However, some commentators have over-simplified the complex relationship between the consumption and development of tourism resources. This is particularly true of the so-called ‘alternative’ tourism movement which is lauded by some as a solution to the ills of mass tourism. Indeed, the tenor of much of the writing about alternative tourism is that any alternative tourism scheme is good whilst all mass tourism is bad. There is, of course, a case for alternative tourism, but only as another form of tourism in the spectrum. It can never be an alternative to mass tourism, nor can it solve all the problems of tourism (Archer *et al.*, 2004).

These issues, and the fallacy of lauding ‘alternative’ tourism as a literal alternative to mass tourism, come into clear focus when examined against the frameworks of analysis developed

in this book. For example, only by matching appropriate types of visitor to particular types of destination will truly sustainable tourism development be achieved. This leads us to consider the fact that the configuration of the components of Leiper's tourism system combine to create a wide variety of different forms of tourism. These forms of tourism are created by an interaction with the type of destination and the market. Here, the nature of the destination influences the other components of the tourism system, namely the market with its particular motivations to travel, and the means of transport used. Thus we can distinguish many forms of tourism, including heritage, cultural, urban, rural, eco- and nature-based tourism. The following case study shows how we can apply the idea of Leiper's tourism system to a particular form of tourism – ecotourism.

## Mini Case Study 1.2

### Characteristics of Elements of the Ecotourism System



The distinctive characteristics of the system that make up ecotourism are as follows:

### Generating Region

Demand for ecotourism:

- is purposeful;
- is poorly documented;
- desires first-hand experience/contact with nature/culture;
- has the motive to study, admire and/or enjoy nature/culture;
- is tempered by the need to consume tourism responsibly and offset carbon emissions;
- can be segmented in many ways including by level of commitment, level of physical effort, motives; and
- comes from those who are more likely to be well educated, have a higher income and be slightly older than the average tourist.



Sensitive destinations such as the Galapagos benefit from ecotourism.

Source: Photolibary.com/Jon Warbuton-Lee

## Destination Region

Destinations for ecotourism:

- are relatively natural areas which are undisturbed and/or uncontaminated;
- have attractions of scenery, flora, fauna and/or indigenous culture;
- allow ecotourism to deliver economic and conservation benefits to the local people, including employment;
- develop ecotourism with a view to conserving/enhancing/maintaining the natural/cultural system;
- apply integrated planning and management techniques;
- apply environmental impact and auditing procedures to all elements of the tourism destination (such as accommodation – a major emitter of carbon, and other facilities);
- attempt to be carbon neutral; and
- encourage local ownership of facilities.

## Transit Zone

Transport for ecotourism should:

- monitor emissions and environmental impacts;
- be of low impact to the environment in terms of noise, carbon emissions, congestion, fuel consumption and waste;
- promote the conservation ethic;
- be used as a management tool;
- encourage use of public transport;
- encourage the use of locally owned transport companies.

However, reaching a long-haul ecotourism destination may consume large amounts of aircraft fuel and be more damaging to the environment than the tourist realises, and thus defeat the purpose of the trip itself.

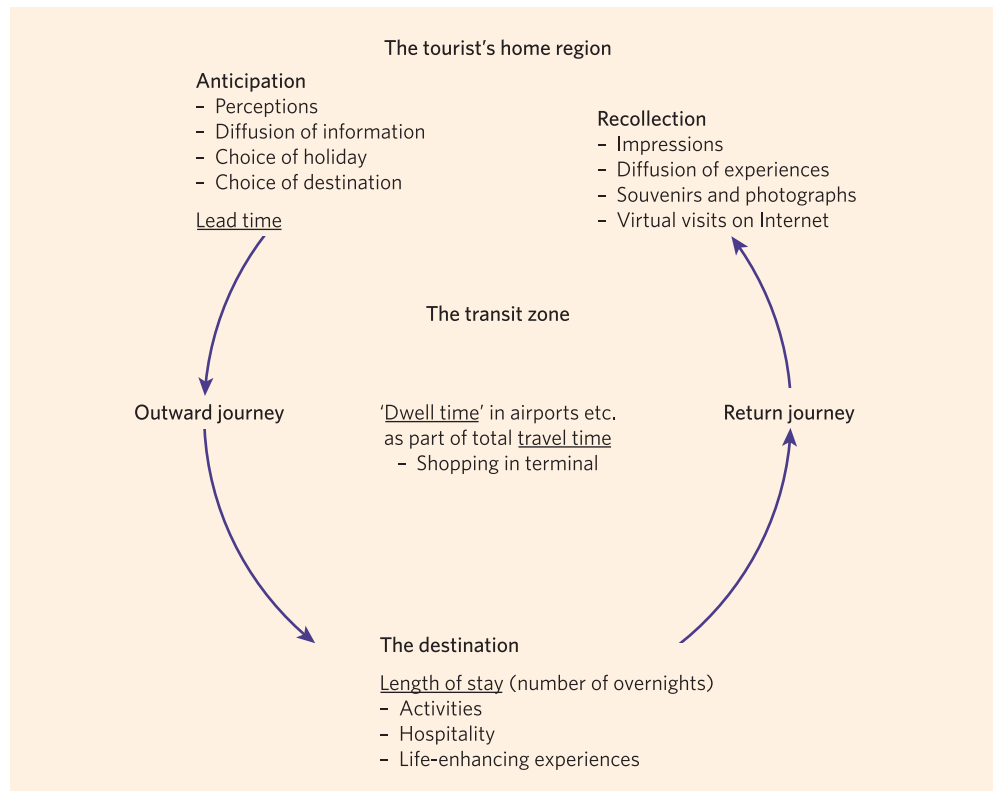
## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Do the principles of ecotourism apply equally to each of the elements of the ecotourism system?
2. Should ecotourists be true to their beliefs and offset their carbon emissions?
3. There is a view that ecotourism is used by developers as a 'soft' medium to access valued natural resources to 'pave the way' for more aggressive tourism development – do you agree with this view?

## The Tourist Experience

Finally, in analysing tourism, it is easy to forget the tourist as an individual and the extent to which travel and recreation satisfy the need for self-fulfilment through experiences. Tourism is very much a part of the 'experience economy' and the design, staging, marketing and evaluation of the experience has become an important part of tourism product design (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Every tourism trip can be thought of as an experience with a series of stages:

1. **The anticipation phase.** This phase takes place before the trip and involves perceptions and expectations of the destinations as the tourist embarks on making their travel decision.
2. **The realisation phase.** In the realisation phase, the destination experience is the goal of the trip and is combined with both the outward and return journeys as part of the total experience (Figure 1.8). It is here that the tourist can instantly communicate their impressions of the experience to the world, for instance through blogs or twitter ([www.twitter.com](http://www.twitter.com)).
3. **The recollection phase.** This phase follows the trip, when the extent to which the quality of these experiences met expectations will influence future travel decisions.



**Figure 1.8** The travel experience

Source: Boniface and Cooper, 2009

## SUMMARY

Although tourism has long historical roots, mass tourism is a relatively recent activity. As a result, while it has experienced unprecedented growth rates in the past four decades, the study of tourism inevitably lacks the maturity of other subject areas and disciplines. This lack of maturity is manifested in many ways, not least the lack of agreement as to what actually constitutes tourism activity on both the demand and supply side. Nevertheless, the economic importance of tourism has guaranteed increased governmental and international attention. Accompanying this there has been not only a growing recognition of the significance and importance of tourism and the need to be able to define and measure all aspects of it, but also a need for the sustainable development and management of tourism. Of course, recent natural and man-made events have checked the inexorable growth of tourism, but overall the sector has demonstrated its resilience to such setbacks.

This introduction provides the basic underpinning framework for the remainder of this book, offering contemporary views on important tourism-related definitions, acquainting the reader with the fundamentals of the history of tourism, the dynamics of the tourism system and how they conspire to create different forms of tourism. We believe that in a rapidly changing world it is important to have enduring organising frameworks within which to locate changing practices, world events and their implications for tourism and future trends which will impact on how tourism operates.

## Discussion Questions

1. Draft a justification for the introduction of a new tourism programme at your educational institution.
2. It has been suggested that tourism is a fragmented sector in search of an industry. Discuss this assertion.
3. Design a PowerPoint presentation outlining the role of transport in the history of tourism since 1840.
4. In groups, design a table describing as many forms of mobility as you can think of – for example, commuting, migration, day trips. In a second column, identify with reasons those that can be thought of as tourism and those that cannot.
5. Discuss the view that responsible tourism can never be a replacement for mass tourism.

## Annotated Further Reading

1. Cooper, C., Gilbert, D., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A. and Wanhill, S. (2008) *Tourism Principles and Practice*, Pearson, Harlow.  
A comprehensive leading tourism text.
2. Goeldner, C.R. and Brent Ritchie, J.R. (2009). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, 11th edn, Wiley, Hoboken, NJ.  
A comprehensive textbook with a strong North American flavour.
3. Hall, C.M., Williams, A. and Lew, A. (2008) *A Companion to Tourism*, Blackwell, Oxford.  
An excellent and thorough tourism handbook.
4. Hannan, K. and Knox, D. (2010) *Understanding Tourism. A Critical Introduction*, Sage, London.  
A refreshing new approach to tourism.
5. Jafari, J. (2001) *The Encyclopedia of Tourism*, Routledge, London.  
A comprehensive volume with definitive statements on every tourism term written by the leading expert in each field.
6. Page, S. and Connell, J. (2009) *Tourism. A Modern Synthesis*, Cengage Learning, Andover.  
A classic tourism text.
7. Towner, J. (1996) *Historical Geography of Recreation and Tourism in the Western World: 1540–1940*, Wiley, Chichester.  
The best text covering tourism history.
8. Urry, J. (2000) *Sociology Beyond Societies. Mobilities for the Twenty-First Century*, Routledge, London.  
A refreshingly different approach, focusing on the concept of mobilities and tourism.
9. [www.unwto.org](http://www.unwto.org)  
An all-embracing website providing the official United Nations' view on tourism issues such as pro-poor tourism and providing definitions, definitive statistics and approaches to tourism.
10. [www.wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)  
A comprehensive website from the private sector's representative body for tourism, with up-to-date statistics and reports on the tourism industry and its contribution to economies.



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## Major Case Study 1.1

### The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies



#### Introduction

In this chapter, we have focused on the development of tourism as a subject and the key concepts and definitions that are related to tourism. However, we have also seen new ideas emerging such as the notion of tourism as one form of 'mobility'. In the twenty-first century, other ways of thinking about tourism are emerging, most notably the 'critical turn in tourism studies' movement.

The development of tourism as a subject has matured since the late 1970s. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the field of tourism studies was in an early stage of development, focusing more on the vocational needs of the travel and accommodation sector, than developing tourism concepts and ideas. The 1980s saw the development of the first degrees dedicated to tourism, and with this came a growth in the number of tourism researchers, books and journals. The 1980s saw a focus of tourism research and teaching upon management and economic aspects of tourism, recognising the significance of tourism as an economic sector, but also attentive to the potential negative consequences of tourism for both the environment and societies. The late twentieth century saw the emergence of a new generation of PhD qualified university researchers with an interest in tourism. This second generation of tourism scholars were found across the world, particularly in Asia, contrasting markedly with earlier scholars who were predominantly from English speaking countries of the UK, Canada, the USA, Australia and New Zealand. Since the publication of John Urry's 'The Tourist Gaze' in 1990, they have been part of a 'quiet revolution' that has shaken up traditional approaches and is rethinking the way that we research and teach tourism.

#### The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies

This second generation of tourism scholars has been critical of earlier work in tourism, suggesting that research papers and projects have simply begun to reaffirm previous findings, lack innovation and focus overtly on business, management and economic aspects of tourism, whilst ignoring other social science perspectives. In other words, they suggest that tourism studies has become dominated by a particular way of viewing tourism, a perspective that is rooted in the more vocationally-focused business and management paradigm. They feel that tourism studies needs to move on from this tradition which often views tourism in isolation and embrace new ways of thinking – perspectives that are rooted in the Frankfurt School of critical theorists.

This new perspective has become known as the *critical turn in tourism studies*. It is based upon taking perspectives of cultural studies, feminism, ethics, post-modernism, power/politics, world-making and mobilities and applying them

to tourism. It is also based upon the use of new and innovative methodologies moving tourism on from the more scientific and quantitative paradigm that dominated earlier work and using more qualitative and experimental techniques. In other words, it is an attempt to break through the traditional discipline boundaries of, say, economics as a lens through which to view tourism. The critical turn began with a conference in Dubrovnik in 2005, followed by two further conferences along the same theme. It is also interesting that these conferences have created their own networks of scholars and a strong following. Two books have also been written focusing around this new agenda for tourism studies (Ateljevic *et al.*, 2007; 2010).

All students, researchers and teachers of tourism should embrace this new agenda in the classroom and in dissertations and research projects. It challenges traditional ways of thinking about tourism: student dissertations for example will need to rethink their topics and ethical stance and approach the research in different ways as a result of the 'critical turn'.

However, whilst the critical turn in tourism studies provides a new way of thinking about tourism, this does not mean that earlier approaches, rooted in business management and economics are incorrect; nor are other more contemporary approaches – such as the post-disciplinary one – mentioned in this chapter to be discarded. The critical turn is but one new way of approaching tourism (Bianchi, 2009). This is a symptom of tourism emerging as a more mature subject, embracing new ways of thinking and researching to create a more rounded picture of the tourist and the destination. It is exciting to see new approaches to the study of tourism emerge and we are sure that the 'critical turn' will set a new agenda for teaching and researching tourism.

#### DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. The critical turn in tourism studies overtly moves away from tourism as a vocational study – do you agree with this approach?
2. Draft a justification for a course/module in your degree programme that focuses on the 'critical turn'.
3. The 'critical turn' focuses upon a more ethical approach to tourism research. Why do you think this is needed?

##### Sources:

- Ateljevic, I., Morgan, N. and Pritchard, A. (2007) *Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Creating an Academy of Hope*, Elsevier, Oxford.
- Ateljevic, I., Morgan, N. and Pritchard, A. (2010) *Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Innovative Research Methodologies*, Routledge, London.
- Bianchi, R. (2009) 'The "critical turn" in tourism studies. A radical critique', *Tourism Geographies* 11 (4), 484–504.
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# PART 3

## TOURISM SECTOR ESSENTIALS

In this section, we consider the tourism sector, made up of both the private and the public sector. In terms of the private sector we consider attractions, hospitality, transportation and intermediaries – tour operators and travel agents. It is important not to neglect government as they have a major stake in tourism in most destinations, not only in terms of planning and regulation, but also often owning many key attractions such as coastlines, national parks and the built heritage.

Tourism is often described as one of the world's largest industries, with large figures quoted for the value of the tourism industry and the numbers it employs. The tourism sector sprawls across many parts of the economy, and commentators agree that it does not form a coherent industry from an economic point of view. This is because many actors are involved in delivering the tourism product such that tourism is in fact only partially an industry as governments, communities and others are involved in delivering the product.

Together, tourism businesses form the contemporary tourism sector, the machinery of tourism production which manipulates the tourist experience and permits it to happen. As we see in the following chapters, in recent years the sector has been restructured in response to technology, changing consumer demand, increasing concentration in the industry and the demands of flexible specialisation, all of which create networks of supply and destinations with vertical, horizontal and diagonal integration. Technology, in particular, has had a major impact upon tourism businesses, especially intermediaries, whilst the carbon debate and 'wild card' events such as the 2010 Icelandic ash cloud have impacted upon air transport.

We also show in this section that the tourism industry is highly diverse and fragmented and made up predominantly of small businesses and entrepreneurs. This has implications for the level of management competence in tourism, the ability of the sector to innovate and, above all, to invest in new products and ideas.

# CHAPTER 7

## ATTRACTIONS

### Learning Outcomes

This chapter considers visitor attractions as the key element of the destination, motivating the visit and energising the total tourism system. The chapter outlines approaches to defining and classifying attractions before considering how visitor attractions are managed and their future. The chapter is designed to provide you with:

- an awareness of the issues surrounding definitions of attractions;
- an understanding of the various approaches available to classify attractions;
- an appreciation of the economics of attractions;
- an understanding of the key management issues and approaches for attractions; and
- insights into the future of attractions.



## Introduction

Visitor attractions are the *raison d'être* for tourism: they generate the visit, give rise to excursion circuits and create an industry of their own. As such, they are the main motivator for travel, energising the tourism system and providing tourists with the reason to visit a destination. Indeed, such is the power of attractions that they can transform a destination from the mundane to the spectacular as we have seen with Dubai. Clare Gunn (1972) puts it well, describing attractions as lodestones for pleasure.

It is therefore important from the outset to understand the distinction between attractions, which are the *motivators* of the visit, and support services, such as accommodation, transport and retail, that *facilitate* the visit. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule in destinations such as Las Vegas where support services such as hospitality are an integral part of the attraction in their large themed casinos. Attractions appeal to different visitor audiences from international and domestic tourists, through to day visitors, local residents and those visiting friends and relatives.

Attractions have a long history, featuring strongly in Grand Tour itineraries, for example. They have developed hand-in-hand with transportation, particularly since the advent of the railway in the mid-nineteenth century and then the boom in tourism demand following the Second World War, when purpose-built attractions were further developed and grew. This long pedigree has left a heritage of custom and practice in managing attractions that has survived from the past and is still in use today.

## Defining Visitor Attractions

Definitions of visitor attractions are difficult because the environment within which they operate is so dynamic – a definition today may seem dated in 10 years time. It is nonetheless important to define attractions for statistical measurement purposes and to allow comparison of, say, performance. In part, the lack of an accepted definition is due to the fact that research into attractions and their management is not as developed as in other parts of tourism. This makes the comparison of attraction statistics difficult internationally. Effectively, we can think of an attraction as:

Anything that has sufficient appeal to 'attract' a visit.

Defining attractions is made more difficult by the fact that they come in a variety of forms, including fixed points, such as museums, or linear attractions, such as heritage railways. They can be distinguished from the broader concept of a destination by virtue of their smaller size and the fact that they are based upon a key feature. The link between attractions and the destination is an intimate one, however. Destinations are finding it increasingly difficult to compete in the visitor economy and increasingly use attractions as one means to differentiate their appeal to the market.

## Characteristics of Visitor Attractions

We can identify five main characteristics of visitor attractions:

1. **Cultural appraisals.** Attractions are a tourism resource, and this means that what is attractive to one tourist may not be to another. The sector, and indeed the tourist, therefore has to recognise that an attraction is of value before it can become an attraction and draw visits. For example, until the eighteenth century, mountains were viewed by most people in the West as places to be feared, rather than as scenic attractions. Similarly, until sunbathing became fashionable in the 1920s, the combination of sun, sand and sea was not seen as a valuable attraction, and we are now beginning to see people's perceptions of the beach holiday change again due to fears of skin cancer. In other words, the core product of the attraction has to be seen to have a utility for the tourist and so be worth the visit. An interesting example here is the concept of 'dark tourism' where sites such as battlefields or concentration camps become attractions, but only after an acceptable interval of time has passed. Attractions are therefore inherently dynamic and can pass into and out of favour. New technologies also allow attractions to come to life – wet suits, for example, have lengthened the surfing season at many coastal destinations.
2. **Multiple use.** Many visitor attractions are not used exclusively by tourists. Apart from resort areas or theme parks where tourism is the dominant use, natural and built heritage attractions are shared with other uses such as, say, agriculture, forestry, religion or residents using local services. In national parks, for example, tourism is a significant use but rarely the dominant one, and this can lead to conflict, with tourism, as a latecomer, being 'fitted in' with other users. This is known as *multiple use*, and it needs skilful management and coordination of users to be successful.
3. **Perishability.** Visitor attractions are perishable in two senses. Firstly, they can suffer from intensive use, with daily and seasonal peaking and the consequent pressure upon the attraction. This means that they need effective visitor management. Secondly, in common with many service industries, attractions are also perishable in another sense. Visitor days or ride seats in theme parks are impossible to stock and have to be consumed when and where they exist. This has led to the development of techniques such as differential pricing and timed tickets to maximise the use of the attraction. It has also led some attractions,

such as museums and zoos, to allow visitor entry at night in order to maximise the available time for income generation (see, for example, the sleepovers now allowed at Sydney's Taronga Zoo – [taronga.org.au](http://taronga.org.au)).

4. **Economic significance.** Visitor attractions, including events, play an important part in the visitor economy of a destination, generating income, jobs and competitiveness for the destination. Although they motivate the visit, attractions themselves do not receive the majority of tourists' expenditure, which tends to be upon accommodation and transportation. However, attractions often form the centrepiece of regional development and civic regeneration schemes, providing an anchor for both tourism and residents' visits.
5. **Ownership.** Perhaps surprisingly, the attractions' sector is not dominated by large corporations such as Disney, although they do dominate in terms of good practice. Instead, the operation and ownership of attractions is fragmented across a variety of organisations, including the private sector, the public sector and voluntary organisations such as charities. Indeed, one of the reasons why attractions have been a late entry into serious academic research is the fact that the sector is dominated by small attractions, often with limited resources and development potential. Charities include the National Trust in the UK ([www.nationaltrust.org.uk](http://www.nationaltrust.org.uk)) who operate a large number of properties or the National Trust for Historic Preservation in the USA ([www.preservationnation.org/](http://www.preservationnation.org/)). The public sector is heavily involved in owning attractions because it is the guardian of the historic, cultural and natural heritage in many countries. However, in some parts of the world other agencies have had to step in as shown in the following case study on Cambodia.

### Mini Case Study 7.1

#### Heritage Watch, Cambodia



Cambodia's attractions are at risk from looters and poor management.

Source: © Joy Cash





## Introduction

Cambodia and other countries of South East Asia are rich in heritage attractions. Indeed, these attractions are vital in allowing South East Asian countries to differentiate themselves from other destinations based upon more ubiquitous resort tourism. Cambodia, for example, has become known worldwide for the temples at Angkor Wat. However, these very attractions have become increasingly vulnerable to theft, damage, looting and degradation from other developments. Indeed, tourism in countries such as Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam operates against a background of corruption and poverty. The temptation to exploit the rich heritage is therefore strong, and many crimes, such as looting, are driven by poverty. The trade in antiquities is flourishing in South East Asia, a trade that involves theft of artefacts and sculptures and degrades not just the tourist attractions of the country, but also their historical record. This is particularly the case in poorer parts of the world where resources to research the historic record are not available. The Heritage Watch organisation in Cambodia has led the way in protecting the country's heritage attractions using a variety of approaches.

## Heritage Watch

Heritage Watch was created in 2003 to combat a sharp rise in the destruction of heritage attractions and looting. It is a non-profit organisation 'dedicated to protecting Cambodia's cultural heritage' with a mission of 'preserving the past, enriching the future'. The main goals of the organisation are to 'prevent the looting and illicit trade of antiquities in Cambodia while promoting tourism and economic development that is responsible, sustainable and heritage friendly'. Heritage Watch utilises the power of tourism stakeholders to get its message across to tourists, the industry, schools, universities and the Cambodian population.

Heritage Watch has a major campaign which includes training for heritage site security guards, a confidential telephone hotline where people can safely report suspected looting and corruption, education for the tourism sector about ancient and modern Cambodia and its customs, and the urgent need to protect Cambodia's cultural heritage. Travellers learn about responsible tourism practices, unique places to visit in Cambodia, and how to support 'heritage friendly' businesses.

To quote the website, the mandate of Heritage Watch is to:

- Study threats to cultural heritage, including the illicit trade in antiquities, the looting of archaeological sites and loss of historic architecture.
- Educate the public on the importance of heritage resources.
- Increase access to, and awareness of, national and international law affecting cultural property and work with the authorities to implement, enforce and improve the law.
- Promote responsible tourism that furthers cultural and economic development and encourage the tourism industry to support the arts, culture, heritage and development.
- Foster communication between relevant governmental and intergovernmental agencies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), academic institutions and individuals.

Heritage Watch has launched a number of initiatives to address the problem of the destruction of Cambodia's heritage attractions:

1. Reducing demand for antiquities through:
  - airport kiosks displaying looted items;
  - monitoring and documenting the antiquities trade with a database; and
  - education and awareness campaigns.
2. Reducing the supply of antiquities through:
  - village workshops to raise awareness of the problem;
  - NGO workshops;
  - public service announcements;
  - sustainable development and heritage preservation campaigns;
  - protection of historic architecture including colonial buildings;
  - rescue excavations;
  - involving children and schools.

## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Draft a marketing campaign targeted at tour operators to persuade them to support Heritage Watch.
2. Research tourism in Cambodia. How important is the country's heritage as an attraction compared to, say, natural attractions?
3. In class, debate whether the root cause of the problems faced by heritage attractions in South East Asia stems from poverty.

Sources:

<http://www.heritagewatchinternational.org>

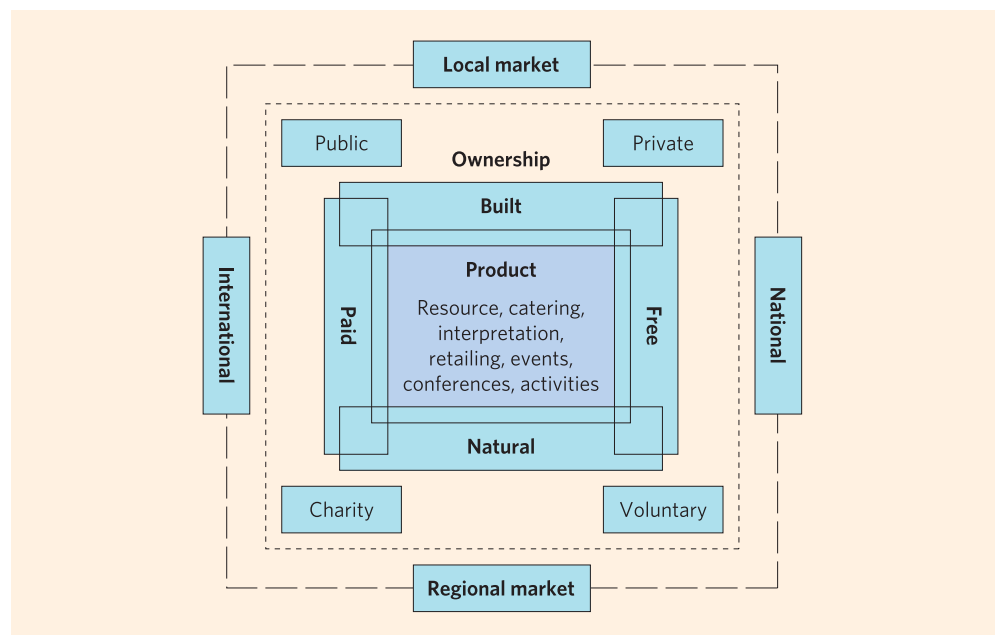
[http://www.Tourismfortomorrow.com/Case\\_Studies/](http://www.Tourismfortomorrow.com/Case_Studies/)

## Classifying Visitor Attractions

There are many approaches to classifying visitor attractions, some obvious, others simplistic and some that offer real insights into the core of the attraction and its management. Leask (2008) has neatly encapsulated the many approaches into one diagram (Figure 7.1).

### Degree of Development

One of the most useful approaches is by Clawson (Clawson and Knetsch, 1966). It is also one of the oldest and was designed for the broader categories of recreational resources, but it works well for attractions and provides insights into their management and operation. Clawson views attractions as forming a continuum from intensive theme park development at one extreme to wilderness attractions at the other. His scheme, therefore, incorporates the



**Figure 7.1** Classification of visitor attractions

Source: Leask, 2008

**Table 7.1** A classification of recreational resources

Use-orientated	Intermediate	Resource-based
Based on resource close to the user. Often artificial developments (city parks, stadiums, etc.). Highly intensive developments. Activities often highly seasonal, closing in off-peak	Best resources available within accessible distance to users. Access very important. Natural resources more significant than user-orientated facilities, but these experience a high degree of visitor pressure	Outstanding resources. Based on their location, not that of the market. Primary focus is resource quality. Often distant from user, the resource determines the activity
Reproducible ←————→		Non-reproducible
Activity paramount ←————→		Resource paramount
Artificiality ←————→		Naturalness
←———— Intensity of development ———→		
Proximity ←————→	Distance from user	Remoteness
<b>Examples of activities:</b> Golf Tennis Spectator sports Visits to theme parks, zoos, resorts, etc.	<b>Examples of activities:</b> Yachting Windsurfing Boating Camping Hiking Angling Field sports Downhill skiing Snowboarding	<b>Examples of activities:</b> Sightseeing Mountain climbing Trekking Safaris Expeditions Surfing Whitewater rafting Canoeing Potholing Scuba diving
<b>Typical resource:</b> Theme park	<b>Typical resource:</b> Heathland	<b>Typical resource:</b> Unique historical monument National park

Source: Boniface and Cooper, 2009

core of the attraction itself, the market place and management issues. Clawson’s three basic categories are:

- 1. User-oriented attractions** of highly intensive development close to population centres. This would include theme parks, zoos and museums – in other words, attractions designed specifically with a particular market in mind and located strategically to attract that market. Here, management issues relate to managing large numbers of visitors.
- 2. Resource-based attractions** where the core product determines the market but the location is determined by the product itself – examples here would include significant natural attractions, such as the Grand Canyon, or cultural icon attractions, such as the Taj Mahal. Here, management issues are more concerned with managing visitation and protecting the attraction from damage.
- 3. An intermediate category**, where access is the determining factor and the market is more regional or local. Examples would include local arts festivals or regional forest parks.

In Table 7.1 we relate a selection of recreation activities to Clawson’s classification.

Another way of thinking about attractions, related to Clawson’s ideas, is to distinguish *reproducible* attractions (those which can be replaced, such as theme parks) from *non-reproducible* attractions which, if lost, are irreplaceable, such as elements of the natural and cultural heritage.

Market	Image	
	Current	New
Current	Q I 'Me too' attraction	Q II 'Grand inspiration' attraction
New	Q III 'New version' attraction	Q IV 'Wonder' attraction

**Figure 7.2** The attraction market-imagescape mix

Source: Fyall *et al.*, 2008

## Market Perception

A second innovative approach to classifying attractions is provided by Wanhill (2008a). He also takes a broader view of how attractions fit into the wider resource base of the destination and how they are viewed by the market (see Figure 7.2). He classifies attractions into four main types:

1. **Me-too attractions** use a tried and tested core product such as, say a museum, and therefore involve relatively low risk because other, similar attractions can be used to benchmark against them.
2. **Grand inspiration attractions** are higher risk operations because they may be the inspiration of one person and not fit well into the rest of the destination. Here, the classic examples of such an attraction – the Disney theme parks – have been a spectacular success.
3. **New version attractions** seek new markets by diversifying geographically, for example a national museum with regional branches, or by extending the core product of the attraction through, say, adding a theme park to a traditional zoo, as has happened at Chessington World of Adventures near London ([www.chessington.com/](http://www.chessington.com/)).
4. **Wonder attractions** are iconic attractions on a large scale, often involving significant public sector support. An example here would be London's Millennium Dome ([www.theo2.co.uk/](http://www.theo2.co.uk/)).

## Nature of Core Product

However, by far the most common approach to classifying visitor attractions is by the nature of their core product. Like Clawson's approach, this too has a long pedigree dating from the USA's Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission in the early 1960s. It has since been adapted by a number of authors including Swarbrooke (2001). The basic approach takes a simple division of natural or man-made attractions:

- cultural or human-made attractions such as theme parks, townscapes, museums, national monuments; and
- natural attractions such as wilderness areas and national parks.

This division is problematic, however, given that all visitor attractions are inherently cultural appraisals. Indeed, a decision to set aside an area as a national park is as much a reflection of culture as it would be to farm the same area of land. The classification also omits attractions such as events. Clearly, then, the simple two-fold classification needs to be developed further as follows (Swarbrooke, 2001):

1. natural attractions;
2. man-made visitor attractions;
3. man-made and purpose-built visitor attractions; and
4. event attractions.

### Natural Attractions

Natural attractions include rivers, lakes, beaches, caves, scenic features such as the Victoria Falls, flora and fauna, national parks, wilderness areas and forests. These are often, though not exclusively, in public ownership and demand strict management regimes to protect them from tourist use. These attractions would be classified as resource-based attractions by Clawson.

Many such attractions are not commercially viable in terms of the investment costs and the operating budgets needed to establish and maintain them. They are, therefore, in public ownership because it is unlikely that the commercial market could sustain them. Public ownership secures such attractions for the population and helps to conserve and manage their natural beauty, flora and fauna. In the USA, for example, the vast majority of outdoor recreation areas, such as national parks, are owned by the government. Here, the first US national park, Yellowstone, was created in 1872 ([www.nps.gov/yell/](http://www.nps.gov/yell/)), whilst in the UK they came later with the 1945 National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act – indeed, national parks are still being created in the UK.

### Man-made Visitor Attractions

Man-made visitor attractions that were not originally designed to attract tourists include historic houses, castles and cathedrals. In this category, we can place heritage attractions, archaeological attractions, such as Stonehenge ([www.english-heritage.org.uk/daysout/properties/stonehenge/](http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/daysout/properties/stonehenge/)), and battlefields, including First World War sites in northern France. Many heritage attractions have been built around existing towns, villages or settlements, such as Colonial Williamsburg in the USA ([www.colonialwilliamsburg.com/](http://www.colonialwilliamsburg.com/)), or complexes of buildings in conservation areas and city centres, such as the rebuilt old city of Warsaw in Poland. In Northern Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand these heritage attractions are conserved and protected. Elsewhere in the world, however, this is not the case and many are lost to development – Singapore, for example, has lost the majority of its old buildings, and in other countries historic buildings and monuments are poorly maintained. Archaeological remains are even more difficult to protect; often they are in the centre of cities and destroyed by developers, or they are in remoter rural areas. Equally they can be sensitive to the environment, as with the prehistoric caves at Lascaux where an artificial version has now been created to deflect visitation ([www.lascaux.culture.fr/](http://www.lascaux.culture.fr/)). These attractions, and others such as heritage and visitor centres, have been criticised as overly commercialising or even patronising history by turning it into a commodity to be consumed and purchased by the tourist.

We can also place industrial and transport attractions into this category. They are interesting because they exemplify the notion of resources that become attractions by virtue of the market wanting to visit. We can include here wineries, factories and industrial archaeology. The marketing of industrial heritage as an attraction is very powerful and is exemplified by the Blackstone Valley in the USA, or by Ironbridge Gorge in the UK ([www.ironbridge.org.uk/](http://www.ironbridge.org.uk/)). Some companies have leveraged from the demand to visit by creating a themed attraction alongside the factory, as has happened at Cadbury World in the UK ([www.cadburyworld.co.uk/](http://www.cadburyworld.co.uk/)). In terms of transport, heritage railways and tramways create linear attractions, whilst iconic destinations such as the departure and arrival point of immigrants to the USA are popular. Historic ships are also being created as attractions as with the Cunard Liners now moored in Long Beach California and Dubai. Other attractions in this category include backstage tours, theatre tours, tours of TV and film locations and behind-the-scenes visits to famous sporting venues such as the Melbourne Cricket Ground ([www.mcg.org.au](http://www.mcg.org.au)). The following case study details the concept and management of a historic Gold Fields attraction in Australia.

## Mini Case Study 7.2

### Sovereign Hill, Australia



#### Introduction

Based in the Australian state of Victoria, Sovereign Hill is a cutting-edge visitor attraction recreating a goldfields township. Effectively an outdoor heritage museum, the attraction has an impressive range of heritage buildings, role-playing costumed staff and realistic visitor activities such as panning for gold. Sovereign Hill opened in 1970 in recognition of the need to preserve the town of Ballarat's gold mining heritage. The attraction dominates the town and has spawned other smaller attractions locally.

#### The Sovereign Hill Experience

The central theme of the attraction is gold, and the core of the attraction is the goldfields township and its people. The site spreads over 25 hectares where visitors are encouraged to come in costume. They can take part in the daily routine of the community, see demonstrations of crafts and activities such as firing muskets, see the steam engines and working horses that were part of the gold mines, tour the mines, as well as taking part in hands-on activities supervised by costumed staff, who are also trained interpreters. Despite the 1850s theme, Sovereign Hill has contemporary facilities such as themed restaurants and shops, wheelchairs for hire and ATMs. Recently, Sovereign Hill has converted some historic buildings into on-site accommodation for visitors. This not only acts as an additional revenue stream but also allows promotions such as 'A Night at the Museum'.

The goldfields township is augmented by other features including:

- the Gold Museum;
- a sound and light show - 'Blood on the Southern Cross'; and
- a range of educational programmes at the attraction's Narmbool facility.

#### The Management of Sovereign Hill

Sovereign Hill employs 200 staff, has access to 300 volunteers and is estimated to contribute A\$35 million to the local economy. It is one of the most successful tourist attractions in Australia. This has been achieved by professional management and a keen understanding of visitor needs. The attraction is run by the Sovereign Hill Museums Association as a not-for-profit, community-based organisation. As a result, any profit is reinvested into the attraction, and this has resulted in a highly professional, impressive operation.

The attraction's website recounts the mission and vision:

'Our *vision* is to be a leader amongst the world's best outdoor heritage museums'.

'Our *mission* is to present, in a dynamic group of museums, the mining, social, cultural and environmental heritage of the Ballarat region and its impact on Australia's national story'.

In terms of its careful engineering of the visitor experience, Sovereign Hill has six key guiding principles that have led to its success:

1. Ensure that our visitors are engaged, informed, entertained and become our best advocates.
2. Nurture our integrity as a museum, whereby we acquire, conserve, research, communicate and exhibit, for purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material pertinent to the history of Ballarat and its environs.
3. Inform, entertain and involve our visitors without compromising our integrity as a museum, with an emphasis on Australian history and underpinned by good scholarship.
4. Achieve the highest standards of customer service in all aspects of our work and measure our success as an organisation by the quality of visitors' experiences.
5. Ensure dignity and respect for our colleagues, and ensure a happy and safe working environment where innovation is encouraged and where the contribution of each member of the Sovereign Hill community is valued.
6. Promote our links with, and involvement in, the local, state, national and international communities.



## DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. In class, debate how Sovereign Hill might be seen as part of Pine and Gilmore's (1999) notion of the 'experience economy'.
2. Draft a press release promoting the core values of Sovereign Hill.
3. The success of Sovereign Hill lies in its total dedication to delivering a high quality visitor experience. How true is this statement?

Sources: Pine, J.B. and Gilmore, J.H. (1999) *The Experience Economy*, Harvard Business School Press, Harvard, MA.  
[www.sovereignhill.com.au](http://www.sovereignhill.com.au)

### Man-made and Purpose-built Visitor Attractions

Man-made and purpose-built visitor attractions are created with the purpose of attracting tourists. In this category, we can include museums, art galleries, exhibition centres, casinos, theme parks, aqua-parks, zoos and aquaria. Zoos, menageries and aquaria have a long history and are now reinventing themselves as foci of conservation to deflect the criticism of cruelty and stress to animals. Artificial environments such as the UK's Eden Project in Cornwall ([www.edenproject.com/](http://www.edenproject.com/)), or indoor rainforests in the USA, such as the Lied Jungle in Nebraska ([www.omahazoo.com](http://www.omahazoo.com)), and Australia, in the Sydney Aquarium ([sydneyaquarium.myfun.com.au/](http://sydneyaquarium.myfun.com.au/)), are now being created alongside existing attractions. Safari Parks are, of course, the staple attraction of southern African countries.

Museums and galleries are now shrugging off their old-fashioned image and developing technologically-driven displays and special exhibitions, again in a bid to reinvent themselves to appeal to new audiences. Many iconic museums such as the Guggenheim in New York ([www.guggenheim.org/](http://www.guggenheim.org/)) and Bilbao, the Smithsonian in Washington and the British Museum in London ([www.britishmuseum.org](http://www.britishmuseum.org)) are significant attractions in their own right.

Other attractions in this category include recreation attractions such as swimming pools, golf courses and major shopping venues. Whilst we think of shopping as mainly a support facility, it can be an attraction in its own right as at Subic Bay in the Philippines, a giant duty-free centre on the old US naval base ([www.visitsubic.com/](http://www.visitsubic.com/)). In the future, as large numbers of Asian tourists travel overseas, shopping will become an important part of the experience. Factory outlet shopping centres and large shopping malls such as the West Edmonton Mall in Canada ([www.wem.ca](http://www.wem.ca)) are attractions in their own right. Shopping, too, is a major attraction for cross-border tourism and capital city tourism.

### Event Attractions

Event attractions have been neglected as a category until recently. We include here the whole range of events from small community festivals to major 'hallmark' events such as pop festivals. Event attractions differ from other attractions because they occur only periodically and, in some cases, change venues. Major hallmark events include sporting occasions, notably the Football World Cup, the Commonwealth Games, Formula One Grand Prix and the Summer and Winter Olympics. Hallmark events present unique opportunities to promote the host country and have a spin-off effect encouraging other attractions nearby. They also require considerable investment in buildings and infrastructure, planning and organisation to safeguard the health, safety and security of visitors and participants, as we see below. Cultural event attractions of major international significance would include Rio de Janeiro's Carnival and the Edinburgh Festival.

### Combinations of Attractions

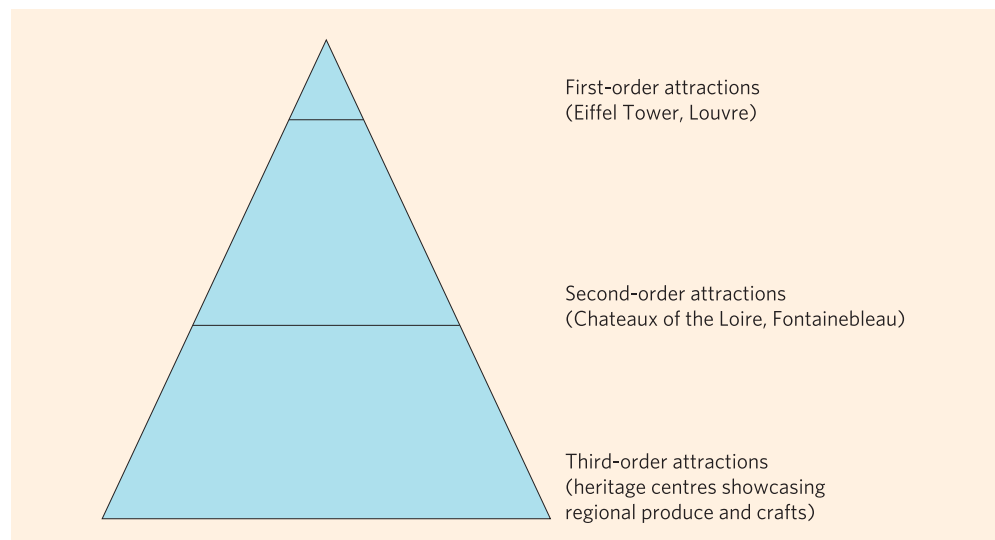
Of course, whilst it is useful to classify attractions, we must also recognise that it is often a combination of attractions that motivate a visit – a theme park combined with a casino as in

Sun City, South Africa, for example ([www.sun-city-south-africa.com/](http://www.sun-city-south-africa.com/)). Excursion itineraries are also important in allowing the visitor to see a number of attractions over a period of a few days – the golden triangle in India is a classic example here with Delhi, Jaipur and the Taj Mahal at Agra all on the circuit. This allows us to begin to think of a destination system of attractions with associated support facilities, signing and transport necessary to sustain tourism at the destination. Some destinations have adopted this system and cluster attractions together for marketing purposes to create critical mass and to attract visitors, including multiple pass tickets. Of course, this can be a problem where one attraction dominates and smaller satellite attractions suffer as a result, as we noted in the Sovereign Hill case study. Clustering does assist destinations in fostering a sense of cooperation (see, for example, the case study in Chapter 11 on the Hawke’s Bay Wine Country Tourism Association, New Zealand – [www.hawkesbaynz.com/](http://www.hawkesbaynz.com/)). As a result, forward-thinking tourism authorities have created strategies to support both fixed and event attractions in their destination.

## Other Approaches

Other approaches to classifying attractions include:

- By the size of the attraction. Page and Connell (2009) quote analysts who classify attractions by visitor numbers:
  - less than 50 000 visitors annually counts as a small attraction and would include a local museum;
  - 50 000–300 000 visitors annually, a medium-sized attraction; and
  - 300 000 visitors or more per year, a large attraction, such as the Smithsonian museum in Washington ([www.si.edu/](http://www.si.edu/)).
- By the ‘pulling power’ of the attraction (Figure 7.3). Iconic attractions are few in number but act as a magnet for tourists from all over the world, due to their status as national ‘icons’. Second-order attractions might be visited as part of an excursion circuit focusing on one or two major ‘sights’. Then there are a host of minor attractions which draw their visitors from within the immediate region.
- By primary attractions, which generate the visit, and secondary attractions which enhance the experience but do not necessarily motivate to visit the destination.



**Figure 7.3** A hierarchy of tourist attractions

Source: Boniface and Cooper, 2009



- By the pricing regime of the attraction – whether it is free or charges an admission fee, or has a combination of the two with free entry but an extra charge for special exhibitions.
- By ownership of the attraction.

## Specific Types of Visitor Attraction

Some specific types of visitor attractions meriting separate consideration are:

1. theme parks;
2. festivals and event attractions; and
3. iconic attractions.

### Theme Parks

Sometimes known as amusement parks, theme parks have a long history of entertaining visitors, dating back to the sixteenth century with the development of pleasure gardens in Copenhagen and, more recently, iconic theme parks such as the UK's Blackpool Pleasure Beach ([www.blackpoolpleasurebeach.com/](http://www.blackpoolpleasurebeach.com/)) and New York's Coney Island, site of the first roller coaster, the gravity pleasure switchback in 1884 ([www.coneyisland.com/](http://www.coneyisland.com/)). The industrial revolution saw a demand for amusement parks coincide with the development of engineering technology that enabled the rides to be constructed. The industry came of age in 1955 with the opening of Disneyland in California ([disneyland.disney.go.com/](http://disneyland.disney.go.com/)), followed by other parks in the USA, France, Japan and Hong Kong and the extension of the concept to studios and wildlife conservation. Disney transformed the concept of the amusement park into the



Disney theme parks are amongst the best managed in the world.

Source: © Mel Beard

theme park by extending the range of activities not only to rides, but also to parades, themed restaurants and accommodation and through the sheer professionalism of the corporation. Theme parks are increasingly based upon entertainment and media stars such as the Elvis Presley-based attraction Graceland (<http://www.elvis.com/graceland/>). This is reflected in the contemporary parks of film studios, such as Universal Studios ([www.universalorlando.com/](http://www.universalorlando.com/)), and Disney, which now dominate the industry in terms of both size and expertise. The resulting theme park industry is therefore complex. Holloway and Taylor (2006) classify theme parks into three types:

1. local parks focused on the day trip market;
2. flagship attractions such as the Tivoli Gardens ([www.tivoli.dk/composite-7438.htm](http://www.tivoli.dk/composite-7438.htm)); and
3. iconic parks which attract a worldwide market such as the Disney parks.

As the industry has grown, it has created a range of industry associations to support it. These include:

- the Association of Leading Visitor Attractions (ALVA) in the UK ([www.alva.org.uk/](http://www.alva.org.uk/));
- the International Association of Amusement Parks and Attractions (IAAPA), a global trade association ([www.iaapa.org/](http://www.iaapa.org/)); and
- the Themed Entertainment Association (TEA) in the USA ([www.themeit.com](http://www.themeit.com)).

Theme parks are classic ‘user-oriented’ attractions in Clawson’s classification. They tend to locate close to large conurbations, as in Japan, or close to large holiday areas such as the parks on Australia’s Gold Coast, or the US parks in Florida and California. Most, though not all, theme parks have a family market, appealing to children. They tend to be designed to a particular formula which includes the pay one price (POP) concept, meaning that the admission price pays for all the rides and activities. They also tend to be designed around a series of themed ‘zones’ or ‘lands’, often with a main thoroughfare, or ‘main street’, linking the zones with a spine of restaurants and other facilities. In recent years, hybrids of the parks have developed with water parks, safari lands, shopping and accommodation all on the site.

Theme parks are also characterised by their sophisticated marketing and use of technology. But, like all attractions, they must constantly reinvent themselves with new and refreshed rides, signature rides unique to a particular park, new products and merchandising – often based upon media celebrities or TV programmes. Here, there is a recognised life-cycle of visitation with a rise in visits as the attraction becomes known, followed by a fall-off in visits after the first five years as the park reaches market saturation. Without innovation in the product, attractions are not sustainable, and even the Disney theme parks have experienced a fall-off in ticket sales as the market tires of its formula. The industry also faces other threats such as competition from destinations such as Las Vegas. In response, the globally significant parks in central Florida now cooperate on marketing and other activities.

Globally, the Disney theme parks and studios dominate the industry, but of course there are other popular theme parks:

- Everland, South Korea – [www.everland.com/](http://www.everland.com/)
- Lotte World, South Korea – [www.lotteworld.com/](http://www.lotteworld.com/)
- Yokohama Hakkeijima Sea Paradise, Japan – [www.seaparadise.co.jp/english/](http://www.seaparadise.co.jp/english/)
- Parc Asterix, France – [www.parcasterix.fr/](http://www.parcasterix.fr/)
- Legoland, Denmark – [www.legoland.dk/](http://www.legoland.dk/)

## Festivals and Event Attractions

Festivals and events are attractions that are time constrained. They are rarely permanent, although they can reoccur on a regular basis on the same site. They are used not only to attract visitors to a destination, but also to extend the season (as with Blackpool’s illuminations) and

to target particular market segments. Event attractions have become increasingly important to building destination success.

Festivals and events have their roots in medieval travelling fairs and, more recently, in the huge mega-events created by sports, such as the Football World Cup, the Olympics and Formula One Grand Prix, or in hallmark events such as the 2009 United Nations Copenhagen Climate Change Conference or the Calgary Stampede. These events are estimated to generate huge economic benefits for their host destinations, as well as acting to place the destination on the world map (see, for example, Ritchie's classic paper in this chapter). Hallmark events demand huge investment from the host destination – the UK government, for example, has estimated that the London Olympics in 2012 will generate £2.1 billion over the period 2007–2017 and generate over 8,000 years of employment. It is not simply the benefits of the event whilst it is being held that is important. The 'legacy' effects of hallmark events are, if anything, more important. This is not only in terms of the facilities constructed, but also in terms of the social and environmental benefits. The Olympic Games in both Atlanta and Barcelona generated major urban renewal projects, for example. The London Olympics have regenerated run-down parts of London, created new green spaces and stimulated improved airport gateways and a convention centre in London. We can also think of comparable events that have occurred in the past, such as the Festival of Britain with its legacy being London's South Bank. In the classic paper for this chapter, Ritchie outlines a comprehensive approach to assessing the impact of hallmark events.

### Classic Paper

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1984) 'Assessing the impact of hallmark events: conceptual and research issues', *Journal of Travel Research* 23 (1), 2–11



This paper is a classic not only because it was written at least 10 years before the realisation of the significance of events for tourism and the consequent boom in event management literature, but also because it displays the author's characteristic insights into how tourism works and his thoroughness in coverage.

The paper begins with a definition and characterisation of hallmark events as:

**'Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long term' (p. 2).**

Such events are classified as world fairs, unique carnivals and festivals, major sporting events, significant cultural and religious events, historical milestones, classic commercial and agricultural events and major political personage events. To quote Brent Ritchie, 'previous discussions of the impact of hallmark events have tended to be largely one-dimensional . . . a broader analytical framework is both useful and necessary' (p. 4). The paper examines the consequences of these major events, not simply in terms of economic, environmental and socio-cultural, but instead taking a broader approach, including political, commercial and psychological consequences.

The paper discusses the difficulties associated with measuring each of these consequences of holding a hallmark event. Ritchie rightly views the economic dimension as the most developed in terms of practice and methodology; this is in contrast to the tourism/commercial impacts. Here, we would include the impact of sponsorship which boosts the attractiveness of the destination generally and is beneficial for investment purposes. Of course, these are difficult to measure in the short term and often the benefits are intangible, exemplified by the issue that has arisen in Australia with the debate over the real benefits of the State of Victoria's significant sponsorship of the Melbourne Formula One Grand Prix.

The remainder of the paper is devoted to a consideration of the research and measurement challenges of each of the six consequences of holding a hallmark event.

The paper concludes that the field is young (as indeed it was when this pioneering paper was written) and that it is hoped that the paper will stimulate further work in the field. That has certainly been the case and Brent Ritchie's paper set the research agenda for event management over the ensuing decades. Hence it is a truly 'classic' paper.

Of course, not all events are on the scale of hallmark events, and worldwide there are many local-scale arts festivals, music events and sporting activities. Many smaller events in the past were targeted at local residents, but the popularity of events now means that many small festivals attract visitors from outside the area.

For the large events, governments are often major sponsors, but festivals and events also need to attract other sponsors. They are often run by volunteers, particularly community and charity-run events, with a small professional team of managers. Page and Connell (2009) distinguish between event tourism as a strategic approach to utilising events in destination management, where many destinations now have their own event strategy, and event management as the approach to designing, producing and managing events (Getz, 2008). Event management is now a popular degree programme and is leading to greater professionalism in events and festivals, although many of the jobs available are simply re-labelled, for example 'hotel function managers' are now 'hotel events managers'. The events industry also has its own professional organisation – the International Festivals and Events Association (IFEA – [www.ifeaeurope.com/](http://www.ifeaeurope.com/)).

## Iconic Attractions

As we have already seen, some attractions have come to be widely regarded as icons by virtue of the large numbers of people who visit them. As a result, they are closely associated with the destination's image – think of the Eiffel Tower and Paris, for example, or Table Mountain and Cape Town. For a destination to be competitive, it is important to have an iconic focal point. Often, however, these icons were not designed with tourism in mind; indeed, it is difficult to create such icons deliberately.

UNESCO has designated many such iconic attractions as world heritage sites on its World Heritage List ([whc.unesco.org/en/list](http://whc.unesco.org/en/list)). The list includes 890 properties which are part of the global cultural and natural heritage, considered by the World Heritage Committee as having outstanding universal value. The list includes:

- 689 cultural sites;
- 176 natural sites; and
- 25 sites which are both natural and cultural.

## Managing Visitor Attractions

The majority of visitor attractions operate as businesses and have a set of key performance indicators (KPIs) associated with them against which their management is measured. These KPIs include visitor numbers, visitor revenue and both gross and net profit. However, by far the most important KPI is visitor numbers. Visitor numbers drive the overall performance of the attraction and the rest of the attraction's business – catering, retail and special events. Visitor numbers can be formally recorded by ticket sales, through questionnaire surveys, automatic counters or observers. Surveys at attractions are common to determine not only numbers of visitors, but also their demographic and visit profile, their spending and their likes and dislikes.

## Economics of Visitor Attractions

The economics of managing attractions are ably described by Wanhill (2008b). Most attractions are characterised by a very high ratio of fixed to variable costs, simply by virtue of the considerable capital investment needed to establish an attraction. This means that attractions tend to require a relatively high number of visitors to generate revenue before they can break

**Table 7.2** Income breakdown for a 1.5 million visitor theme park

Item	Revenue percentages
<b>Revenue</b>	
Admissions (a)	55.6
Catering	22.2
Merchandising	16.7
Miscellaneous (b)	5.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Cost of sales</b>	
Catering	8.9
Merchandise	8.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>17.2</b>
<b>Gross profit</b>	<b>82.8</b>
<b>Other income (c)</b>	<b>9.0</b>
<b>Total income</b>	<b>91.8</b>
<b>Controllable expenses</b>	
Payroll	32.4
Marketing	10.2
Administration	4.3
Maintenance	3.1
Operating supplies	2.5
Utilities	4.3
Insurance	3.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>60.0</b>
<b>Cash flow</b>	<b>34.9</b>
<b>Capital expenses</b>	
Attraction replacement and renewals	14.7
Occupation costs (d)	5.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>20.5</b>
<b>Net income before tax</b>	<b>11.3</b>

(a) Adult admission is \$US45 giving an average discount (after sales tax) of 30.2%

(b) Includes rentals, arcades and vending machines

(c) Sponsorship, corporate hospitality and rental of facilities

(d) Rental provision for site and premises.

Source: Fyall *et al.*, 2008

even and begin to make a profit. Of course, this means that the marketing of the attraction (often approaching 10% of costs) and its location close to large population catchment areas is even more important.

Attractions therefore have to diversify and secure a range of income streams, from tickets, merchandise, catering, event functions to car parks if they are to be successful. There are a number of ways to achieve this, including diversifying into educational or corporate markets, persuading visitors to stay longer (dwell time), and so spend more, or seeking commercial sponsorship. Table 7.2 demonstrates the breakdown of costs and revenue for a 1.5 million visitor theme park. The table shows that with discounts it is usual to achieve 70–80% of ticket price. Aside from investment, the highest costs are mainly for seasonal and salaried labour.

In terms of revenue, the type of pricing policy adopted by the attraction is critical. Simply to receive the cost of the initial fixed investment in an attraction means that the price of entry has to be set well above the operational cost of supplying the facilities and labour for each visit. So critical is this decision that attractions are now adopting a yield management approach to ticketing where they achieve the best price possible for a ticket for each day and each time

of day. Strategies include ‘pay one price’ for admission, which is good for families, can be used in marketing and is cost-efficient for the attraction.

There is, of course, a fierce debate about whether the public sector should charge admission to, say, museums or galleries. It could be argued that local people have already subsidised the museum through their taxes, but of course this does not apply to tourists. As a result, some countries, such as Finland, have a differential charging policy.

## Management Approach

Attractions management is focused on *positive* planning and provision rather than *negative* restrictions and prohibition. In so doing, management provides a true focus on the visitor, and recognises that each visitor is different, bringing to an attraction their own prejudices, needs, preferences and ignorances. Attraction management is also very much a practitioner-based approach with few manuals of good practice or well-documented case studies. Yet, as we have already noted, there are a number of leading attractions companies – such as the Walt Disney Corporation – who are very skilled at the art.

We introduced the idea of visitor management in Chapter 6 (see Figure 6.3). This approach is commonly used at attractions, and we can identify the following elements relating to attractions.

- **Management objectives.** Determination of management objectives is critical for the successful management of any attraction at the outset as they will determine the overall management strategy. Here, some attractions struggle to determine their true objectives – think of St Paul’s Cathedral in London, for example, which is an iconic tourist attraction, but also a place of worship. For some attractions, the answer is easy – an economic objective or one of profit or return on investment. Other objectives, however, are also possible. These include educational reasons (for a wildlife reserve, say) or propaganda (as in show sites in socialist republics). The management process demands that we are very clear on these objectives since they drive the whole process.
- **Demand.** A second key variable is demand – the profile and numbers of visitors to the attraction. It is important that marketing communicates clearly the objectives of the attraction to ensure that appropriate types of visitor are attracted. The most common management problems occur when the wrong type of visitor is attracted. If these problems do arise, then it is the role of marketing to constantly adjust the visitor profile to the management objectives. A key consideration here is the determination of approaches for resource-based and user-based attractions.
- **Capacity.** At this stage of the visitor management process, decisions are taken as to the intensity of visitation at each part of the site, and also the type of activity to be scheduled there. For green field sites the planner has a relatively free hand but, for sites such as museums or historic houses, it is probable that the use of rooms and displays will be fixed. Here, attraction managers have to determine the volume of visitors that can be sustained in each part of the site. This is done using the concepts of:
  - **annual physical capacity (APC)** which is the number of users that can be sustained in one year; and
  - **sustained physical capacity (SPC)** which is the maximum number of visitors that can be accommodated at any one point in time without deterioration in the condition of the site.

The calculation is then:

$$APC = SPC \times \text{number of periods open}$$

This is a useful approach as it allows planners to build-in seasonality effects. Wanhill (2008b), for example, suggests that industry norms for theme parks are to design the park on the basis of 10–20% below the peak number of visitors expected.

- **Visitor management.** Once a decision has been made for the attraction to open, it is then important to ensure that visitors are managed in such a way as to ensure that capacity levels in each area are not exceeded, and therefore that the quality of experience is maintained. Influencing visitor movement and behaviour is a subtle science and can be seen as selection from a range of options along a continuum, from hard management to soft management, as we saw in Chapter 6.
- **Monitoring.** There is no point in developing sophisticated management approaches without a means of monitoring their success. This includes administering formal questionnaires, debriefing front-line staff or monitoring through the use of electronic eyes or turnstiles.

## Management Issues

Two key issues for attractions management are:

1. seasonality; and
2. marketing.

### Seasonality

A key issue for attractions is the seasonal nature of tourism. Whilst this is often put down to climate, in fact there are institutional reasons for seasonality too, such as school and other holidays from the demand side and supply-side reasons such as labour supply and transport access. Goulding (2008) identifies a range of issues for attractions stemming from the inherent seasonality of demand. These include:

- staffing, where the skills developed by seasonal workers are lost in the off season;
- poor use of the attraction's capacity with crowding at peak times, leading to congestion and poor visitor experience; and
- perishability of the unit of production such that revenue-earning opportunities are lost.

Goulding (2008) maps a range of management responses to the issue of seasonality, including developing yield management systems, prioritising staffing at peak times to ensure that revenue is maximised, diversifying to less seasonally sensitive markets such as corporates, flexible pricing strategies which are sensitive to seasonal variation and extending the attraction product to, say, events, or developing new facilities. For destinations it is important to develop a portfolio of attractions, some of which will be weather resistant. Seasonality impacts on the profitability and operation of the attraction and demands particular strategies, such as museums mounting special exhibitions or differential pricing to encourage local people or schools to visit in the off peak season.

### Marketing

Creating and managing a memorable visitor experience is the key to successful attraction marketing. This involves creating a memorable set of activities and experiences and putting in place quality assurance across the whole experience. One poor aspect of the visit – such as, say, catering – can flavour the whole memory and desire to return.

Attractions are competing for expenditure across the leisure sector, including entertainment and white goods as well as other attractions and destinations. Changing patterns of leisure, an increasingly competitive market place and technological innovation mean that consumer expectations are rising. The challenge for attractions is to create products to satisfy these new patterns of demand with their media- and entertainment-driven expectations. Here, there is no doubt that smaller attractions are vulnerable as they cannot access the investment required to meet the market's expectations. Voase (2008) examines the needs of the 'new tourist' when it comes to attractions. He characterises the new tourist as more demanding and sophisticated, identifying two key types:

1. **the thoughtful consumer** seeking a more active involvement from the attraction and a learning experience; and
2. **the smart consumer** accepting commoditisation of attractions, and seeing the visit as more of a transaction.

It is, therefore, vital for attractions to understand visitor motivation in targeting their market. Quite clearly different target markets are attracted to different types of attraction. Theme parks attract the family and the younger market, whilst heritage attractions tend to attract a more mature market. The target market then determines all the aspects of the attractions marketing mix. For attractions, promotion through word of mouth is important, and the sector still uses old-fashioned promotional techniques such as leafleting.

## The Future of Visitor Attractions

As the visitor attraction sector matures, a number of trends are becoming evident. We are seeing greater professionalism developing across the industry with a more strategic approach to staff and their training, as well as more professional management approaches to the attractions themselves. In part, this is driven by competition. Here, attractions are increasingly compared to the entertainment and media sector and this has led to new product development, in particular the innovative use of technology. In the future, immersive experiences, virtual reality and combined experiences with other parts of tourism such as accommodation, dining and cruising will be part of the attractions landscape. This has led one industry commentator to predict a new generation of multifaceted, all-inclusive destinations that will appeal to many markets, and provide sound return on investment (Stevens, 2000).

Attractions will also have to embrace sustainability in all its forms, from the type of transport used to reach them, through the management of local community relationships to the notion of ethical trading in shops and restaurants. Smart tourism demands not only that the visitor receives a satisfying and high-quality experience, but also that the destination is sustainable. Innovative application of visitor management ensures that the increasingly experienced and discerning new tourist does indeed receive a high-quality experience, while also sustaining the destination for future use. Here, innovative engineering such as that used in the Grand Canyon Skywalk Lookout – a horseshoe shaped glass-floored walkway over the canyon – is leading the way (<http://www.nps.gov.grca>).

## SUMMARY

This chapter has analysed visitor attractions and outlined key elements of their management. Clearly, visitor attractions motivate the visit to a tourism destination and, in so doing, energise the tourism system. It is important to distinguish attractions from support facilities at the destination, although we need both for tourism to function effectively. Defining attractions is fraught with difficulty, but any definition must be based on the ability of a facility to attract visitation. Classifying attractions can be done simply by listing different types – such as natural or cultural attractions – or, and more usefully, we can classify according to an approach that assists in management decisions as was done by Clawson. Specific types of attraction demand different management approaches. Events, for example, an important and recent entrant into classifications, are time-limited attractions and are often run by a core of professionals, supported by many volunteers. Theme parks, on the other hand, have a long history and are very professionally managed. Natural attractions are often owned by the public sector,



and their management is more about conservation and protection of the resource. The management of attractions also depends on a keen understanding of their economics, particularly the significant up-front investment costs, and it also demands a clear identification of management objectives which then determines the remaining management decisions. The future of attractions will be dominated by technology, a demand for sustainability and a closer linkage of attractions with other aspects of tourism in order to create multifaceted, all-inclusive destinations that will appeal to many markets, and provide sound return on investment.

## Discussion Questions

1. Design a survey to assess visitor profile and visitor satisfaction for an attraction that you are familiar with. Limit your number of questions to 20 or less.
2. Take a tourist attraction with which you are familiar – such as a theme park or museum – and revisit it with the eyes of a visitor manager. Does the attraction work in terms of visitor movement and rhythms, is the experience enhanced and did you enjoy it?
3. In class, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of a city government sponsoring a hallmark event such as a Formula One Grand Prix.
4. Take the example of a local museum or religious building that attracts a significant number of visitors – is it managed as a visitor ‘attraction’ and, if not, should it be?
5. Debate whether attractions in the public domain – national parks, museums, etc. – should be free, or if they should charge visitors an entrance fee.

## Annotated Further Reading

1. Cooper, C., Gilbert, D., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A. and Wanhill, S. (2008) *Tourism Principles and Practice*, Pearson, Harlow.  
Chapter 11 provides a comprehensive view of attractions.
2. Foley, M. and Lennon, J. (2000) *Dark Tourism*, Continuum, New York.  
A useful text considering this particularly ‘dark’ aspect of visitor attractions.
3. Fyall, A., Garrod, B., Leask, A. and Wanhill, S. (eds), (2008) *Managing Visitor Attractions. New Directions*, Butterworth Heinemann, Oxford.  
An excellent edited text covering all aspects of visitor attractions and their management.
4. Getz, D. (2007) *Event Studies. A Multi-Disciplinary Approach*, Cognizant, New York.  
Contemporary and thorough review of events as attractions.
5. Gunn, C.A. (1972) *Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions*, Bureau of Business Research, Austin, TX.  
Classic text with a strong design flavour and an innovative way of thinking about visitor attractions.
6. Hall, C.M. (1992) *Hallmark Tourist Events: Impacts, Management and Planning*, Belhaven, London.  
Classic early text on hallmark event attractions and their characteristics and issues.
7. Swarbrooke, J. (2001) *The Development and Management of Visitor Attractions*, Butterworth Heinemann, Oxford.  
User-friendly text with thorough coverage of visitor attractions.
8. Timothy, D. and Boyd, S. (2003) *Heritage Tourism*, Prentice Hall, New York.  
Useful text covering the key issues relating to heritage attractions.

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## Major Case Study 7.1

### The 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa



#### Introduction

Hallmark events have become important visitor attractions in their own right. Such large-scale international events bring a range of benefits to their host destinations. These include the obvious economic boost to the destination in terms of employment and spending, but they also 'boost' profile and raise awareness of the host destination, leading to 'legacy' effects such as a rise in tourism and inward investment. Of course, some destinations leverage the effect of hallmark events better than others. The legacy effects of the Sydney Olympics, for example, have been substantial, whilst the Athens Olympics have been less successful in maintaining the momentum. However, despite the fact that such events are expensive to stage, they are hotly competed for by countries and major destinations globally – think, for example, of the competition to stage the Olympics, the Football World Cup or motor racing Grand Prix. This case study focuses upon the *Federation Internationale de Football Association* (FIFA) World Cup in 2010, staged in South Africa, a country emerging from significant political reorganisation and where staging the World Cup provides the chance to showcase the country and its achievements.

#### Tourism in South Africa

South Africa has a long tradition of tourism. The sector is professionally organised and marketed, within the legal framework of the 1993 Tourism Act and subsequent amendments. Two bodies handle policy:

1. the Environmental Affairs and Tourism Ministry, which has a mission to promote sustainable development; and
2. South African Tourism, which is charged with maintaining standards of accommodation and services, with promotion, and also the development of new products.

Until the ending of apartheid, inbound tourism tended to be for visiting friends and relatives or for business purposes but, more recently, there has been a substantial growth of interest in South Africa as a holiday destination by tour operators, and the country attracts around nine million international visitors every year. Here, sport tourism is important with major international cricket and rugby tournaments and, of course, the staging of the FIFA World Cup is a significant boost to tourism. A major challenge for the event is that, since the 1990s, levels of crime have increased to become among the world's highest, particularly

in Johannesburg, and the resulting insecurity is one of the biggest problems facing the country and its tourism industry. As a result, South Africa implemented special security measures to ensure the safety of visitors to the event.

#### The 2010 FIFA World Cup

The FIFA World Cup is a true hallmark event watched by many millions of people. It is the first time the event has been held in Africa. Staging the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa showcases the country to the world, stimulates investment in infrastructure and sports facilities across the country and boosts the economy both during the World Cup and in the future through potential growth in tourism numbers. A lesser-known benefit is the sense of excitement and pride felt across the country by staging the event with extensive domestic media coverage. This is evidenced by the fact that the event attracted over 3000 volunteer workers.

A key legacy effect will be the stadia and infrastructure developed. The South Africa government is investing upwards of nine million rand in facilities, marketing and infrastructure for the event. The investment is for five new stadiums and upgrading five existing venues. In addition, the supporting infrastructure developments include significant upgrades of the public transport infrastructure at host cities (including the Gautrain and a Bus Rapid Transit system – BRT) and at airports.

In terms of organisation, the key stakeholders are:

- FIFA and its commercial affiliates who dispense the rights to use FIFA logos, tickets, etc;
- the South African government;
- the host cities;
- service providers of accommodation, transport, catering, merchandise and souvenirs;
- eight international commercial sponsors and six South African sponsors;
- the 32 competing teams;
- the local organising committee – this has been established by the South African Football Association to organise and stage the event; and
- the tourism sector comprising the accommodation establishments, transportation and official tour operator programme with tickets allocated by FIFA, hospitality packages for corporate clients and the 10 match venues including Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town.

## Should South Africa have Staged this Event?

It could be argued that South Africa has many national issues to deal with, including poverty, education and unemployment, without investing public money in hosting this sporting event. This has led to controversial claims such as poor pay for construction workers on the stadia, that the facilities would not be ready in time for the event and that 'cleaning up' the host cities has meant removal of slum housing and relocation of residents. A further issue is whether those residents who are moved will benefit from the new investment for the event.

### DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. The South Africa government has invested upwards of nine million rand in facilities, marketing and infrastructure for the event. Given the challenges of South African

society, including many areas of poverty, could this money have been better spent, or will it generate further resources to support South Africa's economy?

2. Draft a press release designed to dispel media fears about the high levels of crime in South Africa putting off tourists to the World Cup.
3. Examining the different match venues, how effective do you think the staging of the World Cup will be in bringing long-term economic benefits to the nation's poor?
4. In class, debate the pros and cons of South Africa's staging of the World Cup.
5. Examine previous hallmark events, including the Olympics and the World Cup. Which venues have leveraged the 'legacy effects' effectively, and what are the success factors for doing this?

Sources:

<http://www.fifa.com/worldcup/>

<http://www.sa2010.gov.za/>