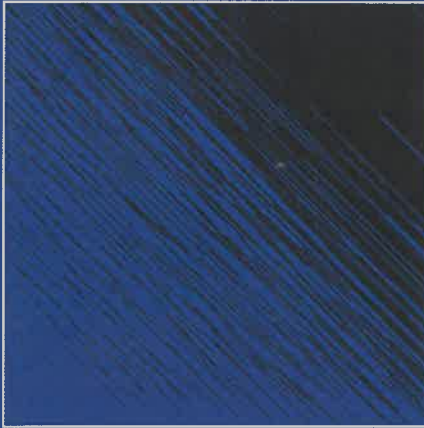


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Management, Interpretation and Visitor Perception in Remote National Parks: Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros, Brazil

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Abstract: Interpretation, the education of visitors and local residents about a park, has the potential to be a major tool to address the management needs of sensitive ecosystems. A review of the park management plan for Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros (PNCV) in Brazil suggests that while interpretation is given some discussion, there are no concrete plans to implement its use for management purposes. Visitors to PNCV felt very positive about their guided experience, but their knowledge of the management issues in PNCV was mixed due to the uncoordinated nature of the information they received. For sustainable development to be successful in the fragile ecosystems found in most national parks, managers need to more aware of the role of interpretation and make use of it to preserve and protect their lands.

Keywords: Brazil, national parks, interpretation, guides, visitor perception, park management

Introduction

Sustainable tourism is tourism that aims at preserving and perpetuating the natural and cultural systems inherent in a location while keeping these systems open to sensitive use by the tourism industry. Inskeep (1991) states that sustainable tourism development leads to management of resources in a way that fulfills present and future economic, social and aesthetic needs of both visitors and hosts to a region. Sustainable tourism development also suggests a positive socioeconomic change (Gunn, 1994). The process maintains cultural integrity, ecological processes and biological diversity. A primary challenge is to insure non-degradation of environmental resources and to actively protect local human and cultural resources from exploitation (Burr and Walsh, 1993). All authors discuss the maintenance of these resources and systems for both present and future generations. Wendt (1991) has suggested several control measures to help balance resource protection with the needs of tourists and contribute to the promotion of sustainable tourism development. Part of this list includes environmental interpretation and education.

Managing tourists through education and interpretation is a key tool in the protection of land and facilities (WTO and UNEP, 1992; Christensen, 1994). One of the three basic objectives of interpretation is the accomplishment of management goals which can be achieved by encouraging the visitor's wise use of the resource, especially fragile or threatened areas (Sharpe, 1976). Interpretation can also inform the public of critical management issues and controversial actions or policies that they may not understand or about which they have questions. Only when a point of understanding is reached can park managers expect visitors (and local residents) to play a role in minimizing threats to a park or protected area (Winter, 1993).

In the case of a lesser developed country (LDC), the methods of park interpretation may differ greatly from those in a more developed country (MDC) (Ham, et al., 1989; Ham and Sutherland, 1992). Park neighbors in LDC's may include people of lesser means living adjacent to or even within a protected area. Outreach of an interpretive nature to these individuals might, for example, include extension-type demonstrations. Ham and Sutherland (1992) mention other techniques such as radio broadcasts or helping schools to arrange field trips for dealing with the visitor and constituent populations that impact a park or protected area. Sharpe (1982) also notes that on-site interpretation does not always address park neighbors or visitors who need to be reached with a management message. Threats to the park come from both in and outside its boundaries. A small, local target audience that is presented with an interpretive program may help to change constituent behavior (Whatley, 1995). An interpretive program that reaches out to the community is a real asset (Sharpe, 1982). Pedersen (1991) suggests that park staff should document events and incidents relating to the attitudes of visitors and neighbors regarding park policies. By compiling this information, park managers will be able to determine if park management goals that relate to visitors are being met. Additionally, Pederson suggests that a handbook be developed as a management tool including descriptions of management issues faced by the park, ongoing local conservation projects being carried out by governmental and NGO's (non-governmental organizations), and a list of organizations where visitors or interested persons might donate time or funds.

Unfortunately, in many LDC's much of the potential for education and for raising the environmental awareness of tourists in parks has been neglected by both park managers and the private sector, especially as regards local and national tourism (Moore, 1991). With budgetary and other pressures placed on park management "too frequently interpretation is an afterthought rather than an integral part of a park planning and implementation process" (Sharpe, 1982:17).

Many LDC's find that the financial resources, personnel and infrastructure available to their national parks are insufficient, requiring them to rely on

outside or private guides to provide the interpretation in their parks. In both LDC's and MDC's, legal mandates may require the provision of interpretive services but not the funds necessary to effectively implement and manage an interpretive program. In cases such as this, the training of private tour guides by the park can be a way to educate concessionaires about park management policies and goals (Roggenbuck, et.al., 1992). This training, says Roggenbuck, will help to develop more cooperation between government entities and the private sector and will naturally lead to increased knowledge and appropriate behavior by visitors consistent with park management goals. The specific role of the private sector (tour guides, concessionaires, private operators) needs to be addressed during planning in order to insure appropriate management of the private sector responsibilities (Moore, 1991). Dare (1991) notes that both management/ranger teams and tour operators/guides are responsible for educating visitors to care for the environment.

Mention of interpretation or interpretation as a tool in park management within other Brazilian national park management plans is limited. Several park management plans were examined as part of this study (including Parque Nacional de Abrolhos, Serra da Canastra, Iguaçu, and Caparão). These plans were all based on a pre-formulated template and each contained a section entitled "Public Use" with sub-programs of Recreation, Interpretation, Education, Tourism, Public Relations, and Extension listed. The interpretation section within each plan included helping the visitor understand and appreciate the natural and cultural resources of the area in a way that would be both positive and pleasant (IBDF and Funatura, 1981). All mentioned the use of pamphlets, slides, and publications about the flora and fauna of their respective regions. Reference was made to orienting visitors to park areas least susceptible to degradation and helping tourists to understand about Brazilian national parks in general and the placement of each particular park within the context of national parks. Some of this language hinted at the use of interpretation for visitor management and park management, but only in general terms. However, no specifics were mentioned regarding using guides, signage, interpretive exhibits, or employees to communicate management messages to the park visitors.

The Geographical Setting

Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros (PNCV) is located in central Brazil, in the state of Goiás, approximately 252 km north of the national capital, Brasília, and approximately 485 km northeast of Goiânia, the state capital (Paes, 1995). The region experiences a four to five month dry season and maintains a median annual temperature between 24-26 degrees Celsius (IBAMA, 1989). The region lies in a faulted area, creating both mountainous and hilly terrain interspersed with rivers that form canyons, slopes and spectacular waterfalls.

The nearly 66,000 hectare (approximately 163,086 acres) park lies within the cerrado, one of Brazil's nine distinct ecosystems (Rizzoni, 1991). The cerrado, a savannah ecosystem, may rival the rainforest in its biodiversity. It is known to contain 429 unique woody savanna species — greater than any other savannah ecosystem on the planet (Klink, et al., 1992). The vegetation types vary from grasslands to a gallery forest and the ecosystem creates a variety of habitats for its floral and faunal species. In many areas of the cerrado, fire is occurring more frequently due to agricultural burning (Klink, et al., 1992). Various local agricultural development schemes have also been proposed for the area by past governments with limited success (Paes, 1995). An increase in agriculture within the cerrado has affected floral diversity due to frequent burning and introduction of herbicides and pesticides to the ecosystem (Klink, et al., 1992). Less and less of the cerrado's natural vegetation remains due, in part, to government support of large scale agriculture.

In 1960 a national park for the region was proposed by a letter to Brazil's President Juscelino Kubitschek (the president responsible for relocating Brazil's national capital to Brasília) to preserve the unique characteristics and beauty of the cerrado (Paes, 1995). Parque Nacional do Tocantins was established in December of 1961 with an area of approximately 625,000 hectares. The park was renamed Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros (PNCV) in 1972 with a reduction in size to 172,000 ha and reduced again in 1981 to 60,000 ha (Paes, 1995). In 1990 monies were released to purchase private property within the existing park boundaries and PNCV's area now stands at 65,515 ha. Private landholdings, however, continue to exist within the park today (Leão, n.d.; A.V. Miranda, personal conversation with the Director of Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros).

The park was first established under the Instituto Brasileiro de Desenvolvimento Florestal (Brazilian Institute of Forest Development, or IBDF). A new agency, Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis (Brazilian Institute of the Environment and Renewable Natural Resources, or IBAMA), combining the IBDF and other environmental agencies, was created in 1988 after the realization that Brazil's environment was in danger, especially in the Amazon rainforest (IBAMA, n.d.). Prior to 1990 there was considerable environmental degradation within the park due to unregulated use (both day and overnight), vehicles parking at the margins of the rivers, driving in restricted areas, and trash and garbage accumulation. In 1990 IBAMA closed the park to reevaluate its management. PNCV was reopened to the public in 1991.

PNCV Visitation

To enter the park, a visitor must be accompanied by a park approved guide from the local guide association (Association of Chapada dos Veadeiros Guides,

or ACVCV) and pay fees to both the guide and the park. The park fee was \$R1,25 at the time of the study (equivalent to US\$1.30 in 1995). Additionally, each guide charged a fee of \$R20,00 (US\$20.83) per group to enter the park. The park management plan states that group size may go as high as twenty individuals, but most guides take groups no larger than ten people (Paes, 1995). This is most likely due to guides being better able to watch and care for smaller groups. For groups of over ten persons, guides will charge an additional \$R2,00 per person. Tourists wishing to enter the park sometimes encounter a qualified guide in the village of São Jorge (adjacent to PNCV) or in Alto Paraíso, some 35 km away. Others find guides at the park entrance. Visitors may enter the park on a day use basis only. Local residents may enter the park without paying (Paes, 1995). Non-ACVCV guides (e.g., those on buses from Brasília) bring groups to the park but must be joined by an ACVCV guide when inside the park.

Visitation to the park in 1993 was less than 3000. It reached approximately 5500 in 1994 and had climbed to 5000 visitors for the first five months of 1995. In July 1995 alone the park recording approximately 2700 visitors. Most visitors to the park come in private vehicles and stay in simple pousadas in São Jorge or Alto Paraíso. A few pousadas have facilities for food service while a small selection of restaurants is open for meals at various times during the day. There is also a range of primitive camping available, especially in São Jorge. Some visitors to the park arrive via public transportation while others come with organized excursions in mini-vans or tour buses.

The park's Visitor Center, through which all visitors are supposed to enter the park, was constructed in 1992 (Paes, 1995) and has a reception area, a classroom, office facilities, a kitchen and restrooms. During the research period electrical service was not available to the Visitor Center. For classes or meetings that took place in the Visitor Center, a generator was installed to allow for the use of slide and film projectors or a VCR.

Park visitors must first contact a park employee and pay the entrance fee at the Visitor Center. According to the park director, this is the primary, and probably the only, interaction between a park employee and the visitor. Guides, rather than park employees, orient the public and interpret the park to those entering the park. Guides certified by ACVCV are the only official guides within the park. At the time of the research, PNCV was the sole Brazilian national park to require the use of a local guide within a park. Each guide was to wear his or her identification tag when coming into the park. No special park programs were offered to visitors nor was there any special attention provided for children, the elderly or handicapped citizens.

A day trip within the park involved arranging for guide service for the day; choosing the destination based on the areas that were currently open, guide

recommendation and past experience; paying the park entrance fees; and receiving a short talk by the guide on rules and regulations within the park before entering. Excursions within the park involve more walking than actual hiking and took place on well-defined, if not well-marked, trails. Roundtrip distances travelled during a day vary from 10 to 12 km to reach the principle destinations (Paes, 1995). Two days of excursions allow most visitors to see the attractions currently open to the public. The park employee stationed at the Visitor Center waits until all groups exit the park in the afternoon and then locks the gate until the next morning.

Written or published information on the park is limited, both within the communities nearby as well as inside the park itself. The Visitors Center does not have a park map posted nor are pamphlets about the park or interpretive signs available or displayed. Several members of ACVCV carried outdated and well-worn copies of old maps and pamphlets that they guard protectively. There has been some opposition to the production and display of a park map, as well as the marking of trails because of their potential to diminish the usefulness of the guides and the service they provide (Grupo Nativa, 1995). Little written information about the park was available at IBAMA's headquarters in Brasília or the state superintendency in Goiânia. In general, printed information on most national parks within Brazil is extremely limited.

PNCV's Park Management Plan

The most recent comprehensive park management plan for PNCV was in effect from 1992-95 and entitled "Orientações Básicas ao Manejo do Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros" (Basic Orientation to the Management of PNCV) (Paes, 1995). This document came out of research done by a team of ex-IBDF employees in 1986 and was based on many of their recommendations (Paes, 1995). The current document in use is the "Plano de Ação Emergencial" (Emergency Action Plan, or PAE) which was adopted in 1995 and will carry PNCV through July of 1997. It is not as comprehensive as the park management plan, but proposes actions and details priorities in all areas of park operations. The PAE identified inadequate management of natural resources as the most critical management problem at PNCV (Paes, 1995). Other management problems identified in the PAE include:

- Shortage of employees — nine for a park of 66,000 hectares and a lack of adequate employee training
- Wildfires caused primarily by the burning of private land in and around the park along with a lack of firefighting resources — both human and material
- Inadequate methods of protection for the park with little importance given to public relations, regional environmental education efforts, and no radios for in-park communication

- Lack of scientific knowledge about the park and, therefore, an inability to make management decisions based on science
- Limited environmental education
- Insufficient public use of PNCV, combined with an inadequate physical and operational infrastructure and problems controlling visitor access to the park.

In addition, there are several other issues of concern to park management, which were mentioned within the PAE (Paes, 1995), and noted by guides, employees and others (Leão, n.d.), including:

- Existence of private landholdings within the park (Leão, n.d.), and cited by the park director as one of the most critical management problems faced by the park (A.V. Miranda, personal conversation)
- Use of the park by non-authorized visitors — hunters, miners, tourists and others who enter the park illegally
- Overcrowding of sites during periods of high visitation
- Agrochemical contamination
- Wildflower extraction from within the park (flowers are picked and sold for the dried flower market)
- Changing behavior of visitors (primarily among the younger age groups), including the use alcohol and drugs within the park (and in the neighboring community of São Jorge)
- Lack of official authority by guides when guiding within the park

Besides these critical management needs, the park deals with ongoing management issues, such as litter control, patrolling of the park and its perimeter, and safety of tourists within the park.

During the period when the Emergency Action Plan (PAE) was being written, the park's condition was evaluated and the results of this evaluation placed within the plan. One of Brazil's national park policies was cited in this section:

A visit inside a national park is always welcome when it provides the opportunity to acquaint man and nature, involving knowledge and leisure. Its aim, overall, is to instill the values of the local ecosystems and the importance of preservation of natural resources endowed with exceptional attributes to guarantee integral protection of flora and wildlife, soils, waters, and scenic beauty, with scientific, educational, recreational and cultural objectives. [Translated from Portuguese by the authors.]

Reg. Parques Nacionais Brasileiros - Dec. 84.017 de 21/9/79 (cited in Paes, 1995:4)

This policy addresses the nurturing of environmental values within the park visitor while the visitor is enjoying the resources of a national park. However, within the portion of the regulation that is quoted in the PAE, it is not clear how these environmental values will be instilled. A breakdown of other Current Conditions at PNCV follows with relation to mention of interpretation and includes Visitor Contact, Environmental Education, and the Visitor Center.

Regarding Visitor Contact, guides are seen as being present to “control and orient the visitation” (Paes, 1995:28). At the entrance, one employee takes the entrance fee, the other “attends to tourists” (Paes, 1995: 28). Four of ten employees had attended a guide training course; two of ten, a course in environmental education. This accounting mentioned that few employees had training in areas of public relations, leadership, group motivation or management techniques indicating a critical lack of training for dealing with the public. Locals have been trained for guiding ecotourists. This section stated that the public reception of tourists is restricted to information presented by employees at the entrance and generalized information given by the guides who “in the majority, lack specialization or a profound environmental or cultural understanding” (Paes, 1995:31). The plan noted that the park does not have appropriate material at its disposal — either environmental or scientific information — and has no way to subsidize its acquisition. Additionally, reference was made to complaints by employees about being overworked and their worry about disruptive visitors. The Environmental Education section evaluated the park primarily with regard to educating the park’s neighbors and cited the lack of an organized program, as well as inadequate equipment and facilities. The PAE suggested that environmental education at the park should instill in visitors and students a better comprehension of what a national park is. A greater portion of the environmental education program focused on fire. Other organizations that assist and support the park in its environmental education efforts include World Wildlife Fund, the ACVCV guides association, and EMATER (Empresa de Assistência Técnica e Extensão Rural, or Technical Assistance and Rural Extension Enterprise).

The assessment of the Visitor Center cited its unsuitability for intensive visitor use, noting its lack of an organized program of public use, including orientations and lectures for visitors. The PAE stated that the facility should include an auditorium for seventy and an exhibit room. More equipment is also needed before environmental education activities could begin. (During the four month period of this research project, two classes were given at the Visitor Center — one for locals learning dried flower arranging, which is a primary regional

export, and a training course for local guides on the park's botany and its interpretation).

In other areas related to interpretation and interpretation in park management, the PAE pointed to a recognition by the park for the increased training of guides so they can assist in implementing park management objectives. There needs to be increased participation of the park, its employees and its partners in communicating more environmental messages to its visitors and park neighbors. However, specific references to the use of interpretation seemed to come only in regard to fire management and the need to educate locals to the realities of fire throughout the region.

Despite infrequent references such as these, the PAE (similar to other Brazilian national park plans) made no direct connection between interpretation and park management. Since visitors to PNCV receive almost all information from the guides who act as park interpreters, it would be expected that major park management issues are not properly nor adequately communicated. If true, then PNCV administrators are missing a major opportunity in addressing these problems.

Visitor Awareness of Park Management Issues

The majority of tourists to PNCV are Brazilians. The Inventário de Oferta Turística (Tourist Offering Inventory), in a three day survey completed in February 1995 (during the Carnival celebration), found only five of 195 visitors (5.3%) surveyed to be foreigners (Grupo Nativa, 1995). Paes (1995) reported that the majority of tourists who visit PNCV are between 15-22 years of age and visit the park primarily during holidays, especially over three day weekends. Many school groups visit the park, which may account for the low average visitor age.

For the study presented in this chapter, tourists were surveyed to determine their awareness of park management issues. A total of 44 tourists were surveyed prior to entering the park. Twenty-seven were making their first visit to PNCV, while 17 had visited the park at least one time previously. Thirty-two visitors who completed the pre-visit surveys also completed follow-up surveys after leaving the park. Of these, 20 were first-time visitors and 12 were repeat visitors. Among those who had visited the park more than once, all but one of the previous visits had been made in 1995, the year these surveys were completed.

When asked, in an open-ended format, what is the most critical problem in management of the park, 68 percent of first-time visitors (prior to entering the park) answered that they had no opinion or did not have enough information to make a judgement. Overall, 72 percent of first-time visitors either were not aware of what the park management issues were, had no opinion, or did not feel there were any problems (Table 1). When repeat visitors responded to this

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same question prior to entering the park, 28.6 percent indicated “no opinion” or “not enough information.” Other responses of repeat visitors included 28.6 percent citing a lack of resources and 21.4 percent preservation and protection of the park. As might be expected, prior to entering the park, 72 percent of first-time visitors had little knowledge of park management issues while 71.4 percent of repeat visitors already had an opinion about park management issues.

Table 1. Visitor’s opinion of most critical park management problem (questioned prior to entering the park).

Most Critical Park Management Problem (Prior to Entering the Park)	First-time Visitor (n=25)	Repeat Visitor (n=14)
Lack of human and/or financial resources; training for employees	8%	28.6%
Preservation; protection; policing and inspection	--	21.4%
Necessity of entering park with a guide, expensive	8%	--
Fire	8%	--
Management and administration	4%	7.1%
Community problems; dealing with locals	--	7.1%
Maintenance of trails; general maintenance	--	7.1%
There aren't any problems	4%	--
No opinion; not enough information at this time; don't know	68%	28.6%

After exiting the park, visitors were again asked the same question: “What is the most critical problem in the management of the park?” Of the 18 first-time visitors who responded to the question (not all tourists filled out a follow-up questionnaire), the response of “no opinion” or “can’t make a judgement” dropped from 68 percent to 16.7 percent while “preservation and protection” as a response increased from 0 percent to 22.2 percent (Table 2). There was a major increase in awareness of different management-related issues between the pre-visit and post-visit surveys with first-time visitors. Only four management-related issues were noted when the question was asked prior to first-time visitors entering the park. However, of the ten different responses recorded in the post-visit survey, eight were management-related. These data indicate that a single visit to the park generates a significant increase in the first-time visitor’s awareness of park management issues.

Responses from repeat visitors showed that opinions varied widely with no single response garnering more than 22.2 percent. A total of seven different management-related responses were recorded in the after-visit interviews, compared to only five management-related responses in the pre-visit interviews. The level of awareness of park management issues in repeat visitors, therefore, appears fairly constant both before and after visiting the park.

Table 2. Visitor's opinion of most critical park management problem (questioned after visiting the park).

Most Critical Park Management Problem (After Visiting the Park)	First-time Visitors (n=18)	Repeat Visitors (n=9)
Preservation, protection, policing and inspection	22.2%	11.1%
Information, lack of information (including park's interior), lack of signs	11.1%	22.2%
Lack of human and/or financial resources, training for employees	11.1%	22.2%
There aren't any problems	11.1%	11.1%
Lack of conscientious visitors/difficulty of making them conscious to maintenance of park	5.6%	11.1%
Lack of trails	--	11.1%
Needs greater control over visitors and guides	--	11.1%
Difficulty of access and park preservation	5.6%	--
Lack of interested employees; seem unmotivated, never around	5.6%	--
Lack of well-trained guides	5.6%	--
Park doesn't do everything possible to improve facilities for visitors, infrastructure	5.6%	--
Fire	--	--
Maintenance of trails, general maintenance	--	--
Management and administration	--	--
Necessity of entering park with a guide, expensive	--	--
No opinion, not enough information at this time, don't know	16.7%	--

Other questions further examined changes in visitor awareness of park management issues after visiting PNCV. When asked if experience with the local guide increased their knowledge of the region, first-time and repeat visitors both responded positively two-thirds of the time. Guides appear to be transmitting information to tourists and repeat visitors still seem to be learning, although it was not clear how much of this information was about park management issues. Regarding their opinion on information received on the day of their visit from the local guide, 75 percent of first-time visitors and 91 percent of repeat visitors responded that it was either "satisfactory" or "very satisfactory." Tourists who have visited the park more than once seemed to be more satisfied with their local guides. This may be because the repeat visitor is more prepared for the experience and retains more of the information received. Also, repeat visitors may have chosen their guide due to previous contact, may

have lower expectations of guides after visiting the park previously, or have an increased interest in the park (which was the reason for a return visit).

First-time visitors, when asked about the information they received on park management and conservation after their visit, answered “unsatisfactory” or “very unsatisfactory” 35 percent of the time with an additional 25 percent citing “no opinion” (Table 3). For repeat visitors to the park, responses to the same question were somewhat lower. As with the general awareness of park issues, visitor opinion on the quality of information they received on park management and conservation seems to improve the more times they visit the park. However, rankings by both first-time and repeat visitors are high in the “unsatisfactory” and “without opinion” categories (60% for first-time visitors; 45% for repeat visitors) which may indicate that their awareness of management issues (Table 2) was not obtained in a systematic way, and that they would be receptive to more organized and in-depth information on the park’s management and conservation. With respect to the current situation, visitors to PNCV reported that about half of the information they received from guides was related to park management issues. This was true for both ACVVCV guides (43.9% of the information received) and non-ACVVCV guides (50%).

Table 3. Tourist opinions on information received on park management and conservation.

Opinion Ratings on Information Received on Park Management and Conservation	First-time Visitors (n=20)	Repeat Visitors (n=11)
Very Unsatisfactory	5%	--
Unsatisfactory	30%	27.3%
Without Opinion	25%	18.2%
Satisfactory	25%	36.4%
Very Satisfactory	15%	18.2%

After visiting the park, tourists were asked, in an open-ended format, what was the most important aspect about the region that they learned during their trip (Table 4). “Learning about nature,” “preservation of nature,” and “physical geography” each received 16.1 percent of total responses. Of the full range of responses, three dealt specifically with park management issues and were cited by a total of 22.5 percent of the respondents. However, only the response “maintenance of the park” (at 3.2%) referred specifically to PNCV.

Table 4. Most important aspect about the region which tourist learned during trip into park.

Most Important Aspect Learned about the Region	Tourist Responses n=31
<i>Management Related</i>	
Nature preservation; necessity of preservation; importance of preserving nature and the cerrado; necessity to preserve Brazil's natural beauty	16.1%
Integration of man with nature, ecology	3.2%
Maintenance of park	3.2%
<i>Non-management Related</i>	
Nature appreciation; learning about and liking nature through nature itself; respect of nature	16.1%
Geography; altitude; geology; climate	16.1%
Flora and fauna; vegetation	9.7%
There wasn't one; nothing significant	9.7%
Avoid trips with uninformed guides	3.2%
Beauty of cerrado; natural beauty of Brazil	3.2%
Fish live under the waterfalls	3.2%
How the river flow varies	3.2%
Local mores and customs	3.2%
Other trails which exist	3.2%
Respect for the mines and miners	3.2%
To be physically prepared is necessary	3.2%
Water(s)	3.2%

To further complicate the relationship of park management and visitor interpretation, PNCV visitors report that they were most interested in learning about the animals and plants (54.3% each) and least interested in learning about management of the park (8.6%) (Table 5). They indicated that they would like more pamphlets, lectures and presentations on these topics. They also cited a need for more signs and information on park research in the Visitor Center and they had an interest in receiving information about the park through maps, videos, films, and guide books. Seventy-four percent of tourists responding to this question requested maps, an important aid in interpretive presentations, but unfortunately, a resource that the park did not possess or display.

Table 5. *Subjects park visitors are most interested in learning (from a prepared list).*

Most Interested in Learning More About:	Tourist Responses n=35 ^a
Animals of the cerrado	54.3%
Plants of the cerrado	54.3%
Geology	40.8%
Geography	34.3%
History of the region	31.4%
Spiritual/mystical aspects of the region	28.6%
Hydrology	25.7%
Birds of the cerrado	22.8%
Research within the park	22.8%
Management of the park	8.6%
Other	2.9%

^aColumn total >100% due to multiple responses per tourist

Discussion and Management Recommendations

The assessment of Brazilian national park management plans, including those for PNCV, found that they do little to address the role that employees, guides and other interpretive sources can provide to assist in implementing park management objectives. Despite the considerable potential that interpretation offers as a form of low impact, sustainable practice, only occasional references were made to the use of signs, training of employees and the development of other media or activities that could be linked to the use of interpretation as a management tool.

Tourists were found to have gained a greater awareness of management issues at PNCV the more times they visit the park, due more to information communicated to them by ACVCV guides and not park employees whom they contact only at the park entrance. This information appears to be transmitted in a haphazard manner, which may or may not specifically support the management objectives of the park. Tourists report that approximately 50 percent of the information they receive deals with park management issues, which indicates that guides are incorporating management messages into their dialog with visitors, whether or not this is intentional. Both first-time and repeat visitors report some dissatisfaction with information received on park management and conservation.

It is primarily the extremely limited resources (both human and financial) available for daily park operations that results in an inadequate use of interpretation to achieve management objectives. Both park employees and

ACVCV guides were apparently aware of park management problems and were providing information on these to park visitors. The source of this information, however, came not from park management, but rather from a combination of their familiarity with the region, constant proximity to the park and periodic training.

Based on the tenuous situation inherent in national parks in lesser developed countries and the certainty that management problems will continue to demand time and effort of park staff, it is important for parks at the administrative and management levels to recognize that interpretation is a powerful and cost-efficient tool for implementing park management objectives. They should not treat interpretation as an afterthought in park management plans, but as an integral part of the planning process (Sharpe, 1982). Communication of information on park management through various types of interpretive programs gives visitors, guides and other park 'friends' a sense of involvement in the park, leading to the creation of partnerships rather than adversarial relationships. This can create allies for park management in its efforts to preserve and protect its natural and cultural resources.

The future at Parque Nacional da Chapada dos Veadeiros suggests continued change and adjustment as the park becomes better known as a destination and as other development activities occur in the region. Not far from the park, the Serra da Mesa hydroelectric project within the upper Tocantins River basin is nearing completion and threatens indigenous lands while touting increased recreational use on the large reservoir it will create. In addition, a nomination has been made to include PNCV as part of an international biosphere reserve. These two projects will likely increase the pressures on, and threats to, resources (both natural and cultural) at the park as well as to those outside it. Careful consideration of the impacts of these projects should be undertaken, as well as research and planning to prepare the park for their eventuality.

If sustainable tourism is to continue at PNCV, effective interpretation should be utilized as a management tool to prepare and inform park employees, guides, tourists and friends as conditions change both inside and outside park boundaries. Efforts to maintain a high level of awareness of changing management issues will help to preserve and sustain the park for future generations.

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Move Out of the Sun and into the Past: The Blue-Grey Transition and its Implications for Tourism Infrastructure in Malta

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Abstract: The deliberate, officially driven planned repositioning of tourism destinations, from 'blue', sea-side resort based tourism, to 'grey', heritage based tourism has inevitable implications for the nature, quality and location of the tourism infrastructure. The rationale and anticipated results of this transition are considered here in relation to the case of Malta but similar policies with similar implications are to be found in blue resort regions world-wide.

Keywords: Tourism destinations, Blue-grey transition, Heritage tourism, Malta

Tourism destinations continuously change in response to their external economic, social and political environments. Indeed those that do not reinvent themselves in each generation are generally destined to stagnation and decline. This short argument illustrates one type of reinvention, illustrated in a single case representative of a much wider application. This is the deliberate, officially driven planned repositioning of tourism destinations, from 'blue', sea-side resort based tourism, to 'grey', heritage based tourism. This involves a fundamental move away from a sun, sea, sand product to a tourism product range redefined to rest on the heritage resources of the built and natural environments. This almost inevitably has implications for the nature, quality and location of the tourism infrastructure. The rationale and anticipated results of this transition are considered here in relation to the single national case of Malta but very similar policies with similar implications are evident in many, if not most, blue resort regions world-wide (Ashworth & Tunbridge 2005).

The arguments for the blue-grey transition

Arguments from Tourism

Two well-known trends within tourism itself are perceived as threats to established blue resorts. First, there is the growing importance of special interest and place-specific tourism relative to what could now be termed the 'traditional' coast tourism, of which the Mediterranean coast was the pioneer and archetype. These highly diverse and inevitably vaguely defined 'new' tourisms consume a wider range of products, including cultural and heritage experiences, are

more spatially dispersed and are not so dependent upon the cost conscious organised packaged product. Secondly, the 'traditional' market is now viewed as if not 'saturated' then at least likely to exhibit a relatively slow growth in the near future. This stagnating demand is likely to be accompanied by an increasing global supply, leading to increased competition for this blue market from other destinations, both within and beyond the Mediterranean. These competitors often have similar physical resources to the established resorts but can offer very similar holidays at substantially lower cost largely as a result of lower labour costs. In addition the continuing decreasing costs of air travel are likely to erode any benefits of proximity to European markets, while even advantages of familiarity are likely to be lost in an increasingly experienced and sophisticated market. The scale of this blue resort diffusion is signalled by the news impact of its crises, illustrated notably by the tsunami disaster in Southeast Asia in Winter 2004-5

The blue-grey transition is assumed to counter the expected stagnation or decline in economic returns by a move 'upmarket', as a wider range of products is sold to fewer customers at a higher unit price. In addition it seems to assuage the growing, if still largely unfocussed, concerns about the environmental and social costs of the impacts of tourism. At its simplest the move from blue to grey is equated with a shift from a mass-produced low cost homogeneous product to a more differentiated higher cost heterogeneous product. Not only are higher revenues and thus economic benefits acquired from fewer visitors who impose lower costs, a more differentiated product is likely to spread both benefits and costs more evenly, over space and time, socially and among economic sectors. This argument is supported by two characteristics of 'grey' tourists, namely the much higher daily expenditure, from older, richer and hotel based grey tourists and the more dispersed seasonal and spatial patterns of arrivals.

Arguments from Heritage

The argument from heritage is that it costs money for its preservation, renovation, maintenance, interpretation, promotion and management. Historical accident has endowed many blue resort regions, especially in the Mediterranean, with a remarkably rich heritage potential. Such, often globally outstanding, endowment imposes an equally remarkable burden of responsibility upon the local population not least in the foregoing of alternative local development possibilities and pressing economic and social priorities.

While the tourism industry may view heritage as a potential quarry of resources, offering almost limitless possibilities for commodification into tourism products, those concerned with heritage may view tourism as a contribution to the solution to its problems. At its simplest tourism may provide a use for currently under-used or disused historic structures (Chapman, 1999: 262),

provide some direct earnings to defray some of the costs of restoration and maintenance, provide a political justification for public attention and subsidy; and have an important educational and promotional role in bringing heritage to the notice of a global market.

Arguments from Government

This mutually beneficial synergy in which tourism is seen as a potential solution to a serious heritage problem while heritage is viewed as a resource to be utilised as part of a solution to the tourism problem, raises numerous questions which we will mention below. However it is also regarded as a partial solution to a number of otherwise quite unrelated problems including local economic development, environmental conservation, the enhancement of heritage and cultural production as a social good, and even the enhanced local awareness, senses of place-identity, esteem, pride and well-being of local communities. In summary, 'grey' tourism is seen to fit into a number of fortuitous symbioses as a result of the nature of its product, the characteristics and behaviour of its market, and the economic, social and spatial characteristics of its impacts.

Such arguments, and the expectations that they evoke, may be based upon over-optimistic and largely undemonstrated assumptions, but they explain the widespread interest in the blue-grey transition as a policy option whose likely implications can now be illustrated in the case of Malta.

The Malta Case

Malta is a small densely populated Mediterranean island group, with a population of 390,000. It enjoys a relatively high level of economic development and resulting personal prosperity, with a GDP per capita of about half the EU average (Financial Times, 2002), and relatively high levels of educational and social welfare provision. Tourism was explicitly developed to replace the previous British military and dockyard functions which had been the leading economic sector. The Master Plan of 1963, anticipating the full British withdrawal, established objectives and aspirations which guided development until the Second Tourism Plan of 1989 expressed the first significant uncertainties and misgivings (Pollacco, 2003).

The development of beach resort tourism over the past 30 years in Malta has been extremely successful and now contributes between a quarter and a third of GDP and employment (Financial Times, 2002; Mangion, 2001). Visitor numbers rose dramatically from 23,000 in 1963, 98,000 in 1967, 334,000 in 1975 and reached one million in 1992 and a peak in excess of 1.2 million in 2000. It has occupied a modest but central place in the more general growth of the Mediterranean as a destination for beach/ climate dependent, largely inclusive package holidays (Williams, 1997). It has a clear and recognised popular image and reputation, and well developed organisational links

especially with the British package tour market. This very success and strong associations with a specific holiday type, destination and market might be assumed to generate a reluctance to engage in radical change and difficulty in effecting such change.

However doubts began to be voiced in the consultants' report that preceded the Second Tourism Plan of 1989 (Horwath and Horwath, 1989) and even before peak numbers had been achieved; following earlier questioning voices (Pollacco, 2003). An over-dependence upon a single national market, and within that upon a small group of tour operators, raised a fear of vulnerability to external changes and the dominance of the lower and price sensitive end of this market was leading to declining hotel occupancy rates (from 90% in 1967 to under 50% by 2002) (Pollacco, 2003), shrinking profit margins and ultimately unmatchable competition from lower cost destinations elsewhere. At the time of the Second Tourism Plan (1989) these were just uncomfortable misgivings which could be assuaged by policies for some product and market diversification and stimulation of accommodation upgrading. Desirable hotel upgrading has subsequently occurred, as discussed below; however it has exacerbated not only the occupancy rate decline but the appropriation of tourism infrastructure by global corporations beyond local control.

It would be a further 13 years, in which little fundamental change occurred, before a vague awareness of possible threats became a conscious concern for likely serious future problems and words such as 'saturation', 'at a crossroads' and 'end of a product life-cycle' (Pollacco, 2003: xv) became common. This formed the context within which the Malta Tourism Authority launched its Strategic Plan of 2002 to radically shift the emphasis from the 'island of sunshine and history', the slogan from the 1960s describing a product in which heritage was only a backdrop to the resort holiday and occasional excursion destination, to 'island of history and sunshine' in which heritage was to be the dominant product and sunshine the incidental accompaniment.

Implications of the blue-grey transition in Malta

Market Diversification and Upgrading

It is assumed that the heritage tourism market is more diverse in its interests, holiday type and national origins than the existing resort tourism. It is also assumed to be higher spending and possibly better spread throughout the year. The UK market, which still accounted for just over a third of the total in 2001, would be increasingly supplemented by other West Europeans (especially from Germany, France, Italy and the Benelux countries in that order) and markets beyond.

Additionally it is assumed that heritage would encourage the growth of quite different tourism markets. The potentially most important of these is the cruise

market, which had expanded from 57,000 visitors in 1990 to 259,000 in 2001, with an additional 35,000 excursionists using the fast sea link to Sicily (MTA, 2002b). The average length of stay of such visitors is less than 9 hours but they are a potential market for excursions to heritage attractions and are relatively high spending on local goods and services other than accommodation. There are other markets that are related to tourism which are likely to benefit from the contribution of heritage to place image and enhanced built environmental amenity. These include English language schools with a current enrolment of around 60,000 and second homes or retirement migration encouraged here by historical links, cultural familiarity and even previous tourist satisfaction. Although the expenditure patterns of retirement migrants is different from those of conventional tourists, they do provide a base of off-season support for many cultural facilities used by tourists.

Change in Visitor Characteristics and Behaviour

The average length of stay of blue tourists is notably high being a one or two week booking in a single resort hotel. Malta's current average is 9.5 days. 'Grey' tourists however rarely stay in one location for more than 1 or two nights, within a holiday tour that can be much longer.

In general the two dominant age groups in heritage tourism are the child free over 50s and the backpacker youth market, whereas conventional Mediterranean 'blue' tourism tends to also attract the intermediate age groups and families with children. However Malta appeals to a relatively older market and is perceived as less suited to family beach holidays than many other Mediterranean resorts, and indeed along much of the coast, (with a few exceptions, notably of Marsaxlokk and, on Gozo, Marsalforn and Xlendi) lacks the sandy beaches popular elsewhere. Almost two thirds of current visitors are in the age group 45-54. This skewed age distribution, untypical of Mediterranean beach tourism, may be advantageous for policies encouraging heritage tourism. The 'grey' market, in age terms, is itself growing, especially in Western Europe, and it is this market that is the main consumer of heritage attractions in particular, is relatively high spending and increasingly adventurous in seeking out an ever widening range of heritage products.

However, if Malta appears to have an inherited advantage in attracting the older age groups, it has a corresponding disadvantage in the heritage-orientated backpacker niche market which would require the development of inexpensive, backpacker bed and breakfast provision, especially in Valletta, and the use of the island-wide public bus system. This would aid diversification, nurture a future clientele, help the better utilisation of Valletta's residential stock and contribute to its evening animation. However it might also not be comfortably accommodated alongside the older heritage and cruise markets and its possible association with the image of a youth beach/disco/club culture, currently

prevailing in some other parts of the Mediterranean as well as in some parts of the Maltese resorts, may be damaging to attempts to shift into a more profitable and inevitably dominantly middle-aged heritage tourism market that has little demand for, and may be repelled by, such youth holiday activities.

Finally beach resort visitors have greater loyalty to particular destinations, and even individual hotels, than heritage tourists. It can be argued that the more unique the experience, the less likely is a repeat visit while conversely the more generic and less place-specific the holiday experience, the more likely it is to be repeated. Heritage tourists are collecting sites and experiences that are distinctively special and thus move on promptly to the next 'Michelin star' experience. The current beach market is notably loyal with almost half the UK visitors repeating a visit to Malta. Heritage tourists are more fickle and fashion prone and this market needs therefore to be either constantly extended to new groups or existing visitors re-attracted by new products.

Change in the Spatial Distribution of Tourism Development

A characteristic of 'blue' tourism development, especially marked in Malta, is its spatial concentration. A single, almost unbroken, linear strip of about 10km extends along the north west coast from Sliema to St Paul's Bay (through Marsamxett harbour, Msida, Lazaretto Creek, Manoel Island, Tigné Point, St. Julian's Bay, the Malta Hilton and Westin Dragonara complexes, the Paceville night entertainment district, St. George's Bay, the Corinthia and Radisson complexes, Qawra on Salina Bay, with Sunny Coast and Sun Crest hotel developments to Bugibba and finally Xemxija Mistra Holiday Village). As the names imply, this strip has been recently infilled with global corporate luxury hotel complexes which also continue to elevate the skyline by redevelopment of previously built-up seafront (as Le Meridien on St. Julian's Bay). Outside this dense linear development there are only limited resort tourism developments such as on the south-east coast (Marsaxlokk), south-west coast (Ghar Lapsi and Ghajn Tuffieha), north coast (Cirkewwa and Armier Bay) and on the island of Gozo (Marsalforn and Xlendi).

Compared with the concentration of the blue resorts the heritage resources of a potential grey tourism are more widely dispersed through the two islands. The remarkable richness of heritage legacy, with three existing and one pending world heritage site inscriptions, includes historical artefacts, sites and associations from the prehistoric to the twentieth century. There is a wealth of extremely varied structures, events and personalities from which heritage tourism products could be shaped.

Valletta, a compact walled city in its Sciebberras Peninsula setting between Marsamxett and Grand Harbours, is the core of any Maltese heritage tourism product portfolio. Its dramatic gated entry; partially pedestrianised spine of Republic Street / Kingsway / Strada Reale, small pjazzas (San Gwann/ St John's

Sq, Victoria/ Republic Sq.); and, most especially, its viewpoints over the harbours (St John's and St Michael's bastions, from the 'Siege Bell', the Upper and Lower Barrakka Gardens) create a remarkable ensemble with a direct and immediate appeal to visitors (Ebejer & Cutajar, 2001) and can be strongly associated with the two dramatic sieges (1565 and 1940-3) which create a eminently marketable heritage tourism product on foreign markets.

This product is supplemented by the 'Three Cities' on the opposite side of Grand Harbour, namely Vittoriosa (Birgu) the original settlement of the Knights of St. John (responsible for the construction of Valletta and much of Malta's identity), Senglea (L-Isla) planned in the 1540s, and Cospicua (Bormla). The heritage potentials of the interior have been somewhat overshadowed by the Grand Harbour heritage sites but spectacularly include the walled cities of Mdina, the old capital, and Victoria on Gozo. Elsewhere in the interior there are so many historical sites from the Neolithic (such as the temples at Ggantija), through the period of the Knights to British nineteenth century military architecture that the heritage potential is enormous and at present weakly realised. The wealth of resources and their wide spatial dispersal necessitates both a selection focussed upon specific themes appropriate to the desired markets and the creation of product packages and spatial networks. The abundance available to satisfy the capricious demand changes of 'grey' tourism markets is however compromised by the maintenance problem of the physical resources involved.

Change in Tourism Infrastructure

The steady 30 year growth in visitor numbers from the mid-1970s to the mid-1990s was accompanied by a commensurate expansion of available hotel beds, whose total now stands at about 50,000 with an additional 10,000 in the planning process (Mangion, 2001). The transition to a heritage based tourism is expected to both ameliorate some of the currently perceived problems of this sector but also to make its own demands upon it. Concern for an oversupply in accommodation, leading to a decline in occupancy rates, price competition and consequent decline in profitability, has long been voiced (Pollacco, 2003) and policies for reducing the total available beds to around 38,000 (Mangion, 2001), encouraging an upmarket drift by upgrading facilities and reducing the number of 3 star and below premises is part of the Strategic Plan (MTA, 1999). This requires however both private investment and a change in the preferences of holidaymakers. Heritage tourists, at least in the older age group, favour short stays in quality, including specifically heritage hotels, accessible to the heritage sites. In short the problem with the existing accommodation supply is not in its quantity but in its nature, quality/price category and particularly location. Hotels of international quality have indeed proliferated but only one is in Valletta, one in Mdina and none are yet in the 'Three Cities'. Even the current 'grey' conferences may be accommodated in 'blue strip' hotels.

Move Out of the Sun and into the Past

Secondly, as well as accommodation tourists require transport and it can be argued that heritage tourists require both more and different transport than beach resort visitors. The traditional beach holiday is by its nature spatially concentrated and relatively static, generally offering almost all of the components of the holiday within a single resort and even a single hotel. Little transport is required during the holiday. Heritage tourists are just more mobile. Despite the major concentrations of heritage resources in the inner areas of the towns and cities, many heritage sites are relatively remote and spatially dispersed throughout the islands. Also the length of stay for excursionists to Valletta is 4-6 hours (Mangion & Trevisan, 2001) and stay at any single museum, building or site is better measured in minutes than in hours and few generate return visits. The implications of this are that sites and attractions need to be combined within larger packages that form spatial networks and consequently require transport. The pursuit of policies for enhancing the existing blue package with excursions, many of which will be to heritage sites and attractions, with social and cultural events and experiences and with evening entertainment facilities, cannot other than increase the transport demands of tourists not least because the current developed resorts are physically separate from the main heritage concentrations at Valletta and around Grand Harbour. The simple point is that the desired transition within tourism is both dependent upon the existence of suitable transport, without which it is unlikely to happen, and will contribute, if successful, to an increased demand for transport. Unfortunately there is an existing serious road transport problem in the north coast urban region contributing to serious congestion, delay and air pollution. Alternative public transport by rail or ferry either does not exist or is currently underdeveloped.

Thirdly, tourism of whatever type requires other supporting catering, entertainment and shopping facilities. The heritage tourism market in particular can be combined with high quality or speciality retailing, often inspired by local handicrafts and delicacies, a locally distinctive gastronomy and varied cultural, entertainment and night-life activities. All of these are weakly developed in Malta compared with many of its competitors. Retail spending by tourists is currently relatively low (Mangion & Vella, 2000:18) and Malta is not regarded as a significant speciality shopping destination. Its gastronomy cannot compare with its neighbours (Caruna Galizia, 1999:6) and its existing arts and entertainment facilities are dominated by cinemas and casinos catering to the existing beach resort market. The composite of Mediterranean food, wine, folklore and just a relaxed 'latin' life style, that is a perceived enhancing characteristic promoted by much of the rest of the region, and especially important in the heritage tourism package, is developing but still barely evident (Ioannides and Holcomb, 2001). The opportunity for heritage motivated tourists to supplement their day-time visits to sites and museums with evening cultural, social and gastronomic experiences, preferably

within an urban historic environment, should be provided by the compact, historic city of Valletta. Its recent failure to perform this function is a result of the current location of tourist accommodation, and thus evening entertainment, in the north coast resorts and the decline in the inner city residential population which together resulted in a city largely deserted in the evening.

Managing Product Change in Malta

Having highlighted some of the changes that can be expected to result from the transition from blue to grey, the next question is how is it to be done and in particular what can the Maltese authorities themselves do to effect such change. The short answer to this question is that you change the product, the market and the links between the two but it is the first upon which policy should initially be focussed because until the product and its supporting services exist then there is nothing to market. Additionally it is changes in the product and the infrastructure that can most effectively be influenced by local intervention.

The characteristic behaviour of heritage tourists, as outlined above, requires two main reactions in the creation of the heritage product. First, the creation of distinctive, marketable heritage packages that satisfy the pre-structured expectations of visitors from the wealth of resources available and secondly, a rapid continuous extension and differentiation of these heritage product lines in response to the short stays, non-repeat experiences and rapid shifts in fashionable tastes of heritage tourists. The development of distinctive heritage products depends upon selection in time, from what in this case is advertised as '7000 years of history', and concentration in space. The first is a task of interpretation and packaging; the second involves more general spatial planning and management. Despite the length of its historical experience and the wealth of historic artefacts, Malta has been able to focus most effectively upon the dramatic narrative and personalities of the two sieges (1565 and 1940-43), both of which are important for shaping Maltese identity and for associating the locality with a wider world and therefore evoking an immediate response from many visitors but also, it should be remembered, being dissonant to others (Pollacco, 2003:73). In spatial terms the heritage product can be categorised as Valletta, the Three Cities and the rest.

Valletta

Valletta is both the main heritage product, the 'tourist-historic city', and inevitably must contain most of the attractions and facilities that form the 'enhanced heritage tourism package' for day-time sightseeing, museum visits and speciality shopping excursions as well as night-time catering and entertainment. The close-built, compact and contained morphology of the city, together with its peninsula site and accompanying water vistas provides an ideal general atmospheric backdrop to heritage tourism activities. Additionally and unlike most historic cities, Valletta is a planned creation of a single time

period, the mid-sixteenth century, which contributes an architectural, morphological and historical coherence.

However there are four aspects of the city in need of attention, each of which is a local reflection of a more universal problem in planning urban heritage, and each of which requires management approaches that extend far beyond the needs of tourism. First, the reuse of historic buildings, especially massive structures, poses special difficulties. Valletta has not only the walls, gates and bastions of a fortress town but also the Fort St Elmo complex at the end of the peninsula and a number of very large buildings, such as the various 'Auberges' of the Knights and their main hospital, the Sagra Infermeria, of 1574. Government and other office functions make use of some of these, as do galleries, museums and conference facilities but the supply far outruns the possibilities for effective, and economic reuse.

Secondly there is the need to achieve a critical spatial concentration of tourism facilities and conversely avoid the spatial and functional disruption of empty or incongruous spaces. There is an effective clustering of daytime shopping (Republic St), market (Market St), cafes and tourism services. A problem is the lack of similar critical mass of evening functions. There is also the problem and missed opportunity presented by a number of major vacant or underused sites at critical locations which disrupt tourist circulation and the visual impression, notably the ruin of the former Royal Opera House dominating the entrance to the city, and St George Square /Misrah San Gorg, its largest public open space: both are currently used for surface car parking.

Thirdly, there is a clear link between evening animation and the existence of an inner city residential population that supports such activities. The decline in the residential population of Valletta is only part of a wider problem of depopulation of the inner areas of historic cities which in Malta has been viewed as 'a major threat to their vitality and viability' (Chapman, 1999: 268). The combination of decreasing residential numbers, weak inner city gentrification, a deficiency of inner city hotel accommodation, poor public transport accessibility and the absence of evening facilities and events, has created the problem of evening animation. It will require an equally diverse range of policies for its solution including the encouragement of an area-selective gentrification, the strengthening of the local market for evening entertainment, improvement of public transport as well as the encouragement of evening functions through land-use planning and the promotion of evening events (such as the October 2004 'Historic Cities Festival') and facilities amongst tourists.

The 'Three Cities'

The principal current tourism function of the 'Three Cities' is to provide the visual closure to the view from the eastern side of Valletta rather than receive visitors. The area suffers from the three related difficulties of poor accessibility

both to and within it, the absence of promoted heritage sites in comparison to elsewhere and a negative image for many visitors resulting from its dockyard and industrial sites. However it is the possibilities presented by this increasingly abandoned historic dockyard and associated sites and structures that offer opportunities for heritage tourism developments that are beginning to be realised. In Vittoriosa, these include the potential adaptation to new functions of the extensive and currently underused fortress of St Angelo, the Cottonera Waterfront Regeneration Project, which involves a combination of restoration and new building (albeit a contentious global capital intervention, McCarthy, 2004) and the revitalisation of the city gate complex, including the 'Malta At War' Museum. Senglea offers the presently unrealised potential for heritage development as both precursor and 'second Valletta' product. Dockyard Creek is beginning to mirror historic naval waterfronts elsewhere, with the Maritime Museum and proposed further leisure reuse of former British and Knights buildings. The Cottonera defence works and their associated bastions and gates offer a formidable challenge through the sheer extent of the building work, the enormous costs of restoration and the equally enormous potential for quite spectacular tourism development, including the possibilities of a series of linear tourism walking or riding routes along the lines with interesting views, impressive gated entries into the Three Cities and a reuse of the extensive internal spaces that would become available (Trevisan, 2002). Fondazzjoni Wirt Artna, a heritage NGO, has made a brave start with a current gate restoration.

The Rest

The heritage tourism development of the interior poses the intrinsic difficulties of access and interpretation of heritage assets that are both very varied and highly dispersed. Many are archaeological sites, such as the prehistoric 'temples' at Tarxien, Hagar Qim, Mnajdra, and Ta Hagra, the bronze age village at Borg in-Nadur and the Hypogeum at Hal Saflieni. These present problems of access to and within the sites as well as the visitor management and interpretation of archaeological heritage. Promoted heritage trails are a common technique for imposing a thematic unity and a networked package upon diverse and scattered attractions. The 'Countryside Walks' initiative of the MTA since 2002 is one such attempt to open up some of the heritage of the interior to tourists, though the warm climate and minimum shade limit their use to the winter months. However with a few exceptions (such as the Fontana Craft Village, Gozo) the interior is typified by scarce tourism accommodation, interpreted sites or other facilities. Even the centrally located and potentially heritage rich town of Mdina/Rabat functions primarily as a short heritage excursion stop and little disturbs its epithet as the 'silent city'.

The Transport Links

What can be termed the 'Malta Urban Region', namely the linear development extending from the 'Three Cities', through Valletta/Floriana, Msida/ Sliema

to St. Julian's, has a growing transport problem regardless of current tourism which would be exacerbated by additional travel between the north-west coastal resort complexes and the social, cultural and heritage facilities concentrated in Valletta, Grand Harbour and the 'Three Cities'. In particular the physical configuration of coasts, harbours, and peninsulas raises the question of the transport of visitors over, under or around the water barriers. Public ferry services, (the Sliema-Valletta ferry) and gondola-style water taxis (djhajsas) are currently weakly developed, though the 2004 Historic Cities Festival stimulated djhajsa use to access events staged in the Three Cities. Action could include the revival of the water taxis across Grand Harbour, the introduction of a public water-bus system, or even the ambitious (though recently stalled) 'Connections' scheme which proposes a ferry from the 'Three Cities' across Grand Harbour and then under the Scerberras Peninsula in a tunnel to Sliema across Marsamxett Harbour. All of these would provide both accessibility and be tourism attractions in themselves. While the northern urban region has the most pressing need for transport development, the widely dispersed, and often relatively isolated heritage sites of the interior and Gozo need incorporation through transport into a feasible network.

Conclusions

Three more generally applicable concluding points should be made.

First, a transition that has such obvious advantages is equally obviously attractive to other similar destinations. Indeed much of the Mediterranean is currently investigating the possibility of combining heritage with beach tourism and thereby moving 'upmarket', reducing many of the costs of tourism impacts, while maintaining or increasing revenues and reaping various other benefits to the maintenance and promotion of cultural sites, artefacts and events. Similar policies have been or are in process of, implementation in Spain (Priestly, 1995), Turkey, both parts of Cyprus, (Mansfeld & Kliot, 1996; Akis & Warner, 1994; Lockhart & Ashton, 1990; Lockhart 1993) Greece, Israel, the Croatian coast of former Yugoslavia, parts of North Africa, especially Tunisia, and farther afield among the Caribbean islands and, notably, Bermuda which shares a number of insular, historic and tourism characteristics with Malta (Tunbridge, 2002; 2003). This is likely to intensify competition between destinations, even in the context of a market for such place-specific tourism, whose continuing growth is widely predicted.

Secondly, a blue-grey transition can be based upon three different desired futures. There is the 'substitution scenario', in which there is a deliberate, centrally directed, shift from beach resort tourism to heritage tourism. This is the most innovative, radical and promising long-term scenario which incurs the costs of abandoning past success and writing off much of the capital investment in real estate as well as human investment in skills. The 'parallel

development scenario' envisages the development of a separate market alongside but substantially different from the existing sea/sun tourism market. This requires that a new set of products served by new facilities for new markets would need to be developed and promoted alongside but quite differently from those currently on offer and marketed to quite different customers. Finally, the 'supplementary scenario' adds heritage attractions to the existing beach resort tourism. This requires only marginal extra investment and capitalises on the existing established markets and accommodation locations. It does little, however, to attain the economic, cultural and spatial benefits that were the original reason for the transition.

Finally it is clear from the Malta case that the blue-grey transition may be motivated by concerns about the present and future of the tourism industry but its implementation necessitates measures in cultural policy, heritage management, transport, housing and indeed urban planning in general. It also has consequences for all these fields. It may be that heritage tourism by its nature is more deeply embedded in other aspects of government policy than is the more spatially and functionally encapsulated, often enclave, resort tourism. It therefore requires bodies and agencies capable of operating on such a wide canvass, with suitable administrative instruments and political responsibilities. Small island states, like Malta, may have advantages of administrative coordination and political will in this respect, but such advantages and agencies simply do not exist in some of them and in many other regions; the question 'who is to do it?' remains the most important and often cannot be confidently answered.

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The Implementation of China's 'Golden Weeks Holiday' policy: A Preliminary Assessment

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Abstract: The enactment and subsequent implementation of the Golden Weeks holiday policy has played a key role in the emergence of a mass domestic tourism industry in China. In this paper it is shown that demand has continued its strong growth since the three short holiday periods were each extended to a week. The tourism industry was initially unprepared for the scale and intense concentration of demand, which ensued. The policy was not implemented in a systematic way and extreme crowding ensued in major cities and around the most notable attractions. The paper highlights the problem of implementing centrally directed policies in planned economies where consumers are experiencing an increase in the exercise of personal freedom.

Keywords: Holiday policy, domestic tourism, planned economies, personal freedom.

Introduction

The Golden Weeks holiday policy was enacted by China's State Council in May 2000. This policy provided official endorsement for the extension of each of the three major national holidays to three seven day long periods. The policy applied to International Labour Day 1 May, National Day 1 October and the Spring Festival between January and February. The policy aimed to stimulate domestic demand particularly in response to the economic stagnation associated with the Asian Financial Crisis of the late 1990s.

The paper describes the experience of the first eight Golden Week holidays. Over the course of the period covered by these holidays, some costs and benefits of the policy have become evident. Chinese economists and sociologists have expressed diverse opinions about the merit of the policy. Some have challenged the existence of the so-called "holiday economy". This paper examines the outcomes and significance of the Golden Weeks Holiday strategy as an element of government intervention, evaluates its costs, benefits and sustainability as a component of emerging mass tourism development in China, and provides some suggestions about how future research may provide a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Background

In the period prior to 1978, the Chinese authorities viewed domestic tourism as serving political rather than economic goals. Such travel was undertaken for political and work purposes such as meetings of cadres outside their normal cities of residence, political indoctrination, and the staging of scientific conferences. For the most part government discouraged domestic travel because it was considered to be a bourgeois activity and contrary to the communist ethos. Tourism was not thought of as “an industry” and was categorised as a part of “foreign affairs” or “public relations exchange.” Package tours and mass tourism were virtually non-existent and there was no encouragement for leisure travel consumption. The prevailing view of the Chinese authorities was that travel was a luxury confined to the elite who enjoyed sufficient time, money and privilege to make it possible. General consumption was confined largely to basic and functional items such as bicycles, sewing machines, watches and radios and did not extend to experiences.

It was not until the wider process of modernization was launched seriously in 1978 that tourism received encouragement for its foreign exchange earning potential. As income levels increased during the 1980s, consumption extended firstly to items such as colour TVs, refrigerators, washing machines and videocassette recorders, and then to telephones and air conditioners. Despite this acceleration of consumption general domestic tourism was given minimal attention by civilians and by government during the 1980s. In this wider context of the evolution of consumption the Golden Week Holidays may be regarded as a radical economic reform on the part of the Chinese government.

The Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s had an enduring effect on most Asian countries. Across the Asian region it provided an important incentive for governments to contemplate the contribution of tourism to the economy generally and the consumption of services in particular. Though it was not entirely immune and did experience an economic slowdown, China was a strong and self-contained economic entity and a notable exception to the malaise affecting the region. However Chinese domestic consumption did remain subdued during 1998 and 1999 despite showing greater resilience than was the case elsewhere in Asia. It was partly with a view to counteracting flagging consumption, to stimulate the economy and to encourage demand, that China's policy-makers extended the three major national holidays from three or four to seven days. The policy was intended to boost domestic consumption associated with tourism and to generate additional demand for the services and products provided by tourism businesses.

The three week-long breaks are now known as the “Golden Weeks”, because of their association with boosting economic growth and bringing about “golden times”. The expression “Golden Week” conveys the idea of a successful week

for the business sector with a resulting harvest “glitterings like gold”. Since gold has always symbolised something precious and valuable in Chinese culture, such labelling enhances the prospect that the policy will be embraced widely throughout the country at a grass roots level. The Golden Weeks Holiday policy, and the associated “holiday economy”, was a new phenomenon for China and for the Chinese, stimulating domestic demand and offering development opportunities for existing and for new businesses. Each week-long holiday has ignited a spending spree, generating windfall profits for the tourism sector and for other tourism-related businesses including retailers, caterers, accommodation providers, transport operators, communications groups, insurers and bankers.

Study Rationale and Methods

Tourism has emerged as a new growth area for the domestic economy (CNTA, 2000). As indicated in Table 1 tourism revenues have been growing at a rate of almost 13 per cent per annum, well ahead of the average gross domestic product (GDP) growth-rate of 7 per cent. Tables 1 and 2 provide evidence that domestic tourism has become an emerging and significant growth area of China’s national economy (CNTA, 2001). Table 3 indicates the extent to which travel has become commonplace amongst urban and rural dwellers respectively.

Table-1 Domestic Tourists and Domestic Revenue from 1992 to 2001

Year	Domestic tourists (millions)	Increase (%)	Domestic Revenue (Billion Yuan RMB)	Increase (%)
1992	330	10.0	25	25.0
1993	410	24.2	86.4	245.6
1994	524	27.8	102.3	18.5
1995	629	20.0	137.6	34.4
1996	639	1.6	163.9	19.1
1997	644	0.8	211.3	29.0
1998	694	7.8	239.1	13.2
1999	719	3.6	283.2	18.4
2000	744	3.5	317.6	12.1
2001	784	5.3	352.2	10.9

Source: CNTA China Domestic Tourism Spot Check Survey 2002

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Table-2 Proportion of Tourism Revenue to GDP from 1992 to 2001

Year	GDP (Billion Yuan)	Domestic Tourism Revenues (Billion Yuan)	Proportion (%)
1992	2663.8	25	0.94
1993	3463.4	86.4	2.49
1994	4675.9	102.4	2.19
1995	5847.8	137.6	2.35
1996	6788.5	163.8	2.41
1997	7477.2	211.2	2.83
1998	7955.3	239.1	3.01
1999	8206.8	283.2	3.45
2000	8940.4	317.6	3.55
2001	9593.3	352.2	3.67

Source: CNTA China Domestic Tourism Spot Check Survey 2002

Table-3 Domestic Travel Ratio Survey of Chinese Residents from 1993 to 2001

Year	Total Trips (Millions)						
		Urban Residents (Millions)	Proportion (%)	Average Cost Per person (Yuan RMB)	Non-Urban Residents (millions)	Proportion (%)	Average expenditure (Yuan RMB)
1993	410	160	39.00	445.13	250	61.00	60
1994	524	205	75.76	414.67	319	34.31	54.88
1995	629	246	91.00	464.02	383	41.20	64.47
1996	639	256	91.00	534.10	383	41.20	70.45
1997	643	258	92.40	599.81	385	40.00	145.68
1998	694	250	98.2	607.0	444	47.0	197.1
1999	719	284	94.8	614.8	435	47.0	249.5
2000	744	329	104.4	678.6	415	44.0	226.6
2001	784	374	110.2	708.3	410	44.2	212.7

Sources: CNTA Survey 2002

Over the first eight Golden Week Holidays China's tourism authorities and tourism related industries experienced both success and exasperation. Since China has a huge population, it was predictable that millions of tourists would flock to the major tourist destinations simultaneously. Confronted by this influx, the tourism services sector faces major challenges and impacts with a knock-on effect for the weeks immediately prior to and after these holidays. The management of supply and demand is a significant challenge in developing domestic tourism in China. It is appropriate to evaluate the experience of seasonality over the period during which the Golden Weeks have occurred and the extent to which any efforts to reduce demand fluctuations have been effective.

As a relatively young sector of the economy, it is perhaps predictable that China's tourism industry would struggle to cope with the pressures associated with the intense spatial and temporal convergence of tourist demand. This prompts a number of questions which merit scholarly examination. As the newly introduced Golden Weeks Holiday policy became the most talked about topic within China's academic and tourism research communities, the outcomes of the first Golden Week Holiday in May 2000 were on the agenda at the "21st Century Tourism in China and World Tourism Forum" held in Beijing in August 2000. The authors of this paper participated in the Forum which attracted tourism educators and researchers from across China and their participation and subsequent findings prompted the present study.

In view of the complexities of the problem and the limited resources available, the researchers focused particularly on an evaluation of the costs and benefits associated with the Golden Weeks Holidays policy with particular emphasis on the management of supply and demand and on the exercise of government intervention over tourism development. The researchers have adopted a largely qualitative approach, using observations, telephone interviews, online information and general publications such as newspapers and magazines. Throughout the research process, observations have been noted commencing with participation in the Beijing Forum. The secondary data collection has been continuously updated and analysed. Opinions have been gathered from tourism academics, China National Tourism Administration and senior personnel from travel agencies, hotels and domestic airlines in China.

The Booming Domestic Market

The implementation of the Golden Weeks Holidays policy has produced some common phenomena that have been observable nation wide. The best known tourist destinations and attractions attracted crowds of tourists and became "honey pots," leading to rapid growth across all tourism related service sectors. In the case of the first Golden Week (the International Labour Day holiday of 2000), China's travel agencies appeared to be markedly unprepared for the

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frenzy of 46 million travellers. It is reported that revenues of 18 billion Yuan (US\$2.2 billion) were generated, amidst an atmosphere of chaos. A year later, the tourist experience was still unsatisfactory and was still characterised by unpreparedness on the supply side. Three million visitors converged upon Beijing during the equivalent seven day holiday in 2001, generating revenues of 1.7 billion Yuan for the city. Tourists reported serious traffic jams and typical delays of in excess of five hours along the highway to the Badaling section of the Great Wall of China. The Transportation Bureau of Beijing reported 4.4 million passengers in seven days, an average of 630,000 per day and the highest number reported in the 47 years that the organisation had been in operation (CNTA website, 2001). The Beijing experience exemplifies the enormous pressure on key "honey pots" when China's vast population is on the move. The pressure in and around Beijing was indicative that the problem of overcrowding was not confined to urban residents converging on scenic rural areas.

The tourism industry and related sectors encountered major challenges and pressures in the lead up to each Golden Week Holiday promoting a range of responses. After the over crowding experienced during the first Golden Week, many air and rail operators required passengers to make advanced reservations in the case of popular routes. In addition to requiring that reservations be made weeks or even months operators increased their schedules, leading to greater availability. Capacity was expanded in the travel agency, accommodation, sightseeing, shopping, entertainment and transportation sectors. During the second Golden Weeks Holiday (the National Day in October 2000), the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC) arranged an additional 1,400 flights to major holiday destinations. More than 900 trains were added to timetables particularly between major cities and popular tourist destinations. Despite the capacity boost, some travel agencies turned away prospective tourists, most commonly because they were unable to confirm the availability of return tickets. Beds were in short supply and overbooking by hotels, motels and hostels meant that many independent and self-drive tourists struggled to find overnight accommodation. Providers were tempted to be greedy or simply did not have the experience of assessing the likely guest no-show factor. At the busiest restaurants, advanced reservations were essential and long queues were prevalent at the cashier desks of various services. Popular restaurants in Beijing were filled to capacity and generated handsome profits for their owners. The Beijing Evening News reported that on day one of the first Golden Week holiday the Quanjude Roast Duck Restaurant at Qianmen in Beijing handled more than 4,700 guests and generated record revenues of 550,000 Yuan (US\$66,000). Shortages of facilities such as parking and toilets were common at popular scenic spots (Guo, 2000). From a consumer perspective, overcrowding was a negative experience and in the early stages at

least the lack of adequate structures in place (eg provision for advanced reservations) highlights the limited of a poorly developed market.

It is widely accepted that a growth of tourist expenditures stimulates the flow of revenues to the tourism and related sectors. During the National Day holidays of 2001, entry fee takings at the Palace Museum and at the *Badaling* Great Wall exceeded 10 million Yuan. Even in the remote Southwest province of Yunnan, it was reported that daily tourism revenues exceeded 100 million Yuan (US\$12 million). During the first half of the most recent Golden Week, tourist arrivals to the Lijiang River in Guilin broke city records. -Over the past three years, the Golden Week holidays have collectively generated revenue of at least 30 billion Yuan (US\$3.61 billion), with visitor numbers growing year-by-year. During the Golden Week of October 2002, domestic visitation reached 80.7 million generating revenues of 30.6 billion Yuan, an increase of 26.2% over the previous (October) Golden Week. Tourist arrivals and associated revenues recorded during the eight Golden Weeks are summarised in Table 4.

Table-4 *Tourist Arrivals and Revenues during the Golden Weeks 2000-2002*

Time	Golden Weeks	Tourists (Millions)	Tourism Revenue (Billion US\$)
May 1~7, 2000	1st	46	2.2
October 1~7, 2000	2nd	60	2.8
Spring Festival, 2001	3rd	45	2.4
May 1~7, 2001	4th	74	3.5
October 1~7, 2001	5th	52	3.0
Spring Festival, 2002	6th	64	2.8
May 1~7, 2002	7th	87	4.0
October 1~7, 2002	8th	81	3.7

Source: CNTA 2003

Despite the economic benefits arising from the Golden Weeks Holiday, the holiday economy concept has been criticised by many Chinese scholars. In the following section the experience of the Golden Week is reported in terms of positives and negatives.

Benefits of the Golden Weeks Holiday Policy

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy was initially intended as a stimulant to domestic consumption and as a means of reducing the negative effects of the economic recession caused by subdued exports arising from the Asian Financial Crisis. The policy has indeed contributed to the national economy by activating consumption, and by stimulating tourism related demand. According to advocates, the Golden Week Holiday has been an effective strategy, having stimulated consumption, responded to changes in the external environment, and enhanced economic development (Sun Yu-Bo, the Xin Hua News Agency, 8 October 2002).

Significant economic benefits have also been attributed to the policy. By encouraging demand and consumption, it has been responsible for generating employment and has provided a channel for idle savings. The extra consumption triggered by the Golden Weeks Holiday Policy benefits economic development generally, and regional employment in particular. Prior to the implementation of the policy, the Chinese had a reputation for accumulating a high level of bank savings, reflective partly of a lack of confidence in the political and economic situation during the early stages of economic reform. In responding to this environment, many Chinese opted to prepare for difficult times by depositing their disposable income in banks rather than by spending it. The Golden Weeks Holiday policy has encouraged the use of disposable incomes for consumption beyond daily survival needs, thereby putting such idle capital to productive uses.

By encouraging domestic travel, the Golden Weeks Policy has promoted regional tourism and enhanced regional economic development. Spending can contribute to local economies by bringing in tourist revenues and by creating employment. Many tourism-related businesses have also benefited from the purchases made by travellers. In addition to major expenditures such as transport and accommodation, travellers also spend on a diverse range of items such as food and beverage items, souvenirs and photographs.

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy has improved the quality of life in the social domain by offering an expanded range of consumption opportunities. As China opens up to the world, working lives are increasingly influenced by the high speed, pressurised and tense work culture characteristic of developed countries. This creates a psychological and physical need amongst the populace for relaxation and a break from established routines. For many, travel is an effective form of recreation and provides an opportunity to experience life beyond their habitual environment. The benefits of the granting of extended leave also affects non-travellers who are able to spend more time with their family and friends (who have used the opportunity to travel to engage in Visiting Friends and Relatives or VFR) or just to stay at home and relax. For both travellers and

non-travellers, the policy may lead to an improvement in their physical and mental well-being. At a broader level it may have the effect of enhancing social harmony and understanding between human beings from different locations and regions. Within China a booming domestic tourism sector may also emerge as a source of justifiable pride. During the early phase of modernisation, much of the accommodation supply was targeted at high spending international tourists. The emergence of a flourishing domestic market offers the prospect of greater stability for the industry and less emphasis on kow-towing to the dictates of overseas tourists.

Criticisms of the Golden Weeks Holiday Policy

Critics of the Golden Weeks Holiday have argued that it is a short-term remedy offering only temporary benefits. From a macroeconomic perspective, critics point to a lack of evidence over whether the economy has been stimulated over the period of a whole year as opposed to a few weeks. According to this view, consumption is finite, and in the absence of additional income, total demand is comparatively stable across the range of available production capacity. Total consumption in any given year is determined by factors such as disposable income, education, medical expenses, and other daily necessities. Based on this argument, the consumption stimulated by the availability of additional free-time during the Golden Weeks may simply be concentrated during a prescribed period instead of being spread over the whole year, a case of "spending now, and not later." It is argued that the Golden Weeks Holiday may have superficial appeal as a time of prosperity, but in practice offers no real stimulus to demand or to overall annual consumption. The abnormal unevenness of demand prompted by the Golden Weeks Holidays has exacerbated existing seasonality problems and has undermined market equilibrium with demand likely to be subdued during the period immediately after the Golden Weeks. The concentration of demand has also increased the risk to the health and safety of tourists due to a reduction in service quality and the inability of established safety measures to cope with the increased pressures.

In addition to the prospect of a reduction in quality of the available tourist products and services, tourists face increasing potential and hidden risks. Such risks are exacerbated in the case of highly populated developing countries with their lesser capacity to cope. To some degree, the Golden Weeks Holidays bring trouble and inconvenience to everyday lives. Even amongst some who accept the existence of the holiday economy, growth is more attributable to rising per capita incomes than to the expanded number of leave days (Zhao and Wang 2002).

Critics have suggested that the costs of the Golden Weeks Holiday policy outweigh the benefits, and their concerns have attracted substantial support.

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As a large and highly populated country, China has always experienced the reality that social resources and services are inadequate. The public transport system has been especially overloaded and the Golden Weeks Holidays are likely to exacerbate the problem by interrupting or impairing the flow of goods and services associated with the social service system. Any disruptions have the potential to cause adverse social impacts. It has also been observed that after the week-long break, workers return to their employment more tired and depressed than when they left. Some have lost interest in their work, while others feel that the government has deprived them and their families of the right to select their preferred holiday times.

The view of the sceptics receives some support from the data presented previously in Table 1. This data indicates that domestic tourism arrivals grew by only 3.5% in 2000 and by 5.3% in 2001. These growth rates were considerably less than what was reported during the boom years of 1993, 1994 and 1995 when annual growth rates were in excess of 20%. Supporters of the policy will claim that the Golden Weeks policy helped to counteract negative market conditions and that domestic tourism spending grew by 12.1% and 10.9% respectively in 2000 and 2001. Whilst somewhat slower than the figures reported for the five previous years, the aggregate level of expenditure growth is impressive. The figures suggest that the Policy has assisted China to maintain its impressive domestic growth. However when judged over the course of a whole year, it has involved an evolution of numbers rather than a revolution. Any transformational effect attributed directly to the policy should not be overstated

The experience of the Golden Weeks Holidays has highlighted the inadequate carrying capacity of many famous scenic spots. In the face of capacity limitations and a shortage of infrastructure, the tourist influx has created a dilemma for service providers in these locations. Many of the service establishments and infrastructure which have been overrun and struggle to cope during the Golden Weeks period, are substantially under-utilised during the off-season. In an environment characterised by extreme seasonality, the provision of additional capacity usually requires major investment with little prospect of a good return. The capital invested may address the issue of deficient supply during the Golden Weeks Holiday period, but may simply compound the under-utilisation evident during the low season. Many countries which have a more mature domestic tourism sector have opted to stagger school holidays to encourage a greater spread of holiday-taking. The various states within Australia follow such a model. The Golden Weeks policy may be likened to the "big bang" approach, with any necessary fine-tuning being left until later, when the fall-out became known and properly documented. However it may be argued that the ensuing seasonal concentration was predictable in light of the experience encountered in other nations.

Environmentalists have observed that a sharp rise in demand can cause unmanageable environmental problems, damaging the cultural heritage and natural beauty of destination areas. In an action criticised by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Culture Organization (UNESCO), one of China's most beautiful peaks, *Huangshan* (Yellow Mountain), experienced the costs of over-development when developers removed whole hilltops to accommodate the construction of additional hotels and guesthouses. A serious warning has been issued by UNESCO against such irresponsible exploitation of natural resources. Concerns about the adequacy of environmental protection, sustainable development and eco-tourism are gaining ground in China. Frenzied growth is likely to encourage both government and developers to overlook longer-term problems.

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy has been criticised for the social inequity that has arisen as a result of charging higher prices for poorer quality services. According to this view, the outcome for consumers is often unsatisfactory. During the Golden Week Holidays, many tourism suppliers such as hotels, restaurants, railways, coaches, attraction and entertainment facilities have taken the opportunity to raise their prices. At one level this action may be viewed as simply a reflection of the balance between supply and demand. Some commentators have noted that the "higher price but poorer service" phenomenon may create frustration and may dampen popular enthusiasm for travel. It has also been argued that the Golden Week Holidays disrupt operations and production thereby adversely impacting upon business efficiency and productivity.

Overall Policy Evaluation

The following policy evaluation takes into account the relevant facts available at the time of the writing and draws upon both secondary data and interviews with key informants. The evaluation also takes into account the costs and benefits referred to in the previous section.

As China has opened up to the outside world, the tourism sector has grown in scale and importance. By providing employment, generating foreign exchange, and supporting the conservation of notable examples of heritage and tradition, tourism has been contributing to China's economic and social development. It has also diversified the national economy and promoted regional economic development. While stimulating the development of other sectors, including transportation, communication, urban construction, commerce, public utilities, and industries manufacturing tourist goods, it has also helped to provide both a rationale and a market for the preservation and revitalization of traditional crafts and cultural practices (Jenkins and Liu, 1997:114).

A key motivation for introducing the Golden Weeks Holiday policy was to stimulate domestic tourism in recognition of its growing importance to China's

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socio-economic development. Previously its significance and potential had been underrated because of scepticism about whether it was a contributor to the country's foreign exchange earnings and it only began to attract attention during the mid 1990s. With the implementation of the Four Modernizations that were consolidated by Deng Xiao Ping's socio-economic policies in the early 1990s, increased leisure time became a major goal. This has provided the impetus to develop tourism into a major industry sector. By 1992 the sector generated RMB25 billion, a major contribution to the local economic development of many Chinese cities and regions (Zhang, 1995:6 and Gormsen, 1995:131). The increasing propensity for domestic travel was self-evidently a consequence of government economic policies.

Against a backdrop of rising incomes in the period post 1978, the Golden Weeks Holiday policy seems to have mobilised the two fundamental and significant facilitators of mass tourism, namely disposable income and discretionary leisure time (Wahab, 1975). With the blessing of the Open-door policy and the economic reforms, leisure travel has come within the financial reach of many more Chinese than was the case two decades before. As proclaimed in the World Tourism Organization's (WTO) "Universal Declaration of Human Rights" which formed a part of the 1996 Bali Declaration, the right to leisure, generally and to travel and tourism in particular, has long been recognized as aspects of human fulfilment. Tourism has become an important human need enjoyed by all social strata and "not just a leisure activity" (Jeffries, 2001:14). Travel raises the level of human experience and recognises achievements in many areas of learning, research and artistic activity. If the "right to holiday" is a basic human right, it may legitimately be asked why it should not be available to the Chinese civilians in equal measure to its provision in developed countries? Affording individual freedoms can bring with it certain social burdens. The prospect of per capita car ownership in China at a level equivalent to the developed world raises a range of sustaining abilities, issues which are hard to manage.

Overcrowding associated with mass tourism is commonplace in many developed and under-developed countries and is not unique to China. The convergence of several factors may however have exacerbated the situation in China. Some commentators have attributed the tourism boom to the "convergence consumption" which arose as a result of changes in government policy. According to Lin, the domestic holiday market in China has three major characteristics (2000:244). Firstly travellers concentrate their sightseeing activities around the most famous tourist attractions. Secondly most are travelling independently and are covering distances that do not exceed 500 kilometres. Finally the market is highly concentrated and exhibits a high level of convergence. Against this scenario, the sudden shortage of supply during the festivals and Golden Weeks creates a "bottle-neck" with inadequate capacity

in the attractions and wider tourist services sector. "Convergence" shares many common features with the very established concept of "seasonality". Whilst the phenomenon shares many characteristics between China and the West, the sheer scale of the population in China adds an extra dimension.

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy is now subject to political, economic and social evaluation within China. Despite this often critical scrutiny, there is a strong historical and economic rationale for the policy, which suggests that it is more than a temporary remedy in response to a short run economic problem. The Golden Weeks Holiday has been responsible for generating significant economic benefits across the whole service sector, including transportation, hospitality and catering, financial services, communications, entertainment, real estates and culture.

The Golden Weeks Holidays have clearly played a part in the rapid growth of domestic tourism activity. The stimulus to consumption and related business activity has however provided a basis for a dynamic tourism sector across three dimensions – domestic, inbound and outbound. The importance of inbound tourism to China has long been recognized. From a modest figure of 1.8 million tourist arrivals in 1978, China has grown to become one of the top Asian tourist destinations in 2001. Tourism receipts increased from RMB262.9 million in 1978 to RMB4680 million in 1993 (Zhang, 1995:5; Liu, 1997:103). Having started relatively late in the race, Chinese domestic tourism has gathered momentum in the national pursuit of income generation.

According to the Xinhua News Agency (Qi Zhongxi, www.People.com.cn, October 9, 2002), nearly 200 million trips were taken during the first three Golden Week holidays, and consumer spending exceeded 70 billion Yuan (equivalent to US\$8.46 billion). Because the holiday economy stimulates consumption, many economists believe that the leisure and tourism industries will become an engine for economic development. The Golden Weeks Holiday concept has coincided with the Chinese government's policy to upgrade tourism into a significant industry. In turn China's flourishing tourism sector has played a part in revitalising the national economy. The Golden Weeks Holiday policy marks a dramatic break-through and symbolizes the advent of the mass tourism era in China. By inculcating a philosophy of holiday taking into the national psyche, it is likely to propel mass tourism in China to its full potential in the near future.

China's experience with mass tourism is likely to have significant implications for the future direction of the Open-door policy and economic reforms. From the previously prevailing state of almost total ignorance, the Chinese government has subsequently attached increasing importance to tourism. Development of the industry has been encouraged since 1986, when tourism was included as an industry in the national plan for social and economic

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development for the first time (Jenkins and Liu, 1997:104-105). By extending officially sanctioned leisure time and thereby boosting the demand side the Chinese Government has successfully upgraded the role of tourism from a contributor of foreign exchange earnings, to a multi-dimensional economic and social phenomenon on a national scale.

Given the increasing weight attached to tourism within the wider economy, the Golden Weeks Holiday looks more like a planned, long-term strategy than a tactical initiative. Whatever the political attitudes of the authorities at a particular time, it will not be readily rescinded. As long as economic growth remains positive and national incomes continue to expand, more and more Chinese will become wealthy and will embark on a new ways of life defined increasingly by their chosen mode of consumption. When they have accumulated sufficient disposable income, they are likely to decide to see more of the world during their lifetimes. Package tours are likely to be favoured because they are viewed as being safe and as an inexpensive way of satisfying travel needs and desires. If one considers holiday packaging to be a step in the "industrialisation of tourism" the first Golden Week Holiday in 2000 may be viewed as the beginning of mass tourism in China.

The Golden Week Holidays acts as a stimulus for consumption and bring associated economic and social benefits. By generating increased demand, they direct additional revenues to relevant businesses and create employment, particularly in regional areas. This improves the social balance and helps to distribute wealth more evenly across the nation. Currently China's coastal provinces enjoy a huge economic lead over the inland provinces. In due course, tourism may offer the prospect of redirecting the balance, though the initial impetus is to those places that are already most frequented by visitors.

Given the tendency of tourism to integrate actively with other sectors of the economy, the Golden Week Holidays also stimulate the economic multiplier effect. The Golden Week Holidays both enhance established industries such as finance, telecommunication and transportation, and generates opportunities for other businesses such as souvenir shopping, instant photography, camel rides, massages, nutrition and health care products. The Golden Weeks Holiday policy is in line with the ultimate goal of China's economic reforms and Open-door policy, namely to bring a "comfortable life for all people in China".

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy helps to stimulate utilization of idle funds. With sustained economic growth and a rise in real per capita incomes, the surplus on individual bank deposits in China reached a total of 6,000 billion Yuan (US\$722.9 billion) in 1999. The average annual income of China's urban residents jumped from 343 Yuan (US\$41) in 1978 to 5,854 Yuan (US\$705); and rural resident average annual incomes increased from 134 Yuan (US\$16) to 2,210 Yuan (US\$266) (National Bureau of Statistics 1999). These increases have

provided the fundamental underpinnings for leisure travel to flourish. The Golden Week Holidays have become an important part of people's lives, encouraging increasing expenditure on travel and transforming consumption from satisfying basic needs into more sophisticated aspects of self-actualisation. The Golden Week Holidays have extended available leisure time and the associated development of social relationships. This can help to improve social stability and prosperity, thereby achieving social, economic and political goals.

Extended leisure time has contributed to the development of the holiday economy and to a social phenomenon, which will not be readily reversible. As the reforms deepen and the impacts of China's membership of the World Trade Organization became increasingly entrenched, China's interactions with the outside world will become increasingly intense. Influenced by the developed countries and with the assistance of advanced science and technology, Chinese people now enjoy shorter working hours and extended leisure time. The Golden Weeks Holiday policy has brought the annual number of non-working days including weekends to 114, almost one-third of the total number of days in the year. Greater exposure to external influences has also broadened the Chinese view of consumption. As has been the case in other newly developed countries such as Japan and South Korea, travel has now become an important element of consumption. Travel consumption is likely to follow the established path of development, starting with visiting relatives and friends, and then moving into package tours, free independent travel (FIT), and finally to more sophisticated special interest trips.

From a social point of view, the Golden Weeks Holidays have provided a form of psychological reassurance, making people relieved and relaxed. Abolition of the Golden Weeks Holiday entitlement would be unpopular, especially as an increasing number are accustomed to the practice of taking extended breaks. As living conditions improve, the level of consumption amongst the Chinese people has gone beyond merely satisfying basic living needs. Since the 1990s, more people have begun to engage in luxury consumption including real estate, cars and leisure travel. After 20 years of economic reform and with improved infrastructure, the tourism industry has matured. Travellers are more knowledgeable and sophisticated than was the case previously. The week-long breaks provide them with an opportunity to pursue highly cultural and spiritual consumption, regardless of whether it is travel related or not.

The Golden Weeks Holiday policy has the potential to be a sustainable national strategy for China although the implementation has been problematic. As disposable incomes have increased, Chinese travel patterns have been changing. They started with visits to local scenic spots, then moved on to visits to famous tourist cities such as Beijing, Xian, and Guilin. Finally travel has been extended to include long haul destinations such as Europe, America and Australia. A well-established and prosperous holiday economy symbolizes health, social

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well-being and economic success. For this reason, the Chinese government would be unlikely to jeopardise what has been achieved and risk the chance of stirring up social unrest and political uncertainty. It would be unlikely to risk sending the message to the outside world that it is going backwards and that freedoms are being curtailed.

Having acknowledged the many benefits of the policy, the authors of this paper wish also to reiterate a criticism mentioned previously. The Golden Week Holidays may give the appearance of a time of prosperity, but this may occur with no real stimulus to or increase in overall annual consumption. If the figures released by the CNTA and noted in Table 1 are true and reliable, we may conclude that the growth, which occurred between the pre- and post-policy periods, was insignificant. During the pre-policy period from 1992 to 1999, there were significant increases in numbers of both domestic tourists and domestic revenues, with the highest growth occurring during the first five years. The growth achieved in the two years after the policy was implemented (i.e., 2000 and 2001) was considerably less than what was recorded during the first half of the decade. Comparing the figures in Tables 1 and 4, the annual domestic growth for 2000 and 2001 was low. Without the intervention or assistance of the Golden Weeks Holiday policy, annual growth in previous years appeared to be higher. Within the context of lower overall annual growth the spending generated during the two Golden Week Holidays in 2000 amounted to 12.5 percent and 20.5 percent of total annual domestic tourism revenues respectively (US\$4.97 billion versus RMB317.6, or equivalent of US\$39.7 billion using exchange rate US\$1=RMB 8). From this evidence it might be concluded that the Golden Weeks Holiday policy has not stimulated the consumption and demand that might have been expected.

Conclusions, Implications and Suggestions for Further Research

Whether or not there has been an increase in aggregate domestic tourism demand, the implementation of the Golden Week Holidays policy has undoubtedly brought about a convergence in consumption demand. In communist countries such as China, Governments are capable of manipulating the affairs of state across a range of political and economic dimensions. The Golden Weeks Holidays policy has created consumption demand, which has powerfully demonstrated the influence of government intervention. History has shown that China's government has succeeded on numerous occasions in conducting national political campaigns (eg, the Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution) to suit its political purposes. This is despite the fact that a number of these campaigns have had disastrous results for the nation and its people, as has subsequently been acknowledged by the ruling Communist Party. The Open-door policy and the economic reforms, which have occurred over

the past two decades, have not deprived the Chinese government of its power of intervention. This has been evident in the hard-line adopted towards the recent SARS crisis, where all travel agencies were ordered to close their doors and nearly all tourism activities were disrupted or stopped at the command of the government.

Having recognized the power of government intervention, the authors acknowledge that government involvement is indispensable in tourism in the case of relatively immature markets. As noted by the WTO, governments have traditionally played a key role in tourism development (1996). Both the public and private sectors have to be heavily engaged if the long-term development of tourism is to be secured. According to the experience of the developed world, government involvement in the tourism sector was substantial at the beginning of the development of mass tourism. As the industry has matured, the government's role has changed and is now confined to policy making and regulation (Jeffries, 2000:102 & 109). According to Jeffries, governments may have strong motives for intervention (2001:112). They may for example have a strong interest or obligation in resolving key economic, political or social problems such as the Asian Financial Crisis and SARS. Secondly, governments are tempted to intervene and contribute because of the intrinsic character of tourism.

It is the responsibility of government policy-makers to weigh up costs against benefits and to pursue optimum solutions for the national economy. Although the negative effects of the Golden Week Holidays cannot be ignored, Government would be unwise to abandon the policy especially given the positive outcomes that have been documented in this paper. Whilst a number of negative consequences of the Golden Weeks holiday policy have been noted, these could be managed with a view to strengthening the benefits of the policy.

The following measures are proposed with a view to minimizing the negative effects of the Golden Week Holiday policy:

- Pursue sustainable levels of consumption and overall development while trying to tackle the problem of crowding;
- Make environmental protection a key priority within all tourism development plans;
- At the macro level intensify control to ensure that the strong desire for holiday travel is maintained and that development is implemented in an orderly manner.
- Conduct further investigations before expanding the capacity of tourist attractions; increase investment in tourist service facilities appropriately and take proper account of the relationship between high and low seasons when adding additional services.

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- Adopt sub-channelling and dredging methods to reduce the pressures brought about by a convergence of tourists. Use government regulations to control traveller flows and redirect excessive tourists to less popular regions and attractions.
- Adjust and co-ordinate the market with measures such as increasing supply and raising high season prices in an orderly manner;
- Re-distribute leisure time by implementing a scheme of staggered recreation/annual leave; encourage leave taking during the low and shoulder seasons;
- Upgrade travel forecasting services and report regularly with a view to reducing the pressure of travel convergence. Information Monitoring and Reporting Systems such as those provided by CCTV, Internet, radio, and newspaper can help to forecast air and train bookings and hotel reservations. Accurate tourist information and forecasts would enable travellers and travel related businesses to be prepared beforehand with a view to avoiding bottlenecks.
- Conduct research on consumption behaviour, travel psychology and travel propensity to find out what can be done to improve service quality so that better consumer satisfaction is achieved.

The Golden Weeks holiday policy may be understood clearly within the context of China's wider social and economic development. As Zhang has commented, tourism in China has been transformed in the following ways: from a diplomatic activity to an industry of importance; from micro-management and control to macro-management and service; from monopoly to decentralization in tourism business operations and finally; from a product-oriented to a market-oriented mode (1995, 8-15). The evolution of China's tourism industry is indicative of Government's strong willingness to be part of the international community, and its readiness to acknowledge the applicability of overseas precedents. We may conclude that the introduction of the Golden Weeks Holiday policy marks the arrival of the era of mass tourism and typifies the model of tourism development experienced in many newly developed societies. Following the natural course of development, and assuming that the prevailing political and economic policies are not reversed, the Golden Weeks Holiday policy will continue to work favourably, provided that the negative side of the policy is kept in check. Inappropriate development occurs when the market mechanism fails to bring about adequate coordination. As far as the authors are aware, China's government has learnt a lot from the Golden Weeks experience. It has sought to overcome the negative aspects of the Golden Week Holidays, and to improve the quality of the booming domestic tourism sector by introducing a series of practical measures to help reduce the pressure of overcrowding. These measures include a 24 hour market information reporting system providing

consumers with the most up-to-date information about air, rail, accommodation and attractions bookings.

This paper has provided a preliminary investigation of the Golden Week Holidays policy. However, the data used have been limited to year long trends and to volumes of activity reported for specific Golden Weeks. The extent to which the demand generated by the extended holiday weeks has been new demand and how much has been displaced demand remains unclear. A proper assessment would evaluate demand trends in the weeks prior to and following the Golden Weeks. Considerable work is also needed on the supply side. Has the stimulus to demand prompted a growth in established and new tourism businesses and an increase in the turnover and profitability of existing businesses? Further studies such as surveys of tourist service suppliers are thus recommended with a view to producing a more accurate comparison of business performance prior to and after the implementation of the policy. In addition, detailed monthly statistics of tourist spending would be required for the periods before and after the implementation of the policy. An enhanced understanding of those destination regions which have most benefited from the extended holidays would also be useful. Amongst urban residents is there a tendency to travel further, thereby disadvantaging destinations easily accessible from the major cities which may previously have been beneficiaries of the shorter holidays? Finding answers to these and related questions will enable the Chinese authorities to provide an appropriate framework for the future development of a sustainable form of tourism. It will ensure that this key issue for Chinese tourism exerts an appropriate level of influence over the tourism phenomenon globally.

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The Positive and Negative Effects of the “Holiday Economy”

Positive	Negative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contributing to the national economy by stimulating demand and activating tourism consumption generally • By encouraging consumption, and by releasing idle savings and bank deposits, it is an effective employment generator. • Helping to improve the quality of life by creating a more diverse consumption opportunities. • Prompting the advent of the era of mass tourism, with associated economies of scale. • Creating economic benefits for businesses directly or indirectly associated with tourism. • Satisfying the popular desire for leisure activities. • Providing opportunities for new business development. • Benefits for physical and mental well-being. • Promoting regional tourism • Providing opportunities to experience life beyond one’s own home towns. • Re-directing funds that would otherwise have been held in savings accounts for productive purposes. upon demand and stimulate economic activity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating market disequilibrium because of the manipulation of consumption by governments. • Additional spending during the Golden Weeks is at the expense of spending in other periods, since annual consumption levels are finite and are dependent upon annual incomes. • Excessive pressure on transportation, accommodation and food supplies creates serious social problems. • Exceeding the carrying capacity in popular destinations and damaging scenic spots. Encouragement for unplanned and over developed tourist facilities. • Seasonality problems including over-investment in accommodation targeted exclusively at the periods of higher demand. • Poor service quality and compromised traveller safety during peak periods. • Impairment of interest in holiday travel as a result of bad experiences.

The Implementation of China's 'Golden Weeks Holiday' policy:

Combining Sustainable Tourism and Cruise-Ships in Belize

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Abstract: This article focuses on the way tourism entrepreneurs and the government of Belize cope with the apparently conflicting processes they come across while developing their tourism product. Although traditionally focused on small-scale, sustainable tourism, Belize has recently been discovered by cruise ship lines. The impact of this on the world of tourism entrepreneurs is not yet clear and there is a discussion going on between those who argue that cruise ship tourism and sustainable tourism can go hand in hand and those who consider this impossible. The case of Belize is used to further develop ideas on practicing sustainable tourism and cruise tourism, with a focus on the role of governments and tourism entrepreneurs in this development.

Keywords: sustainable tourism, cruise tourism, development, entrepreneurship, government policy.

Introduction

Sustainable tourism development requires both state and market intervention in tourism planning. Governments can provide coordination and implement long-term sustainable tourism plans that contain both strategies for education and regulation (Brohman 1996; Drost 1996). The assumption is that the market forces driving the private sector do not necessarily go hand in hand with long-term sustainability and an equal distribution of the costs and benefits. To quote Brohman:

“Without state intervention, tourism development will likely lack the cohesion and direction necessary to sustain itself over the long term. Unregulated short-term initiatives, which serve the narrow interests of powerful forces in the industry may well jeopardize the sustainability and longer-term tourism potential” (1996: 62).

Or in the words of Keune and Dahles: “leaving the sector to the mercy of the powers of the ‘free’ market’ could turn out to be irresponsible” (2002: 158). When talking about sustainable development, governments are assigned an important role. But the introduction of sustainability in tourism has also broadened the scope of tourism planning to local actors and their needs. Sustainable tourism development therefore needs local participation (private sector and community involvement) just as much (Brohman 1996; Dahles and

Keune 2002). Generally, the need to include private sector and local communities in sustainable development concerns two different aspects. First, when getting involved in sustainable tourism development, the private sector, as the provider of tourism products, becomes more aware of its responsibility in carrying out sustainable practices. Second, sustainable tourism assumes that the private sector or rather the local community benefits from tourism, so including local participation in tourism planning and management seems no more than logical and even necessary.

Brohman (1996) points to the fact that increased participation of different actors in tourism policy and planning requires institutional reforms. Local entrepreneurs and actors should get the possibility to organize and represent themselves in order to exert influence. Nevertheless Dahles and Keune (2002) claim that instead of cooperating with and supporting local businesses, governments often facilitate large-scale transnational investments at the expense of local, small-scale initiatives. And where, in theory, sustainable development should involve the local population, in practice it can be used to exclude them from decision making processes as well. Cohen remarks that external agents sometimes “possess, or claim to have, the authority to define the criteria of sustainability” and this enables them to “take control over valuable sites or attractive cultural practices in the name of sustainability” (2002: 268). Rather than functioning as an instrument to include different actors in tourism development processes, the concept of sustainability then suddenly becomes an instrument of power in a struggle over rare and valuable resources (Cohen 2002). To prevent this from happening, local actors should get the opportunity to become involved.

Dahles and Keune (2002) argue that governments should not only promote tourism as a key to development, but that they also have to act on that by designing a clear policy focused on community based development. Others speak of an increasing importance of public-private partnership, which encompasses all different organizations within the private sector. Looking at the case of Belize in Central America includes not only community-based operations, but also the family-run “mom-and-pop” businesses as well as other local entrepreneurs like tour operators and guides and even local foreign entrepreneurs who have settled in Belize (Blackstone Corporation 1998).

In 1996, the World Tourism Organization stressed that “although tourism is an activity sustained mainly by private initiative, governments have traditionally played a key role in its development” (Jeffries 2001: 102). The private sector can be seen as the primary investor and an active player, but governments have the broader task of setting the stage for tourism and of intervening where the private sector is unable to act or where developments improve the country’s overall state as a tourism destination. Government

interference lies for example in the development of infrastructure like roads, airports and communication, as well as in creating a legal framework or an overarching marketing strategy (Jeffries 2001).

According to Lickorish et al. (1991), the overall functions of a national tourism organization include research, information and promotion of tourism within the country, regularization of standards and control of the private sector's activities, solving technical and juridical problems, development of selected tourist areas and overall tourism policy and promotion. Sometimes governments separate tourism policy and implementation by establishing statutory bodies for tourism marketing and promotion, while others unite them in one administrative ministry of tourism (Hall 1994). The government of Belize has chosen the first option. With the establishment of the Belize Tourism Board as a statutory board, which is responsible for tourism marketing and product development, tourism implementation and policy have been separated into different bodies. Hall (1994) also observes that many tourism ministers have non-commercial tourism advisory councils or committees that provide advice on tourism-related matters. A substantial part of the members often comes from out of the private sector, making these committees more into semi-state institutions. We can see this in Belize, where the highest regulatory body to advise the Ministry of Tourism, the Belize National Tourism Council, consists of both public and private sector representatives.

Tourism policy development takes place in a political arena in which various groups of people interact and compete with each other in order to influence the process of tourism policy making and implementation. Interest groups like industry associations, conservation groups or community groups, institutions such as government departments and agencies responsible for tourism, significant individuals like high-profile industry representatives and the institutional leadership represented by responsible ministers and members of government departments all try to determine the policy selection and implementation (Hall 1994). These actors have different interests, goals, ethics, biases, beliefs, attitudes and objectives, or in other words they carry different values that guide their behavior and performance in the decision making process (Hall 1994). However, the different actors also encounter different constraints in their abilities to enter and then influence the decision making area. This is the result of power arrangements that govern the interaction between individuals, organizations and agencies (Hall 1994). Similarly, Dahles and Keune note that the "different stakeholders are not 'equal' partners (...) unequal power relations define their position" (2002: 5). The question always remains how representative the decision-making process is when it comes to the power of local actors and their real influence on tourism development. It is striking that this attention for public-private partnership comes into prominence even more with the rising concern for sustainable development.

Combining Sustainable Tourism and Cruise-Ships in Belize

According to Johnson, one of the principles of sustainability is “the integration of tourism with local people’s wishes” (2002: 261). But what are the local people’s wishes? When using sustainability as a guideline in tourism development, different tourism products should be able to exist side by side.

This broad application of responsibility or sustainability in tourism comes back in the guiding principle for tourism development by the Belizean government. Ever since its National Tourism Development Plan of 1998, the Belizean government has proclaimed that *responsible* tourism will be the key guiding principle for tourism development in the future:

“It refers to an ethic and a set of practices that chart a sensible course for all types of tourism, ranging from what may be called ‘deep ecotourism’ at one end of the scale (e.g., that which is in very remote areas, allows only very low levels of development, is costly, and attracts only a small market segment), and more conventional ‘mass tourism’ at the other” (Blackstone Corporation 1998: 1-4).

This stresses the meaning of responsibility in tourism as a basis for tourism planning, policy and management, rather than as a type of tourism. By focusing on responsible tourism, the government enables both the mass tourism industry as well as other forms of tourism to grow. Notwithstanding the fact that, in theory, both mass tourists and small scale tourism can now be welcomed to Belize, the same government states in its National Tourism Development Plan that: “The fact that Belize is attracting the high-yield, upscale tourist means that it does not need to resort to attracting mass tourists, who tend to spend less, are less culturally sensitive ...” (Blackstone Corporation 1998: 5). Though the practice of responsible tourism could put mass tourism into a more positive light, one can still feel a preference for the more small-scale sustainable kind of tourism.

Since the 1980s, the cruise industry has increased at almost twice the rate of tourism overall and many destinations now receive more cruise tourists than stopover tourists (Wood 2000). Not only the number of companies, the number of cruise ships and the passenger capacity of these ships have changed. While traditionally focused on the upper and upper-middle class, the cruise sector now also attracts what can be called the middle-class mass market (Wood 2000). Johnson remarks that:

“At its inception, in the 1920s, cruising was the preferred mode of travel for the world’s social elite. Post World War 2 cruising declined, losing trade to passenger aircraft. However, the latter part of the 20th century has witnessed a tremendous revival. Cruise companies have aggressively targeted different market segments, attracted younger passengers, offered fly cruise options, raised cruise capacities and changed cruise durations, prices and itineraries” (2002: 262).

The growth of this type of tourism (middle class, 'low' expenditure, mass market) seems to contradict the highly sought-after type of 'new' or 'alternative' tourists (upper class, high expenditure, small-scale market). But despite the explosive growth of the cruise industry, relatively few studies have been conducted. Within this small body of research, most authors focus on the economic impacts (Dwyer and Forsyth 1998) or the environmental sustainability of cruise tourism (Johnson 2002). The introduction of the cruise sector at a tourism destination does change the established tourism network. It challenges local governments, entrepreneurs and communities to develop and manage a new sector within an already existing industry. The growing importance of cruise tourism has also generated controversy within the Belizean tourism sector. The case of Belize is used to show how the introduction of mass tourism enlarges the discussion on sustainable tourism and unravels the debate into different layers of interest and goals behind the local actors' wishes. Particular emphasis is placed on the role of the government and tourism entrepreneurs in this development and on their different interests, values and interpretations of sustainable tourism in connection with mass tourism. The central question in this article is how the government and tourism entrepreneurs cope with these apparently conflicting processes in the development of tourism in Belize.

The data presented in this article are the result of an ethnographic research conducted in Belize from January until June 2003. Several qualitative research methods were used to obtain information about the tourism industry in the country and the way the government and tourism entrepreneurs cope with apparently conflicting processes in the development of tourism. The research methods include participant observation, informal conversations and semi-structured in-depth interviews with people who are either directly or indirectly involved in the tourism industry. Additionally, secondary data like statistics, case studies, consultancy reports, government action plans and policies were obtained from the national archives, government agencies and through the weekly newspapers.

Combining Responsible Tourism and Cruise Ships

Belizean Tourism: An overview

On 21 September 1981, Belize, the former British Honduras, becomes independent. This date is the formal end of a process of gaining independence that has taken seventeen years. In 1964, British Honduras receives the right to internal self-government and in 1973, the name of the country is changed into Belize. The government of this multi-ethnic country, with a population of 232,111 inhabitants (Central Statistical Office 2000a), strives towards national unity. Therefore, the first image presented to the outside world is one in which the various ethnic groups are happily living together in a nation state. This

implies that the inhabitants of Belize have or ought to have a common national interest, amongst others to improve the economic situation of the country.

Belize is not a very rich country and natural resources are scarce. Belize's tourism industry starts out in the 1960s, mainly with divers that are attracted to the second longest Barrier reef in the world. It is only in the 1980s, when the government changes seats, that Belize starts to look at tourism as a serious option for development. Until then, the ruling People's United Party (PUP) has been resenting tourism, mainly driven by anti-colonial feelings. In 1984, the United Democratic Party (UDP) embraces tourism as an option for development and when, five years later, the PUP regains power, it actively starts promoting eco-tourism (Barry 1995). The Ministry of Tourism is established and gets connected to the Ministry of Environment. This reflects the government's focus on the rapidly growing eco-tourism market. Sutherland (1998) characterizes the 1970s in Belize as a period of adventure tourism, the 1980s as one of recreational tourism and the 1990s as the decade of eco-tourism. At the end of the 1990s, one can see the rise of a 'new tourism'. Rather than focusing on eco-tourism, Belize starts promoting 'responsible tourism', referring more to a way of doing tourism than to a type or segment of tourism. Responsible tourism then includes what can be called eco-tourism, but also 'natural heritage' tourism, diving and marine-oriented tourism (Blackstone Corporation 1998).

In 1997, the Ministry of Tourism and Environment and the Belize Tourist Board see the need for a long-term development plan. A study is undertaken by the Blackstone Corporation, resulting in a National Tourism Development Plan for the next ten years, also known as the 'Blackstone report' (Blackstone Corporation 1998). The plan is formally adopted by the government of Belize where general elections have just brought the PUP back into power in 1998. This results in a revitalization of the Belize Tourism Board and the start of a new marketing campaign. The slogan 'Belize – The Adventure Coast, Undiscovered and Unspoiled' is replaced by 'Mother Nature's Best Kept Secret' and a new logo. The newspaper San Pedro Sun explains this as follows:

"The colorful new logo sports a toucan, a rising sun and the headline, 'Catch the adventure'. The various colors indicate the diversity of our country. The sun represents the tropics where Belize is located. The toucan was chosen because of its friendly nature and the fact that it is the national bird (...) The words of the logo should also lead the tourist to believe that there are more activities to do here than lay back on a beach" (San Pedro Sun: June 29, 1999).

One of the activities is a visit to the rich Maya heritage of Belize. In order to put Belize on the Mundo Maya tourism map, a project is established for the development and conservation of the major archaeological sites. In 2000, the Inter-American Development Bank provides Belize with an \$11 million loan to strengthen the tourism sector and to preserve and protect environmental

and cultural assets (Inter-American Development Bank 2000). Together with loans from several other funding sources, this results in a four-year Tourism Development Project. On the mainland we now see an additional form of tourism that we could call 'heritage tourism'. Again this is embedded in the institutional framework of the government, as in 2001, the portfolio of Culture (including the Department of Archaeology) is taken away from the Ministry of Rural Development and is added to the Ministry of Tourism, followed by Economic Development in 2003. This results in the present day Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Economic Development. The latter reflects what the development of tourism in Belize is all about: economic development. Accordingly, the mission statement of the Belize Tourism Board is: "to fulfill the emerging needs of our local industries and the international tourism marketplace for the benefit of Belize and Belizeans" (2003a). And since growth numbers are often used to testify the positive projections of the industry, the government regularly publishes these statistics in newspapers. One thing is for sure, the numbers are growing indeed.

The number of tourist arrivals in Belize in 1991 is 77,542. This number rises to a total of 172,292 in 1999. Since 1991, there has been an average annual increase of 2.7% in the number of overnight-tourist arrivals (Central Statistical Office 2000b). On the one hand, the latest figures show no remarkable growth (185,705 tourists in 2001 and 186,087 in 2002). But, on the other hand, when looking at the figures of cruise ship arrivals (48,116 in 2001 and 319,690 in 2002) there is an explosive growth of 585% between 2001 and 2002 (Belize Tourism Board 2003b). Belize now receives more cruise ship passengers than there are Belizeans living in the country. As a result, local entrepreneurs get to deal with different kinds of tourists. Next to the traditional overnight tourist most of these entrepreneurs have to consider how to deal with an increasing number of tourists that are only in Belize for a few hours. While this changes the organization of the industry tremendously, one thing has not changed. Whether arriving in massive groups or individually, both cruise and overnight tourists are invited to discover Belize as if it were 'Mother Nature's Best Kept Secret'. Though from diverging backgrounds, these two groups are often visiting the same cultural and natural assets, being the remains of the Maya civilization, hidden in the jungle or in underground caves.

Cruise Tourism in the Jungle of the Ancient Maya

Caving is a new kind of tourism business in Belize. Or, as the Lonely Planet puts it: "The fascinating activity of cave exploration is relatively new in Belize and cave excavation is even newer" (Miller Carlstroem and Miller 2002: 165). Especially in the Cayo district in the western part of Belize, a cave tour will be on most visitors' schedule. Barton Creek Cave, Che Chem Ha, Actun Tunichil Muknal, Rio Frio Cave, St. Herman's Cave, Jaguar Paw and the Caves Branch

River System, all cave's in the Cayo district, are increasingly popular spots to bring tourists underground. Some of these caves are dry caves, others are wet caves where one either has to swim, canoe or tube. Many caves in Belize contain pottery and other relics used by the Mayas to perform their ceremonies. Belize has a high concentration of archaeologically significant caves and this is an increasingly popular tourism attraction next to the Maya remains found on the surface (Veni 1996). Most Belizeans say that it is not just the caves that make caving in Belize special. In addition to this, Belize might be one of the only countries offering tours to places where you can see Maya artifacts exactly where they have been discovered.

Though highly popular, cave tourism is a sensitive subject as well. This has to do with both local feelings towards caves and the fact that the caves are easily destroyed. For the Mayas, a cave is still a sacred place. Some guides explicitly tell you that the Mayas do not like people going into the cave because you should respect the cave and the ancestors. For others, respect is more directed towards seeing caves as dangerous places where you can become badly injured, get lost or caught in an unexpected flooding. When tourists are taken into the cave, they are often told to show respect by not touching the artifacts or the formations. The increasing number of tourists interested in caving tours raises concerns about the fragile nature of cave sites. Action has just been undertaken to control the number of people going into the most fragile caves and it is most likely that in the near future the artifacts will be protected by a rope, separating the tourists from places where they can damage the remains.

It is the growth of tourism that raises questions about the best way to protect caves. Not only overnight tourists have caving on their itinerary. The growing stream of cruise passengers is interested in Belize's underground activities as well. This leads to ranking the caves from 'high adventure in wild and unspoiled caves' to the more group oriented cave tubing in a place like Jaguar Paw. However, there is a heavy debate on how many tourists Belize's spelunker's paradise can handle. Some people ask for strict regulations in terms of limiting the number of people going into the caves and properly training guides to protect both the cave and the well being of the visitors. Others do not see any harm in sending massive groups to a cave like Jaguar Paw as 'it is a very roomy cave that can hold a lot of people and there is no need to worry about people stepping on artefacts as they are simply tubing'. Or they minimize the effect by simply saying: 'they can screw up that cave as long as they stay out of the other caves'. These opposing opinions about preservation of the country in view of both sustainability and the image of Belize as an unspoiled tourism destination have been growing stronger since the increasing popularity of Belize as a cruise destination.

At the end of 2001 the tourism village at the seaside of Belize City opened its doors to cater to the increasing number of cruise passengers. Before the opening

of the tourism village, cruise ships were using the pier of one of the hotels at the seafront of Belize City, being the only area that was deep enough for the tender boats to dock. Numbers certainly testify this growth: cruise passenger arrivals to the Caribbean have grown by an estimated ten percent in 2002 as reported by the Caribbean Tourism Organization (2003). With a growth of 564.4% in cruise arrivals in the same year, Belize is the fastest growing cruise tourism destination in the region. And numbers show that the growth will probably continue into the next year (Belize Tourism Board 2003c). Amongst others this growth is the result of cruise companies' recognition of the diverse tourism product that Belize has to offer, a reduction of the cruise passenger tax, the opening of the tourism village and a general trend in cruise tourism to move away from the Mediterranean to the Caribbean and, within the Caribbean, to those destinations relatively close to the US (Costello 2003).

Receiving 319,690 cruise passengers in 2002 in a country that has only 232,111 inhabitants, these numbers seem significant. Besides that, the number of cruise tourists also exceeds the number of the traditional overnight tourist. Johnson mentions that this is not unique to Belize, as "many established Caribbean destinations receive more cruises than stopover tourists" (Johnson 2002: 262). Though side-mentioned in the National Tourism Development Plan, this new development in Belize's tourism industry appears to have been slightly underestimated at that time (Blackstone Corporation 1998). The Blackstone report mentions the dramatic decline in cruise ship visitation in 1996 when there were only 152 cruise visitors: At the same time it points to the growth projections in the Caribbean stating that "it is likely that there would need to be significant upgrading of cruise ship infrastructure for Belize to compete with the many countries that are aggressively pursuing this market" (Blackstone Corporation 1998:7-5). Apart from mentioning the ongoing discussion on the development of a waterfront tourism zone in Belize City and revitalization of Belize City to make it a more welcoming tourist gateway, the plan does not give any concrete guidelines for the growth and development of the cruise ship industry.

With the consistent growth in cruise tourism and the positive future projections in mind, Belize's first Cruise Ship Policy comes into existence in 1999 after a lengthy consultation process with private and public sector partners. It is ratified by the Belize National Tourism Council early 2000 and mentions the mixed feelings that both the public and private sectors of the tourism industry have towards cruise tourism as an intrusive and incompatible sub-sector. As such it tries to formulate conditions to optimize the development of cruise tourism while at the same time ensuring that the growth is environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable (Belize Tourism Board 1999). In the view of the government, cruise tourism and the traditional overnight tourism are complementary and Belize can continue to promote itself as an eco-cultural

destination (Belize Tourism Board 1999). Still the cruise sector gets significant resistance from different parts of the country, especially the Cayo district that can be seen as the 'eco-cultural heart' of the country and where sustainability is an important issue for the local tourism entrepreneurs.

Tourism Entrepreneurs and Government Policy in Belize

The arena of the Belizean tourism industry consists of different stakeholders. As mentioned before, this article focuses on two of them. First there are people who try to make a living out of tourism, the tourism entrepreneurs. Dahles defines an entrepreneur as "a person who builds and manages an enterprise for the pursuit of profit in the course of which she/he innovates and takes risks, as the outcome of an innovation is usually not certain" (1999: 3). The tourism entrepreneurs in this article mainly include tour operators, hair braiders, owners of resorts and independent tour guides. Obviously this is a representation of a broad variety of different organizations, ranging from small to bigger entrepreneurs. But since the focus here is on the new developments of tourism in the country and on the different ways that people working in tourism react on that, this approach seems justified. Not the actions of one particular set of entrepreneurs are under study, but rather the outcome of a complex network of initiatives by different people with different possibilities and different interests.

Second to this group of entrepreneurs is the government, which is responsible for policy development and decision-making and sets the stage and the legislation for tourism in the country. This does not necessarily mean that the government and entrepreneurs have different interests. Both stakeholders derive an income from tourism on a local and a national level.

Nevertheless, there is always a difference between the specific concerns of private entrepreneurs and the government's general public concern. Though both benefit from developing a prosperous tourism industry, the interests of the public and private sector are not always the same and sometimes they even contradict, for example with governments allowing and disallowing specific practices or encouraging growth in certain areas rather than others. Keune and Dahles argue that a good government not only has to be active in developing "sound conditions for the expansion of tourism sales potential, but also in embedding that sector in conditions and interests that offer guarantees for sustainable development in the broadest sense of the word" (2002: 158). This means that the government creates the space in which the entrepreneur acts, thus both enabling and restricting the activities of the private entrepreneur.

With their case study of competing entrepreneurs in the Cayo district, Volker and Sorée (2002) show that government interference can lead to quarrels on the local level. The arrival of cruise tourism changes the tourism arena in Belize and it is the task of the government to monitor and guide these changes.

Sometimes this leads to quarrels as well, for example in November 2002 when the Belizean newspaper the *Amandala* notes that the hair braiders and vendors in front of the tourism villages were removed to another area, not to the satisfaction of all of them (Amandala 2002). Though this does not represent everyday practice, the growth of cruise tourism and the way the government guides (or according to some does not guide) this development, results in a fragmented picture of how local entrepreneurs deal with the arrival of cruise ships and their reasons for doing so. Whereas some entrepreneurs immediately seize upon the development of the cruise industry for economic opportunities, others are rather skeptical about the cruise sector as a part of the Belizean tourism industry. Besides a diversity of (economic) interests, this also reflects differences in opinion considering the impact of cruise tourism on the natural and social environment of the country. Johnson describes this debate as follows:

“Some commentators have argued that cruise tourism, being a formally organized and spatially confined leisure activity, can be viewed as a sustainable and sociologically harmless option. Others contest this, highlighting problems associated with waste generation and disposal, together with pressures exerted on fragile environments and host communities” (2002: 263).

The government is aware of this tension and continually stresses its commitment to its unique tourism product. As the current Minister of Tourism, Mark Espot, said in a speech at the Fifth Annual Tourism Industry Presentation:

“Let us at the start of this term, renew our commitment to pursuing the eco/cultural/adventure tourism that has delivered this balanced and genuine development to our country and its people. The glitter of mass casino and mass cruise tourism is but a ruse that will fall far short of its apparent shine” (Minister of Tourism: April 2003).

Assuming that cruise tourism is in Belize to stay (at least for a while), the debate amongst the different actors in the Belizean industry is not so much about a choice between cruise tourism versus no cruise tourism as it is about what kind of cruise tourism should be developed and questions on how to structure and guide this new development.

In the daily practice of tourism in Belize, one can see the same distinctions. On the one hand one can see entrepreneurs that embrace cruise tourism as a new opportunity to gain income, like the hair braiders, street vendors and taxi drivers at the tourism village in Belize City. While some of these entrepreneurs might merely be driven by economic motivations, others are convinced that cruise tourism can be practiced in a sustainable manner. On the other hand there is a group of entrepreneurs who refuses to deal with cruise tourism. Opposition is strongest in the Cayo region where they are mainly focused on overnight tourists. Still most of these tour operators and lodge owners do not

totally disagree with the arrival of cruise ships, but rather with the way this development has been regulated by the government. As one resort owner says:

“A lot of people think that because I’m involved in heavy eco-tourism, adventure travel that I would be against cruise ships. No, I’m not. I’m not against anything, if it’s done right and if the way it’s done makes sense. The problem is not cruise ships coming in, or even three or four cruise ships coming in. The problem is how we equally disseminate those thousands of people throughout the country to minimize not only destruction on our national resources, which is the jungle or the caves and the Maya ruins, by having two thousand people a day walking over the Maya ruins. But also in the sake of other tourists coming here for that unique adventure, non-developed experience but when going to Maya ruins they are being inundated with two thousand people a day” (Interview 2003).

Other Owners Mention the Same:

“I’m not saying that we should disallow any cruise tourism. Because this government needs to open as many niches as they possibly can ... I think it’s good to have both, but the growth in cruise ship tourism has been over five hundred percent in the last year alone. It’s unregulated” (Interview 2003).

An informant from the government acknowledges this failure, but points to the relative young state of the Belizean tourism industry:

“We are still young, growing and improving. Important are the means of making it sustainable. These high increases are not sustainable in the long run” (Interview 2003).

The current debate on the role of cruise tourism as part of the tourism development in Belize is not just a result of opponents equating mass tourism with unsustainable practices, but rather stems from the fact that until now the government has not been able to keep up with the developments in order to make sure they happen in a responsible way. Cruise tourism is a relatively new development in Belize and it was not thought to grow the way it is currently growing. A lack of experience and foresight are responsible for the current focus on the negative aspects that come along with unplanned and unstructured mass tourism. The underlying assumption is that governments have the task of setting the stage for sustainable tourism in a country. But the developments in Belize appear to go the other way around.

Part of the private sector is urging the government to get more involved in sustainable tourism practices by stressing the needs for standards of control and implementing policies that will guide and plan the current tourism growth. This is probably a consequence of the fact that tourism on the mainland has developed out of environmentalist groups and has traditionally been focused on strong eco-, nature and adventure tourism in which sustainable practices,

often connected to small tour groups, are highly valued. These entrepreneurs have nothing to gain out of the cruise sector and tend to see the current development as a threat to their well-established businesses in the long run. The current focus on cruise tourism is seen as a short-term thing that hinders the sustainability and longer-term tourism potential of the country (Brohman 1996). The question arises whose long-term benefits are being jeopardized: the interests of some specific entrepreneurs or that of the country as a whole? The conflict can be seen as an example of diverging interests between a part of the private sector and the public sector. Though both government and Cayo's tourism entrepreneurs highly value the type of tourism that has developed in the Cayo region, the governments concern is a broader one. Allowing the cruise sector to grow and thereby enabling some entrepreneurs to enter the tourism industry, sometimes seems to clash with the specific interests of other tourism entrepreneurs. These opposing tour operators and resort owners not only refuse to deal with cruise ship passengers because they do not want to see their business turn into "just another high-impact destructive tourism operation", but they also try to find different ways to continue doing business according to their own philosophy.

Sometimes it seems that reserving the unique or fragile sites for a small group of people is legitimized in terms of being 'non-destructive'. This comes close to Cohen's (2002) remarks on sustainability and equity, where he claims that agents sometimes try to take control over valuable sites or attractive cultural practices in the name of sustainability. Whereas Cohen mainly points to 'external agents', in Belize the same practice occurs among local entrepreneurs. As mentioned before in the example of cave tourism, some entrepreneurs start to rank the caves, leaving some to cruise passengers while moving their own tours somewhere else. One resort-owner comments:

"I will not send my guests to that destination, because I can't run the risk of them going there and floating inside the cave with seven hundred cruise ship passengers. And we know a lot of other caves that the cruise ship people would never go to. It just means that we would become more unique in our product" (Interview 2003).

Or as a Tour Guide said:

"I like to be out there with only my guests, I don't like to be seeing other tourists with other tour guides doing the same thing that I'm doing, in the same area when I'm there. I want them to feel that the tour is special, that they are the only ones there. If I can't offer that kind of experience any more at that cave, it's time for me to move on again" (Interview 2003).

Another commonly heard phrase is to avoid going to these places (be it a cave or an archaeological site) on 'cruise ship day', because the cruise ships (still) only arrive on certain days of the week. So while disagreeing with the current

government policy in developing the cruise sector, these entrepreneurs try to continue their own business as much as possible. Though opposing to the development of cruise tourism for private reasons (either economic or ideological ones or just a personal preference for a specific type of tourism), these entrepreneurs also 'warn' for the supposedly negative impact of cruise tourism on the whole country of Belize. The comment of someone in Cayo illustrates this attitude:

"There are those when we criticize cruise ship tourism, they say that we are being jealous. But I say even for their interest it [the unstructured development] is not a good thing" (Interview 2003).

Besides the often heard complaint that cruise tourism is not sustainable and that it will destroy the country, some also think that cruise tourism is just a 'hype' that will easily turn its back on Belize again. Several informants wonder what Belize will have left when after a couple of years the cruise ships might stop coming. They fear a negative impact on the image of Belize as an important destination for responsible, eco-cultural adventure tourism. Next to this, most of the entrepreneurs that are against cruise tourism, claim that it does not bring much profit to the country either, comparing the low expenditure cruise ship passenger with the more elite overnight-tourist whose money goes directly to the local community.

Sustainable development does not only have to do with regulating the number of tourists, defining the carrying capacity of sites and zoning or directing groups to certain areas to minimize pressure on the environment. Sustainable development also contributes to the social and economic development of the local community (Brohman 1996, World Tourism Organization 2003). Throughout the various regions questions are raised about who actually benefits most from the tourism village and the trips of cruise ship passengers: the broader community or merely a few big companies. But as Dahles comments: "governments and industries all over the world legitimate the development of tourism in terms of the revenues and employment opportunities that emanate from this sector" (2001: 217). And this works the same way in the case of Belize. The government of Belize sees tourism as an important catalyst for economic growth, stating that "tourism means business" (Belize Tourism Board 2003d). The title of the Tourism Action Plan 2003-2004 is: "Tourism is our future, and it is for all of us!" (Belize Tourism Board 2003a). Besides looking at cruise ship tourism as a diversification of the tourism industry, it is also hoped for that some of these passengers will return to Belize as overnight tourists. In this view eco-tourism and cruise tourism can go hand in hand, providing the country with a source of income. The government defies the arguments made by the opponents of cruise tourism. As an informant at the Belize Tourism Board comments:

“It’s a narrow view that cruise ships don’t benefit the country. The country is large enough. The western part of the country may be the eco-cultural hart. But for Belize City it’s a different story. Cruise ships provided the city with many jobs and income opportunities. Besides that, it’s a naïve view that cruise ships will go away. The cruise ship industry is growing every single day. We will not survive without looking into it. We can’t be exclusionary” (Interview 2003).

At the same time the benefits cruise ship tourism has for local entrepreneurs are regularly underlined in the government-related newspaper the Belize Times. Headlines such as “Cruise tourism soars to new heights” (Belize Times 2002) and “Braiding = big bucks” (Belize Times 2003) feature the job and revenue opportunities for Belizeans as a result of cruise tourism. On the contrary, the opposition-related newspaper the Guardian continually attacks the PUP government’s tourism policy for being foolish and dishonest, claiming that they sell out the country to “private interest, party interest, special interest, foreign interest - every interest other than the national interest” (Guardian 2003). Another Belizean newspaper the Reporter once questioned the supposedly growth in income opportunities by saying:

“There seems to be an attempt by big money interests to control the cruise ship industry at the expense of the small artisans and vendors and possibly also at the expense of the small tour operators” (Reporter 2003).

The opposition often presents cruise tourism as a negative example of mass tourism, accusing the cruise sector of being foreign controlled, unplanned and short-term. Whereas Brohman (1996) remarks that mass tourism does not need to work this way with more selective and deliberate planning, community participation and local control over development, opponents argue that these are the exact points that seem to be missing.

As argued before, sustainable tourism development requires the involvement or participation of different local actors in tourism policy development and implementation. Belize seems to have quite a lot of different advisory bodies, organizations and committees to involve the private sector. The Belize Tourism Board continuously praises the strong partnership between the public and private sector (Belize Tourism Board 2003a). This can also be heard from the side of the private sector:

“I’m sure that the only way forward is for government and private sector to work together in a small nation like this. We simply have to work together. And I think we have been able to achieve that” (Interview resort owner 2003).

Entrepreneurs are also organizing themselves or strengthening the already existing organizations to be able to lobby with the government for a more structured development of cruise tourism. For example, both the ‘cruise ship

task force' and the Cayo Belize Industry Association accordingly have sent letters to the Minister of Tourism and the Belize Tourism Board. And after consultation of the different stakeholders, the Cruise Ship Policy is being revised at the moment. But even for these industry associations it is not always easy to take a clear position in the debate, given the fact that the different members have different interests. Before the Cayo Belize Industry Association directed its letter to the government, a discussion took place concerning the question with whose voice the association should actually speak. Someone observed the weak spot:

"There are members on our national basis, especially and even on the local basis, who are benefiting by cruise ship tourism. The Belize Tourism Industry Association (BTIA) umbrella. So it covers a lot of businesses" (Meeting Cayo Belize Industry Association 2003).

Tourism policy development takes place in a political arena in which various groups of people interact and compete with each other (Hall 1994). This produces an unclear overall picture, not only at the micro level of tourism entrepreneurs, but at the macro level of the government and the related political parties as well. The question what tourism actually means on the political agenda is often heard in Belize. As Richter states "there is often a political agenda – wise or foolish, benign or selfish, compatible or incompatible – underlying the explicit tourism program" (1989: 19). Cheong and Miller comment that "tourism policy is often entangled with, or subordinate to, other policies, which may well hinder policy intervention in development and weaken the representation of the stakeholders in such places" (2000: 373). This might be the case in Belize as well. The earlier mentioned entrepreneurs that complain of a lack of structuring by the government in the development of cruise tourism, often praise the current Belize Tourism Board and the Ministry of Tourism. But they cautiously wonder about the understanding of tourism in the broader arena of the government. At the end of his above-cited speech at the Annual Tourism Industry Presentation, Mark Espot, the Minister of Tourism, even touches upon this matter himself by saying:

"The BTB is but a spoke in a giant wheel of tourism, willing to play whatever role benefits our industry. In most instances this role is as advocate, a supporter, a promoter rather than leader. Our sister Ministries of Government, City Councils, Town Boards and the Village Councils will find a willing partner in our BTB and will find themselves in the leadership role if they too are serious about tourism" (Espot 2003).

But a lot of actors think that these other 'sisters' are not serious about tourism:

"The rest of the government, including the Minister of Finance, the Prime Minister and the other Ministries, although they can see that they are making finance from tourism, they really don't understand how it works. And they

tend to look at it as a cash cow for increasing taxation. They don't realize how vulnerable tourism is, how tickle" (Interview resort owner 2003).

Power arrangements govern the interaction between the different actors and often the different stakeholders do not enter the process as equal partners. Some people argue that the Ministry of Tourism and the Belize Tourism Board are regarded as responsive to the needs of the industry, but as weak actors in the broader political arena. Obviously there are different levels involved in the formation and the development of Belize's tourism policy (Roessingh and Bras 2003). This makes the discussion on combining sustainable tourism and cruise ships a difficult one.

Conclusion

We started this article wondering how the government and tourism entrepreneurs cope with the apparently conflicting processes in the development of tourism in Belize. The growth of cruise tourism has changed the traditional focus of the Belizean tourism industry towards small sustainable tourism. Examining Belize as an upcoming tourism destination provides insight into the relation between cruise tourism and sustainable tourism. Emphasis is placed on the role of several actors, with different interests and diverse means of exercising influence.

Even though, in theory, sustainable tourism is not constricted to small-scale tourism programs, people often seem to look at it this way. As long as tourism in Belize remained small, the debate on whether all the actions were really responsible remained small as well. It is often assumed that small groups can be controlled easily and that their impact will not be too destructive. Besides that, the tourists that are attracted to such a unique experience are willing to pay for it, making this type of tourism economically viable as well. One can always wonder what sustainable tourism is all about, and in the case of Belize the arrival of cruise tourism has magnified this discussion. The recent influx of cruise tourism has fuelled a debate on how to develop the Belizean tourism industry towards the future, a debate that is given shape on two different levels. The first is a 'practical' one, considering whether cruise tourism can be sustainable and whether it benefits the country economically. The second one is a rather 'symbolic' one, questioning whether cruise tourism will still allow Belize to keep its current unspoiled, undiscovered image as "Mother Nature's Best Kept Secret". By supporting cruise tourism, the government permits the tourism industry to move into a new or at least other direction. This will change the traditional focus on small-scale tourism into one in which both mass tourism consisting of cruise passengers and small tourism consisting of stopover tourists, will make use of the same cultural and natural assets at the same time. Tourism entrepreneurs can actively use this new development to gain profit, or they

can keep doing their 'old' thing while either tolerating the cruise sector to develop aside, or by actively refraining from and discouraging it.

Differentiation arises between the people that see cruise tourism and sustainable tourism as compatible and those who do not. Those who reject the cruise sector, argue that cruise tourism threatens the unspoiled character of the country. If not structured, the massive aspects of cruise tourism will not only destroy the country's natural assets, but also its outside image of being a well-kept secret. This group is represented by a certain group of entrepreneurs, mostly the ones who have been in the industry for a long time and who are traditionally focused on eco-, cultural and adventure tourism. On the other side one sees entrepreneurs who argue that cruise tourism can be handled in a responsible way and who do not want to lose the economic advantages. Everyone, both government and tourism entrepreneurs, seems to agree that the sector has to be structured and guided and that this is a task of the government. With cruise tourism already there, the question is not whether Belize wants this sector to develop, but rather how Belize wants it to develop. This discussion is a difficult one, since there are several actors involved with different (sometimes opposing) interests and different values and concerns. Practical questions like "what do we gain out of it?" and symbolical ones like "do we want our paradise to be discovered?" both seem to play an important role. Answers to these questions seem to be of vital importance to Belize as well, as the discussion often seems to end because of a lack of knowledge on statistical data. Nevertheless, the matter of emotional value should not be underestimated. As described in this article, the way Belize is promoting itself expresses a certain emotion in describing the country as 'hidden, undiscovered or nature's best kept secret'. Although the proponents and opponents of cruise tourism often use claims about the economic and environmental impact, there seems to be a more essentialist point of view underlying the debate. Questions like "do we want massive groups of tourists to be able to enter our Maya caves" seem to play a role.

The case of Belize and particularly the example of cruise ships entering a tourism destination that has traditionally focused on small-scale tourism, highlights a few points concerning the roles of the government and tourism entrepreneurs in developing their tourism industry. All parties make use of economic, sustainable and even responsible rhetoric in the debate. While the ones taking a stand against cruise tourism argue that the culture, adventure and nature tours in Belize require small-scale tourism, and that this form of tourism also brings in relatively much money, the advocates of the cruise sector claim that structured and controlled cruise tourism can be practiced in a sustainable manner as well, bringing in a lot of money at the same time. Clearly, both groups use economical motives to enforce their arguments. Both groups also claim to look at long-term development. The opponents think that the

cruise tourism sector is not viable in the long run. They argue that after investing heavily in this sector, the big cruise companies will soon pass on to another undeveloped country leaving Belize socially, culturally and environmentally destructed. The proponents conversely argue that cruise tourism is there to stay and that Belize literally should not miss the boat. More than the proponents, the opponents seem to be guided by 'emotional' arguments. They often refer to a fear of losing the image of a well-hidden natural treasure. Since the opposition is strongest in the Cayo region, where tourism has generally developed out of environmentalist groups or at least some of the early eco-tourism entrepreneurs have, this 'emotional' attachment seems quite logical.

Beside the role of regulating, controlling and facilitating the action the Government is also seen as investors or players when it comes to actions that go beyond the responsibility of the individual entrepreneur. The Government, but also the tourism entrepreneurs are both responsible for the structure around sustainability. The private sector is seen as the primary investor, shaping the industry on a practical level by providing a product. As such, there is a constant interplay between governments and entrepreneurs, reacting both on each other and on the developments that are taking place. Practicing tourism in such a way that it benefits the needs of the current and future population without harming the natural, social and cultural environment, underlines the need for governments and tourism entrepreneurs to work together in a public-private partnerships.

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Combining Sustainable Tourism and Cruise-Ships in Belize

Wine Marlborough: A Profile of Visitors to New Zealand's Oldest Wine Festival

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Abstract: The Wine Marlborough Festival is New Zealand's longest running wine festival. This paper provides a profile of visitors to the 2003 BMW Marlborough Wine Festival with comparisons being made where possible to visitor profiles from 1999, 2000 and 2002. In addition comparisons are drawn with the results of a national wine visitor survey. The results suggest not only significant differences in the profile of event goers on a year by year basis but also substantial differences between wine event attendees and winery visitors in the Marlborough region. These findings have significant implications for the positioning of the specific Wine Marlborough event as well as broader issues of wine marketing strategy.

Keywords: wine tourism, event, festival, New Zealand, Marlborough.

Introduction

Wine tourism is regarded as an increasingly significant form of rural tourism which has the potential to create synergies between the tourism and wine sectors for mutual promotion, marketing and economic benefit (Hall, Sharples, Cambourne & Macionis, 2000). Wine festivals and events are regarded as an important subset of wine tourism although research on wine events is extremely limited (Houghton 2001; Mitchell and Hall 2003; Carlsen 2004). For example, in the New Zealand case extensive research exists on wine tourism but little on wine events (Hall, 1996; Hall & Johnson, 1998; Hall, Longo, Mitchell & Johnson, 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2001a, 2001b). Research on food tourism and related events in New Zealand is almost non-existent. Nevertheless, wine and food festivals are recognised as offering customers a chance to enjoy a wide variety of wine and food with little of the transport problems of winery visitation. Festivals can be integrated with special tours and menus at restaurants and wineries and produce spin-off events additional to the main festival. Despite Hadyn and Talmont (1997: 26) suggesting that festivals were a fad that had had its day, citing as evidence attendance figures at the *New Zealand Wine and Food Festival in Wellington* that attracted 15,000 per year at its peak and only 2,000 in 1997, there are now wine festivals in every major wine region of New Zealand, including urban centres without wineries and these occur throughout all but the winter months (Hall, Longo, Mitchell & Johnson, 2000). The emphasis at such festivals is usually on producers based within the region whose prime reason for exhibition is promotion not immediate profit

(Pratt 1994), although there is an assumption that such promotion and customer contact will provide for long term purchasing.

The largest and most famous of New Zealand's festivals, the *BMW Wine Marlborough Festival* (formerly the Air New Zealand Marlborough Wine and Food festival), is held in the grounds of Montana's Brancott Estate and is considered a benchmark for other festivals. The BMW Wine Marlborough Festival is New Zealand's longest running wine festival which celebrated its 20th year in 2003. According to the 2005 Festival Chairperson, Gerry Gregg, 'The original concept was to hold a festival to promote the sale of Marlborough wine - well, actually to raise the consumption of it to be precise... It all became old hat fairly quickly as other provinces started to follow, and so they should have, but Marlborough's festival had achieved what we wanted it to' (*The Press*, 29/1/05: A21).

The festival is run by local volunteers through an incorporated society with some paid assistance for some of the event management functions such as marketing and promotion. The Festival has long been a showpiece of the region's wines but, since the 1990s, the Festival has also been regarded as a separate tourism event in its own right. For example, the incorporated society that owns and manages the event aims to 'attract attention to Marlborough and its produce, to assist the district's economy and ... as a consequence (to) provide increased opportunities for tourism, both domestic and international' (Festival News 1994 in Pratt 1994: 32). Nevertheless, the growth of general tourist interest in the Festival has generated its own problems related to the capacity of a volunteer organisation to manage a large event but also the expectations and images that the event creates, particularly when the event is meant as a showpiece for the region's wines rather than a concert type event. For example, in 1993 admission was limited to 12,000 (Pratt 1994). Although this figure was relaxed in the late 1990s when crowds of up to 20,000 people were reached, they were reimposed again in 2002 following concerns about the management and positioning of the festival. A figure of around 5,000 people is now the target but the festival has also been broadened so that industry events are held in the region immediately preceding the main festival day.

The event remains regarded as being extremely important for wine and tourism in the region as it serves to highlight the region's wines in both the media as well as customers' minds. For example, Allied Domecq, the owners of Montana the largest wine company in New Zealand and the region and who own Brancott Estate where the event is held 'is involved in festivals like this countrywide and this one is still very much the premium event. It's important to Marlborough as a showcase. We are not only the largest grape growing area but we are the most exportable, most recognisable wine area outside of New Zealand and from within New Zealand so we have to do something' (Gerry Gregg 2005 Festival Chairperson quoted in *The Press*, 29/1/05: A21).

The 2003 BMW Wine Marlborough Festival was held on Saturday the 8th of February with a separate culinary fare held the previous evening at Brancott Estate which was a six course, black tie event. The main festival day is always held on the second Sunday of February each year and it has never rained on that day. The gates for the BMW Wine Marlborough Festival were opened on the 8th from 12pm to 8pm. Costs were General Admission (including booking fee) NZ\$32.00 and shaded admission (reserved, shaded seating) NZ\$42.00. Reserved marquee seating was available at NZ\$150. Features of the day were:

- Local Marlborough wine and food
- 40 wineries presenting around 200 wines
- Tutored wine tastings and workshops led by Marlborough wine makers
- Gourmet food tutorials prepared under the guidance of New Zealand chefs
- Live jazz all day
- Celebrity petanque competitions
- Best dressed fashion awards

The 9th February was promoted as a 'Wine Down' in which visitors were encouraged to attend individual wineries and travel the Marlborough wine trails.

This article presents a profile of the 2003 BMW Wine Marlborough Festival and, where possible, provides comparisons with the results of previous studies of the event. It presents the findings of a survey conducted on 229 attendees at the 2003 Wine Marlborough Festival. The key aim of this survey was to identify the motivations of those visiting the festival, as well as establishing the economic impact of visitors while at Wine Marlborough and visiting the region. The research was conducted for the Wine Marlborough Committee (WMC) and therefore its scope, content and method were extremely limited by their own interests. Nevertheless, the study does provide an opportunity to provide a first public profile of a wine event visitor in the New Zealand context and to identify issues in the management and marketing of such events. However, it is important to stress that the limited nature of other published studies on wine events makes broader comparisons with the event literature extremely difficult though some comparisons will be drawn with other research on wine tourism in New Zealand. The authors also stress that the paper should be regarded as what it is intended to be, an exploratory study that is made available for research purposes when in many cases such surveys are retained as commercial in confidence, and therefore a starting point for comparisons with other similar wine event studies.

Methodology

A two-page survey constructed of closed and open-ended questions was developed in conjunction with the WMC and was distributed at the Wine Marlborough Festival 2003 by volunteers provided by the Committee. This aspect of the survey process was controlled by the WMC which provided oversight of the volunteers and the return of surveys. Because of previous surveys undertaken by the WMC little opportunity was available for substantial modification of some questions given the expressed desire for comparative data. Attached to the survey was a cover letter outlining the purpose of the survey and also giving respondents the opportunity to join the 'Friends of Wine Marlborough'. A sample size of 229 useable surveys was provided for analysis by WMC. It is not known how many people refused to complete a survey as this information was not kept by the WMC. Although these issues clearly raise problems with respect to the convenience based survey method they are also indicative of the problems entailed in having surveying undertaken by volunteers and the understanding of what is required in research terms, particularly when previous results may have been obtained by the WMC with little qualification as to their validity.

Results

Visitor Origins

While the survey sample may not be fully representative of all visitors to the festival, 54.7% of respondents came from outside the Marlborough region, including 10% of overall respondents from overseas. 45.2% of survey respondents were from the Marlborough region. New Zealand respondents who were from outside the Marlborough Region were most likely to be visiting from Christchurch [27.7%], Nelson [16.8%], Auckland [15.8%] and Wellington [13.9%]. Of the 20 respondents who indicated that they were from overseas, over half were from the United Kingdom, followed by the United States and Australia.

Accommodation

In 2002, festival goers were as equally likely to stay with 'friends and family' as in a motel. Visitors to the 2003 festival, that indicated they had or were using accommodation, were more significantly likely to be staying with 'friends and family' [15.7%] than to stay in a motel [9.6%] or a hotel [7.9%]. Almost as many visitors were likely to camp [7%] as there were staying in motels or hotels.

Number of Companions

In general respondents came to the festival with others (only three respondents indicated that they came alone). The largest proportion of respondents came with three to four companions [30.6%] followed by groups of one to two [24.5%]

and five to six [47%]. These results indicate the importance of the social dimension of the wine event experience.

Age

The age of respondents is noted in Table 1. The survey indicated a significant increase in festival goers in the 20 – 24 age group over 2002, while the 25 – 34 age group had not changed significantly. The sample shows that there has been a significant decline in numbers in the 40 – 59 age group. This group has almost halved from 2002, down from 43.5% to 23.1%. The 60+’s have remained reasonable constant when compared to previous years. The shift to the 20-29 age group is consistent with results of surveys undertaken in 1999 and 2000. Arguably shifts in age group may be related not only to a growth in interest in wine in certain age groups, but, possibly more important, the range of musical entertainment that may be available.

Table-1: Respondent Age

Age Group	Number	
15-19	14	6.1
20-24	51	22.3
25-29	49	21.4
30-34	32	14.0
35-39	12	5.2
40-44	12	5.2
45-49	11	4.8
50-54	19	8.3
55-59	11	4.8
60+	7	3.1
Not Stated	11	4.8
Total	229	100

Occupational Status

Most of respondents (64.6%) were in some form of full time employment, with 122 (53.3%) full time salary/wage earners, and 26 (11.4%) self employed. Smaller proportions were retired (2.6%), part-time/casual workers (10.5%). Students accounted for 12.2% of respondents, indicating a significant increase in this group on 2002. Just 4.8% were not working, and 10 chose not to state their profession.

Table 2 indicates that those attending the festival who are full-time salary and wage earners has remained constant while those who are self employed / contractors or in part-time / casual employment have returned to the 2000 levels. An increase is indicated in the number of students attending the 2003

festival with around a three-fold change on 2002 attendance. The survey results indicate a decrease in the number of retired persons attending this year's festival in contrast to previous years.

Table 2: Respondent Occupational Status 2000, 2002 and 2003

	1999 %	2000 %	2002 %	2003 %
Full-time salary / wage	54.1	58.4	53.7	53.3
Self employed / contractor	22.9	14.9	24.2	11.4
Part-time / casual	11.0	9.7	5.3	10.5
Student	0.9	6.5	3.5	12.2
Retired	6.4	5.2	6.7	2.6
Not Working	4.6	4.5	3.2	4.8
Volunteer	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.9

The annual combined household income of visitors to the 2003 festival tended not to be as high as 2002 (Table 3) respondent income levels with only 30.6% of respondents living in households earning over \$70 000 as compared with 54.1% in 2002. Only 15.1% of 2003 respondents had household incomes of over \$100 000, indicating a significant reduction in the spending potential of 2003 visitors while 40.6% of the respondents indicated household incomes of \$50 000 or less. The highest represented income group were those living in households with a combined annual income of \$70,000 - \$100,000.00.

Table-3 Annual combined household income

Income Category	1999	2000	2002	2003
<\$10,000	2.00	8.30	2.80	8.90
\$10,001 - 20,000	11.20	7.50	1.80	10.40
\$20,001 - 30,000	9.20	16.50	3.20	10.90
\$30,001 - 40,000	19.40	19.50	5.30	9.40
\$40,001 - 50,000	9.20	15.80	5.60	8.90
\$50,001 - 70,000	19.40	14.30	16.50	15.10
\$70,001 - 100,000	9.20	8.30	22.50	21.40
>\$100,000	20.40	9.80	31.60	15.10
	N = 98	N = 133	N = 285	N = 229

Gender, Marital and Household Status

Of those answering the survey and indicating their gender, 129 (62.6%) were female, and 77 (37.4%) male. This continues the trend of previous years of a larger proportion of female festival goers. Although the survey method may

have brought about this gender distribution it is significant that personal communication with festival goers supports the reporting of gender balance. Nearly 50.0% of respondents indicated they were in some sort of permanent relationship being either married (40.6%), or in a de facto relationship (8.7%). Over two thirds (67.2%) of the survey population were singles and couples with no children. Another 18.6% (singles and couples) had children who had left home. 14.2% of respondents indicated they still had dependant children at home, indicating a high degree of discretionary income for a large proportion of those in attendance at the festival. Twenty five respondents did not respond to this question.

Education

Just over three-quarters (64.2%) of respondents indicated a level of education above high school level . Those with a Bachelor's Degree (22.7%) and those with a Trade Certificate or PolyTechnic Diploma (21.8%) made up the largest groups after those who had only attended High School (30.1%). Respondents that indicated they held a Post Graduate qualification made up a further 11% of respondents.

Motivations and Event Behaviour

Attendance at Previous Wine Marlborough Festivals

More than half of the respondents indicated they had previously attended the festival; 11% had been once, 5.2% had attended twice before and 4.8% three times before. Thirteen respondents surveyed either failed to respond to this question or had not previously attended. Four of the respondents that answered this question indicated that they had attended more than 15 festivals. The Festival appears to continue being successful in securing repeat visitation with just over 20% of respondents in 2003 indicating three or four previous visits to the festival. A further 12% indicate five or six prior visits.

Type of Events Attended in the last year

Respondents were also asked what other type of events they had attended during the year prior to the Wine Marlborough Festival. Of particular importance were major sports fixtures (18%), beer fests (15.4%), wild food events (12.7%), followed by outdoor concerts (11.6%), and other New Zealand food and wine festivals (11.4%). The survey also indicated that there was a marked decrease in respondent attendance at events such as art festivals (7.1%) and agricultural / gardening shows (6.0%) over that indicated for 2002.

Table-4: Types of Events Attended during Year

Type of Event	Number	
Major Sports Fixtures	87	18.0
Beer Fests	74	15.4
Wild Foods	61	12.7
Outdoor Concerts	56	11.6
Other New Zealand Food & Wine Festivals	55	11.4
Art Festivals	34	7.1
Winter Festivals	30	6.2
Agricultural / Gardening Events	29	6.0
Regional Fairs	17	3.5
International Wine Shows	14	2.9
International Food & Wine Festivals	13	2.7
New Zealand Wine Awards	12	2.5

**Respondents were able to indicate more than one event*

Events with Appeal

In order to continue to understand what type of events Wine Marlborough visitors were most likely to be drawn to, respondents were asked to indicate which events held the most appeal (Table 5). A large percentage (85.8%) of festival attendee's indicated that they favoured wine and food events, closely followed by live music events (55.8%). This continues to illustrate the importance of the added dimension of music to this event. Sports events (20.4%) were the third most appealing event to respondents while 'Arts and Crafts' (17.3%), cultural events (17.3%) and gardening shows (25.6%) rated highly. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that there is a clear gap between the appeal of events and actual attendance at events.

Table-5: Appealing Events

Event	Number	
Wine and Food	194	85.5
Live Music	126	55.8
Sports Events	46	20.4
Arts and Crafts	39	17.3
Cultural Events	39	17.3
Gardening Shows	34	15.0
A & P Shows	22	9.7
Other	8	1.3

**Respondents were able to indicate more than one event*

Most Appealing Aspects of Wine Marlborough and Motivation to Attend

The most appealing aspects of the event were atmosphere (74.7%) and social (58.7%) closely followed by variety of wines (56.4%), and the 'outdoors/sun' (52.9%). The 2003 respondents rated the social aspect of the event two places higher than in 2002 relegating variety of wines and outdoors / sun in order of preference (Table 6). Respondents were also asked to indicate to rank their top five motivations for visiting from a list of ten. (The highest motivation ranked with 1, and the fifth highest motivation being ranked with a 5). Many respondents stated no second motivation, suggesting that most respondents generally had one motivation for visiting, and generally this was wine and food (Table 7). This finding is also significant in terms of seeing the event in the context of being part of wine tourism phenomena rather than the broader event literature.

Table-6: Appealing Aspects of the Festival

Aspects	Number	
Atmosphere	168	74.7
Social	132	58.7
Variety of Wines	127	56.4
Outdoors / Sun	119	52.9
Fun	85	37.8
Music	80	35.6
Location	66	29.3
Range of Foods	65	28.9
Variety	28	12.4
Value	18	8.0
Educational	13	5.8
Other	5	2.2

**Respondents were able to indicate more than one aspect.*

Table-7: Ranking of Motivations to Attend

Motivation	1	2	3	4	5
Wine and Food	70.2	11.7	7.6	5.3	5.3
Music	7.7	42.9	16.5	20.9	12.1
Good Day Out	19.2	31.8	33.1	13.2	2.6
Time with Friends	14.9	26.2	24.8	24.1	9.9
Work / Networking	31.3	12.5	31.3	12.5	12.5
Curiosity	4.0	20.0	28.0	24.0	24.0
Past Experience	3.6	18.2	18.2	18.2	41.8
Holiday	7.4	7.4	13.2	22.1	50.0
Time with Family	20.7	24.1	20.7	20.7	13.8
Didn't Cost	33.3	11.1	38.9	16.7	0.0

1 = high importance, 5 = unimportant

Expected Expenditure while Attending Wine Marlborough

Those respondents who completed this question indicate clearly that they expected to spend more on wine than food while at the festival. 24.6% of respondents expected to spend over \$100 on wine while at the festival, while just 6.0% expected to spend that amount on food. In a significant change from the previous year (49.2%), three quarters of respondents in 2003 expected to spend less than \$30 on food during the festival.

Respondents expected to spend an average of \$56.22 on food while at the festival. Two respondents indicated they would spend in excess of \$2,000.00 on food at the festival but this is not in line with other indications of spending. After discounting these two figures the highest expected expenditure on food was \$200.00. The average expected expenditure on wine was \$67.96, very similar to the expected level of expenditure on wine in 2002. The highest estimated expenditure on wine being \$600.00. Ten respondents expected to spend in excess of \$200.00 on wine. In contrast to 2002, only just over 6.5% of respondents also expected to spend money on other items at the festival. 5.2% of all respondents estimated expenditure would be under \$60, while only three respondents (1.31%) were expecting to spend over \$100 on unspecified items.

Expected Expenditure Per Day while in Marlborough

Respondents were asked to state how long they expected to stay in the region. Average expected length of stay for those from outside the Marlborough region was 4.8 days.

Respondents were asked to estimate total expenditure per day on accommodation, travel/petrol, restaurants/eating out, gifts/souvenirs, attractions, shopping and miscellaneous items. Only slightly over 50% of respondents answered this section of the survey. 39.8% of respondents did not pay for accommodation while in the Marlborough region, while 12.66% spent over \$100 daily on accommodation, over half the number that purchased this level of accommodation in 2002. The average estimated accommodation expenditure was \$84.05 per day, a slight increase in accommodation expenditure over 2002.

Respondents expected to spend on average \$59.92 per day while shopping in the region. This amount is considerably higher than previous years and the average spend may be affected by the two respondents who indicated that their daily spend was estimated to be \$1,000.00 and \$4,000.00 respectively. Nevertheless, it should be noted that discussion with arts and crafts and wine business owners in the region indicates that this figure is by no means unusual.

Respondents spent an average of \$22.71 on travel/petrol per day. The daily average expenditure at restaurants and eating out per day was \$70.42 compared with \$66.30 the previous year. A relatively small amount was spent by

respondents on gifts and souvenirs, with an estimated average spend of \$11.78 daily which was similar to 2002 results. Respondents expected to spend almost \$14.92 dollars per day gaining admission to attractions in the region. As well as the categorised expected expenses, respondents also expected to spend an average of \$27.80 dollars per day on miscellaneous items.

The average, spend per day of visiting respondents to the local economy outside of their expenditure at the BMW Wine Marlborough festival was \$291.60 per day. An average visiting respondent stayed 4.2 days in Marlborough, resulting in an estimated total expenditure of \$1,224.72 during their entire stay in the region. Return transport (e.g., flights, ferries, taxis, buses, petrol) to the festival was expected to cost each visiting respondent an average of \$444.42.

Comparisons with the New Zealand Wine Visitor Survey

In 1999 the New Zealand Winery Visitors' Survey (NZWVS), as part of a nationwide survey, gathered data from the Marlborough region on the characteristics and behaviour of the winery visitors to the region. A sample of 221 usable surveys provides a useful basis for comparison with the 2002 Wine Marlborough survey.

Table 8 outlines some of the variables that are directly comparable between the two studies. Clear differences in the gender and age balance of the two samples are apparent with festival-goers more likely to be female and under the age of 35 than their general winery visitor counterparts. Interestingly, several authors are beginning to recognise the importance of attracting younger visitors to wineries (e.g. Mitchell, 2002; Treloar, 2002; Treloar et al., 2004) and significant gender differences in winery visitation and consumer behaviour (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2001a) as well as food tourism behaviour (see Mitchell and Hall, 2003). The findings of the Wine Marlborough study would suggest that wine festivals may also have similar, if not compounded, implications for market development. While no direct comparison of income was possible (because the NZWVS collected data on individual income), both samples had similarly high levels of educational achievement and it might be therefore assumed that similar levels of income and professional vocations would be apparent.

Table-8: Comparison of Visitor and Visit Characteristics

	Key Demographics			Origin of Visitor (%)			Appealing Aspects†			Spend Wine
	Gender (%)	Age (%)	Education (%)	Within Region	Outside Region	Inter-national	Most (%)	Second (%)	Third (%)	
Festival Attendees	Female (62.6)	20-34 (57.7)	Degree (42.4)	15.8	82.5	16.5	Atmosphere (74.7)	Social (58.7)	Many wines (56.4)	\$68
Winery Visitors	Female (53.0)	30-49 (54.8)	Degree (44.2)	8.9	91.1	23.5	Service (35.6)	Learn (25.0)	Wine (21.6)	\$40*

* Spending at winery of survey only (also indicated spending \$40 at another winery in region and may have visited several during visit to Marlborough)

† Festival attendees is based on what respondents found to be 'most appealing/attractive', while winery visitors is based on what respondents found to be 'most enjoyable'. Degree = those with undergraduate or postgraduate qualifications. Many wines = wide variety of wines available.

Festival-goers were much more likely to be from Marlborough, reflecting the importance of the event in the local social calendar and, not surprisingly, fewer international visitors were recorded at the festival. The appealing elements of a visit to a winery in Marlborough were also quite different to those of the festival, with aspects of the service and learning about wine predominating at the winery, while the atmosphere and social context of the festival were seen as more appealing. Indeed, while wine and food is a major motivation for attending the festival and some formal educational experiences (e.g. tastings with winemakers) and informal ones (e.g. wide range of wines in the one location) are available, the atmosphere is clearly very different from that found at winery cellar-door operations.

Spending on wine was also significantly higher at the festival. However, this is not surprising given that there is a far greater selection of wine available at the festival and that NZWVS respondents also reported average spending of around \$40 at other wineries in Marlborough and visiting an average of around nine wineries per visit to the region. Therefore, the impact of spending at the festival per winery is likely to be significantly less than that at any individual winery.

Table 9 outlines important indicators of the impact of the individual festival-goer and general winery visitor on the Marlborough region. From these figures it appears that festival-goers have a lesser economic affect than general winery visitors, with winery visitors staying longer and spending similar or higher amounts per day on several non-winery purchases (although a full comparison is not possible as different indicators of spending were collected).

Table-9: Comparison of Indicators of Regional Impact

	Length of Stay in Marlborough				Daily Spending in Marlborough		
	1-2 Days	3-7 Days	1-2 Weeks	> 2 Weeks	Restaurants	Souvenirs	Attractions
Festival Attendees	53.2%	35.8%	5.9%	1.3%	\$70	\$12	\$15
Winery Visitors	38.3%*	50.0%	8.4%	3.2%	\$65	\$31	\$36

*Includes those on a day trip.

Conclusions

This paper has provided an overview of the visitor profile to New Zealand's longest running wine festival which is also one of the longest continuously running wine festivals in New World wine regions. Such information is significant as, clearly, wine festivals will have to carefully position themselves to remain well-attended, desirable and compatible with the brand values of the wine region and the wineries. Comparisons with the results of a survey of winery visitors to the regions indicate that there are significant differences in the demographic and motivational characteristics of consumers as well as length of stay. Nevertheless, significant numbers of event goers were repeat visitors.

Such results nevertheless highlight the need to recognise the potential role that such events have in getting consumers interested in wine and aware of a region's offerings. Although the length of stay and nature of activity and motivations would tend to suggest that there is not as much capacity to create strong relationships between consumers and wineries as there is in visits to wineries.

One of the key points to emerge from the study is that there is substantial fluctuation in some of the results on a year by year basis. Arguably this may be as the result of the different sample sizes and statistical error and/or issues with respect to survey method and management. Unfortunately, these were parameters over which the authors had no control so the results of previous years' research therefore has to be taken at face value. However, just as significant is the different focus which the festival has had in different years. In some years the focus arguably being more on the entertainment than the wine. Clearly, different event products will attract different audiences. The challenge for Wine Marlborough, as with many other culinary festivals, is to maintain a festival product that is clearer tied in with the regions wine and food. Similarly, further comparison is required between festival attendees and wine tourists to ascertain their different economic impacts on the host regions and, perhaps more importantly from a strategic wine marketing perspective, which avenue may best promote the long-term purchase of a region's wine and food.

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Evaluation of Propriety of Resort Complex Development in *Gaesung*, North Korea

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Abstract: This study attempted to estimate the propriety of *Gaesung*, where located in North Korea, resort complex development through South and North Korea economic cooperation. The contents of this research are to study the necessity of resort complex development of *Gaesung* and to estimate the physical and social conditions of *Gaesung* for resort development. There were used literature study, data analysis of map and satellite picture, and survey of public opinion in order to examine propriety of *Gaesung* resort complex development. The result of research is that the physical conditions of *Gaesung* are superior, while the social conditions are inferior. It will be expected that the cost tourism development is so expensive because of poor tourism infrastructure. Therefore the resort complex development of *Gaesung* of North Korea must be incubated by South Korean public institution not private sector.

Key words: resort complex development, Propriety, South and North Korea, economic cooperation, physical conditions, social conditions.

Introduction

North Korea is presuming that the number of tourists reaches in 1,500,000 people when the development of *Gaesung* resort complex will be completed in 2011 (Yeonhap News April 21st 2004). It reveals indirectly that North Korea hopes the tourism development of *Gaesung* area is successful. The most important thing is North Korea authorities' will for South and North Korea economic cooperation. If the North Korea institutes have different view although it is business and benefit for South and North Korea both sides, it is actuality hard to propel. North Korea's plan for *Gaesung* area sightseeing can be encouragement work under realistic restriction.

This study is a basis estimation about *Gaesung* area tourism development that propels depending on *Gaesung* industrial complex development in the latter half of 2004. This research is aimed to analyze social and physical conditions of *Gaesung* area of North Korea. The main contents of this research are to study the necessity of resort complex development of *Gaesung* area and to examine the physical and social conditions of *Gaesung* area for tourist development. The types of physical conditions are topography of great upper limbs, physical aspect, climate, weather, water environment, and nature of soil. The types of social conditions are transportation, electric power, communication, legal situation, tourism resources and perception of *Gaesung* area.

There were used literature study, data analysis of map and satellite picture, and survey of public opinion in order to examine propriety of *Gaesung* resort complex development. Firstly, the literature study based on South-North

Korean literature related to *Gaesung*. Secondly, map and satellite picture analysis are used for geographical information of *Gaesung* area. In order to grasp the physical situation of *Gaesung* tourist development target area was extracted terrain, direction, form of drainage network from satellite picture, and topographical map (1:50,000) issued Japanese Empire age, topographical map(1:70,000) issued 2000. Thirdly, opinion poll about *Gaesung* area sightseeing had been executed to 300 adult man and woman more than 20 years old from January 6, 2004 to February 29, 2004. The questions of survey were consisted of total 34 items about personal opinion and sightseeing of North Korea area.

All findings of survey were treated by statistical analysis through SPSS WIN Ver10.0 program via preliminary encoding and data processing process of coding and so on. Data of this investigation was analyzed by simplicity frequency analysis about all variables. The difference by main background variable with month average income, age, sex was analyzed by method of Chi-Square verification.

Necessity of *Gaesung* Tourist Resort Development

1) Shortage of accommodation

Gaesung will be a good resort complex because of approximation to Seoul. If the boundary line of South and North Korea disappears, *Gaesung* will have a good market of Seoul metropolitan area that consumptiveness is big in South Korea. However, *Gaesung* has an old tourist hotel, folkways inn and tradition restaurant like *Nampo* and *Wonsan* of North Korea.

The biggest problem is that the number of hotel room is not enough for the tourists. There are only 93 guest rooms in *Janamsan* inn and *Gaesung* folkways inn remodeled traditional house. However, the existent accommodation can not satisfy demand in circumstance that is forecasted that the number of tourist reaches in about 440,000 in 2006-7 year (KNTC 2004). Therefore, there are needed to develop accommodations in *Gaesung* area.

According to the result of South Korean travel survey of KNTC (1999 and 2001) and the result of Seoul metropolitan area questionnaire of KDRI (2002), the condominium (48.5 percent of respondent) is preferred by South Korean tourists. This result informs that general change for accommodation is necessary. And also 29.7 percent of *Kumgang* mountain tourists preferred condominium according to the results of KDRI (2000). Therefore, there are needed to repair the existent accommodation and to build tourist resort complex in *Gaesung* area.

2) Political, Economical and Social Effect

The development of *Gaesung* resort complex can contribute to solve economical imbalance between South and North Korea and to overcome South and North

Korea cultural difference. The *Gaesung* resort complex development will contribute for Korea Peninsula peace system establishment. Even though armistice agreement of South and North Korea exists until now after Korean War, genuine meaning of Korean peace agreement is not contracted. In addition, Korea Peninsula peace is circumstance that is again threatened by the latest North Korea Nuclear weapons problem. In this circumstance, South and North Korea cooperation through *Gaesung* resort complex development may promote reconciliation of South and North Korea. Effect of sightseeing cooperation of South and North Korea was certified through the tourism development of Kumgang Mountain located in North Korea. This cooperation system construction of South and North Korea may be helpful for Korea Peninsula peace and Northeast Asia cooperation system (Lee 2003: 31).

Secondly, the development of *Gaesung* resort complex can break economic imbalance of South and North Korea. The sightseeing interchange cooperation of South and North Korea (the business of *Kumgang* Mountain) has helped in activation of North Korea economy. In the case of Pyongyang sightseeing, visitors are paying average 2,500,000 won (2,170 dollars) in 3 nights and 4 days. It is the rightful matter that this sightseeing income helps economic recovery of North Korea. This economic recovery will be able to break imbalance of South and North Korea economy at the integration step.

Thirdly, this resort complex development can be solved cultural difference at culture integration step of Korea Peninsula. The reason of inhomogeneity between South and North Korea inhabitants is no mutual interchange. There is needed heterogeneity solution and homogeneity recovery through contact for cultural integration between South and North Korea. *Gaesung* resort complex may make South and North Korea inhabitants come and go without burden and do natural mutual interchange through sightseeing.

3. The Analysis of Physical conditions of *Gaesung*

The target places of tourist development are 3 places which are *Bongdong*, inner city, *Jeonjaeri* of *Gaesung* city in North Korea. The physical conditions of topography, physical aspect, climate, weather, hydrological environment, nature of soil of these three places will be examined on the basis of the satellite picture (figure 1) and topographical map.

i) Topography

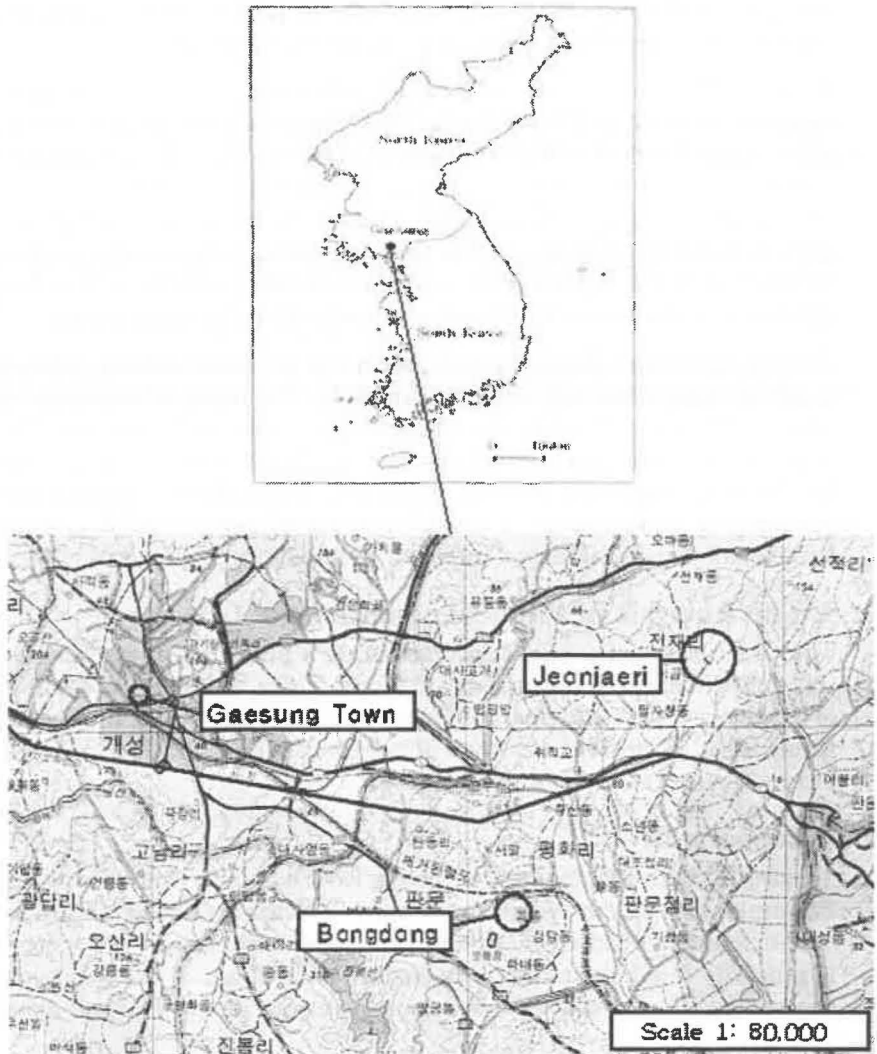
Gaesung has been situated between *Yeseong* River and *Imjin* River occupy Korea Peninsula's central part. Whole topography structure of *Gaesung* is basin form that surroundings consist of all mountains, and physical aspect of a mountain is generally low height. The topographical condition of *Gaesung* became opportunity that *Gaesung* area was selected to capital during the *Koryo* dynasty

Evaluation of Propriety of Resort Complex Development

period (10-13 century). Because *Gaesung* has *Myungdang* that is a good place of *Feungsui* (wind and water) geography.

The topography situations of development target area through the satellite picture and topographical map are as following. First, the place of *Bongdong* consists hill (height 60m) and tributary 3 streams of the *Sacheon* river. Second, the inner city of *Gaesung* that have basin topography structure. Third, the place of *Jeonjaeri* is surrounded by north, east, and south hill less than 100m.

Figure-1: The Topography Map of Tourist Development Target Area (Gaesung, North Korea)



ii) Climate/Weather

The main climate and weather of development target area is that the average precipitation of June, July, and August is some much comparing with *Seoul*. The meteorological conditions of temperature, annual range etc. are similar to *Seoul* (table 1).

Table-1: The Conditions of Climate and Weather of Gaesung area

classification	features
annual average temperature	10.3□
annual range of temperature	over 38□
average temperature in January	-5.9□
average temperature in August	24.7□
annual average precipitation	1,300-1,400mm
average precipitation in winter	below 50mm
average precipitation in summer	750-800mm
forsythia blooming	April 10 th

iii) Hydrologic Environment

The hydrologic Environment of *Gaesung* area is inferior relatively to other physical conditions. It is examined by two parts that are whole hydrologic environment of *Gaesung* and specific hydrologic environment of development target place.

First, the characteristic of whole stream channel of *Gaesung* is as below. The both side streams of *Manwoldae* and the flowing river through *Ipamdong* are flowed together in the first Y shape of a character in *Hungguk* temple. This stream is flowed again in the second Y shape of a character to the river through *Seonjukgyo*. This stream flows in *Imjin* River again and passes *Yeoncheon* and joins the *Han* River in the south of *Pajoo* (Lee 1980: 92). This pattern keeps similar form of present except the stream of *Hungguk* temple.

Second, the specific hydrologic environment characteristic of each development district is as follows. First of all, the place of *Bongdong* is possible to flood suddenly during rainy season because 3 streams (*Ungye*, *Bunji*, *Jipari*) are flowing together in nearby *Bongdong* place and the pattern of these streams is straight. In connection with this, Jaehyun Lee (Ikjaejip, the end of 12 Century) wrote that it is same marching of 3 militaries when flood occurs in summer

rainy season because all of the big and small ditch water gather in *Bongdong* place. Next the place of *Jeonjaeri* of development target is one ponds of flowing and small scale stream (called *Sacheon*). The spring water of south of *Songaksan*, and 2 streams (*Bakcheon*, *Ocheon*) consider as an available water for use but the quantity is insufficient (Choi 1992: 200).

iv) Soil

The geology of *Gaesung* development target area is consisted of *Daebo* granite and tertiary granite kind. And the soil of development target area is sandy soil and sandy loam. The place of *Bongdong* had been used as a rice paddy field until Japanese Empire age. The area of *Jeonjaeri* is utilized to deciduous forest. Specially, the west part of *Cheonmasan* and the east part of *Taedok* mountain are good relative forest conservation state. The forest is consisted of pine tree, big cone pine, maple, oak, mazard, willow, and other shrub etc. (KNTC 2002: 18).

The Analysis of Social Conditions of *Gaesung*

i) Accessibility

The accessibility of *Gaesung* is good. *Gaesung* is easy adjoining with *Seoul*. It is possible for tourists who want railway journey to travel from *Seoul* to *Shinuiju*. If the *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway railroad is reconstructed and double tracking is made, *Gaesung* will have an advantage of the location which can be developed to the hub of East Asia through the development of border line area between South and North Korea.

Main traffic facilities are *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway railroad, *Pyongyang - Gaesung* section subway, *Sinuiju - Gaesung* section road (about 8 hours by direct), 4 lines highway between *Gaesung* and *Pyongyang*, 1 degree road between *Gaesung* and *Pyongyang* and 2 degree road between *Haeju - Gaesung*. And there are train and sightseeing bus for *Gaesung* sightseeing. Now the section that train is run is *Seoul -Dorasan-Gaesung* station. The running section of sightseeing bus is *Seoul-Munsan-Gaesung*.

The situation of track traffic of development area can say that is superior relatively. Specially, if the construction of *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway railroad and state number 1 road are attained to plan, *Gaesung* will be possible access 5 hours from South Korea anywhere and 1 hour in *Seoul*. And also *Gaesung* sightseeing is forecasted as a new theme for South Korea domestic tourism.

ii) Eelectric Power and Communication

There is no entirely power plant except thermoelectric power plant of *Haeju* cement factory in *Haeju* and *Gaesung* area. The same thermoelectric power plant construction of *Pyongyang*, *Anju*, *Sariwon*, *Haeju* and *Kimchaek* etc. had

been conducted for the third 7 years design period. But there are not run except some power plant extremely such as east *Pyongyang* thermoelectric power plant. Therefore, power condition of this area seems to be a very inferior thing.

The communication of *Gaesung* is fairly inferior as other area of North Korea. It is known as military and official use, because *Gaesung* is contiguous military demarcation line. However communication service for individual is very poor. In the case of telephone, local call line is a semiautomatic system through exchange, and connection of a local telephone call or international telephone call is more difficult issue (KNTC 2001: 71).

iii) Legal situation

Gaesung resort complex must be developed according to the law of North Korea *Gaesung* industrial district. According to the law, *Gaesung* industrial district is administered as international industry, trade, commercial finance and tourist attraction area. And the law keeps regulations that South Korean, ethnic Koreans in foreign countries and foreigner who exit, entrance, stay and inhabit in *Gaesung* industrial district can travel revolution historic site, historic relics, scenic spot and national monument. This is simple law comparing to '*Kumgang* mountain tourist resort old law'. *Gaesung* develops to industrial district while the *Kumgang* mountain was developed to purpose sightseeing.

Insufficient part of the law is the regulation that can extend the land lease after expiration. This regulation has a problem that there is no automatic extension regulation. Therefore, dangerous investment still exists after expiration of land lease period. And the substantive enactment about possession guarantee for ground buildings and equipment of developer is insufficient at investment discontinuance withdrawal. South Korea will be needed to accomplish consultation to supplement shortage of *Gaesung* industrial district law. That is, South Korea must construct legal systematic device continuously to prevent the reaction or unreasonable request of North Korea about tourism and enterprise.

iv) Tourism Resources

North Korea authorities is trying to detain tourists for preparing *Gaesung* sightseeing. The archeology research institute of North Korea announced in 2001 that *Yeongtong* temple (*Yongheungdong Gaesung* city) is doing restoration constructions of 2,700³ scale in North Korea institute for Research of social science. And Korea dynasty royal tombs in *Hyeonreung* (Wanggun), *Hyeonreung* (king of Gongmin), *Anreung*, *Yangreung*, *Fireung* etc. were restored and rebuild. Also, North Korea mended the building of *Mokcheongjeon* that the first Emperor Yi Songgye had inhabited before founding of *Chosun* dynasty in 14 century and *Sungyangseowon* where is located at *Jeongmongju's* house site

in now Janamsan edge. Like this, North Korea has gradual target and plan for history relics administration and restoration.

v) Anxiety of Covered Historical Relic's Destruction

Gaesung industrial complex and resort complex development target areas have 15 historical relic places including *Heungwangsa* and *Gaeguksa* temple site of Korea dynasty. Investigation for culture relics should be preceded before development work to keep away destruction of these historical relics. Specially, the place of *Jeonjaeri* should be investigated as the site of *Jeonjae* palace (Hwanghaebukdo 2002: 426) that had been a temporary palace of Korea dynasty.

vi) Human Resources on Tourism Industry

It is predicted the problem that supply of worker is not enough in gear with *Gaesung* industrial complex operation time because the population is about 380,000 persons including *Gaepung*, *Panmun* and *Jangpung* (Lim 2000: 46-48). The population of *Gaesung* area is about one million persons including unites population of neighborhood *Haeju* and *Sariwon*. It is fairly less than *Pyongyang-Nampo* area (4,500,000 persons). So it can be said that education and technological level of labor manpower are low specially. And the North Korea authorities are training the guidance agent, reception service agent, professional cook through the professional laborer school (KNTC 2000: 82). North Korea has managed department of hotel, guide, cooks, foreign language in 3 universities (Pyongyang Commerce University, Pyongyang Foreign Language University, and Chungjin Commerce University).

vii) Perception of *Gaesung* Area

Gaesung area is not well known to ordinary South Korean. According to the result of survey (2004) of South Korean public opinion about *Gaesung* sightseeing, only 4 percent of respondents want to travel to *Gaesung*. This result is similar to the survey of KDRI (2002) that the degree of preference were as following: Mt. *Baekdu* 28.1 percent, *Kumgang* mountain 23.2 percent, *Pyongyang* 20.6 percent, demilitarized zone 8.3 percent, *Gaesung* 4.7 percent and *Gaemagowon* 4.7 percent. Therefore, *Gaesung* must be needed to advertise *Gaesung* itself because the degree of perception of *Gaesung* is low.

Conclusion

The result of estimation of *Gaesung* is that the condition of physical situation is superior and the condition of social situation is inferior. According to the result of this study, it is expected that the cost of tourism development is expensive because *Gaesung* have an inferior social conditions of electric power, communication and infrastructure. If a private enterprise invests into sightseeing base facilities in *Gaesung*, the risk of investment will be so big because of circumstance that can not expect short term profit. It will make

private enterprise's existence shake. Therefore, tourism business to North Korea must be incubated by South Korean government or public institution as if government incubates venture business.

If *Gaesung* resort complex development work is achieved by government's persistent support and supplements of social and legal situation, it will have huge effect in South and North Korea coexistence. And also the possibility of its success unlike *Najin-Sunbong* district of North Korea will be high as follows.

First, it coincides with the economic policy change direction of North Korea. There is a request and necessity that North Korea must present new blueprint which turns strong economy and prosperous state construction for 21st century. Therefore, North Korea expects to prefer tourist resort development method by South Korea capital because North Korea which is a situation immersing to poverty trap of inferior investment. The development method of limited specific region through opening markets will be able to keep socialism structure of North Korea and recover the economy of North Korea short period. Because *Gaesung* resort complex is far away from *Pyong-yang*, it makes 'pollution of ideology' prevent. And it will be able to recover the economy of North Korea by a capital and technology of South Korea (Lee, 2002).

Second, there is a big advantage in economical and geographical side.

Gaesung, where is near capitalism society of South Korea, unlike *Najin-Sunbong* and *Sinuiju* have geographical situation that can become successful special economic zone such as *Sanghi* and *Sunjeon* of China (Nam, 2003, 2). *Gaesung* is a substance of traffic that Seoul-Shinuiju railway passes to Korea Peninsula's central area and will be used hinterland of Seoul. Also, if *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway is reconstructed, it can be linked to *Sariwon-Pyongyang-Shinuiju* and is extended to the China going forward. And *Gaesung* is easier to connect electric power, railroad, road and water of South Korea than some area in North Korea. Also, the potential demand will be high because *Gaesung*, as a center part of \mp axis line of Korea Peninsula country, passes *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway and adjoins large *Seoul* (about 70km distance from *Gaesung*) and capital region. Moreover, if *Seoul-Shinuiju* railway and road constructs, *Gaesung* will have an advantage of the location and to 'setting an example only' of South-North Korea economic activities and 'position' (Hub) that guides Korea Peninsula economic bloc formation and Northeast Asia economy center. And also it will link huge south and north Korea economy axis which joins *Pusan-Seoul-Gaesung-Pyongyang-Sinuiju* through complex construction of South and North Korea border line area.

Third, *Gaesung* is better than other place of North Korea for investor. The income tax rates of duty for SOC facilities did decrease from 14 percent to 10 percent. There are provided impetus of free means of communication use and

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foreign money permission, and advertising business permission etc. Also, the law of *Gaesung* industrial district permits investor and employee's prolonged stay, protects on investment and long-term land use symptoms guarantee of 50 years.

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Evaluation of Propriety of Resort Complex Development

Ecotourism Development in Ogasawara: A Preliminary Investigation

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Abstract: This report outlines the birth of Ecotourism in Ogasawara, with a particular focus on the development of nature guide training programs at this location. The information in this report is derived primarily from a series of documents obtained from the Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG) office in Ogasawara, the Ogasawara Whale Watching Association (OWA), and from the Hahajima Tourist Association (HTA). These documents were translated and a content analysis performed. This information was supplemented by a series of semi-structured, taped interviews with the persons in charge of nature guide training at each of these organizations: the TMG (Kobayashi, March 2003), the OWA (Mori, March 2003), and the HTA (Sakairi, March 2003; Hiraga, March 2003). The information reported in this paper suggests that Ogasawara is still in the early stages of ecotourism and guiding development at this up-and-coming ecotourism destination.

Keywords: Ecotourism, Guide Training, Development, Ogasawara

Introduction

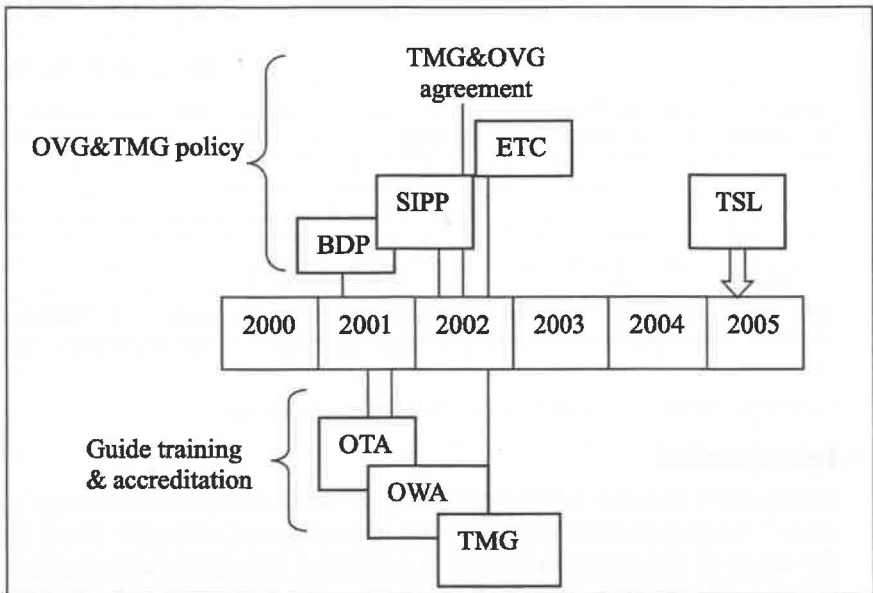
The primary objective of this report is to provide baseline information regarding ecotourism and guide training for other researchers to build upon. It is beyond the scope of this paper to engage in a detailed discussion of ecotourism or nature guide training. Information is presented in a chronological manner in order to help contextualize the process and to make it easier to follow. Important events leading to the development of ecotourism and guide training are presented and briefly discussed. Finally, some concluding remarks are made regarding the state of ecotourism and guiding development at this location.

Context

Ogasawara was established as a National Park in 1972, four years after its reversion to Japan. The total area of the NP is 6,099 ha and consists of roughly thirty islands. The two largest islands, Chichijima and Hahajima, are inhabited. The two islands have a population of roughly 2,000 and 400 respectively. This archipelago lies between 1,000-1,200 kilometers south of Tokyo, 26-28 degrees north latitude, 142-143 degrees east longitude, and is the smallest, subtropical NP in Japan. The primary feature of this park is the vast array of indigenous and endangered plant and animal species¹. The most popular attractions on the islands are diving, swimming with dolphins and whale watching². Currently this destination attracts approximately 18,000 visitors per year, nearly all of whom are Japanese nationals coming from the mainland³.

Ecotourism Development

The figure below serves to introduce the major ecotourism policy and development events from May 2001 until March 2004.



May 2001 (OVG)

Nature guide training begins: Hahajima Tourist Association

History

Initial interest to create a nature guide system on Hahajima developed after a typhoon hit the island in 1997 stranding two local hikers in Sekimon, a rugged area featuring sheer cliffs and limestone caves, located on the central eastern side of the island. This event made people realize the dangers of exploring such a remote area unaccompanied by an experienced guide. In response to this incident the village government, the local police, the state forest office and the HTA set out to establish a set of rules that would govern the use of Sekimon. The rules required that a guide accompany visitors and prohibited entry to the limestone caves. This raised the issue of how to train nature guides. It was decided that guides should be familiar with nature on Hahajima; encourage tourists to conserve the local fauna and flora in order to preserve the natural scenery; and above all to maintain safety.

¹ National Park Division, Nature Conservation Bureau, MOE, 2002

² Cunningham, 2002:10

³ Ogasawara Data Book, 2003

A guiding system was established in May 2001 through the support of the Ogasawara Village Government (OVG), the Ogasawara Branch of the TMG and the local police department. The *Shinrin Seitaikei Hougochiki Setei Inkai* (the Committee For Designing The Ecosystem Preservation Area) reported that in order to conserve an eco-system, the OVG should play a central role in establishing guiding rules and tour routes. A total of 26 people participated in this nature guide training program, which featured five seminars and ran for a total of ten hours. During the first year that guided tours were offered (April 2001-March 2002), a total of 116 participants took part in 25 guided tours.

The purpose of the HTA guiding system is to provide the local population and tourists with guidelines on proper use, cleanup, and accident prevention in the forests and NP, and to conserve the natural environment on Hahajima. The HTA was the organizer of this guiding system; the OVG was the sponsor; and the OVG general office, the Ogasawara Branch of the TMG and the local police department acted as supporters. Hahajima forest guides are certified by the HTA.

Application Procedure

Any Ogasawara resident who meets the following qualification is eligible to participate in guide training.

Applicants must be one of the following:

- Ministry of Education NP instructor
- Ministry of Education environmental counselor
- Kanto Forest Management Bureau nature conservation manager
- Tokyo Green committee member
- Japan Nature Conservation Society member
- Japan Bird Watching Society member

Applicants must successfully complete the training and seminar sessions in order to become certified forest guides.

Guide Responsibilities

Certified guides will be qualified to do the following on Hahajima:

- Offer guided forest tours
- Offer guidance on the rules of use
- Provide environmental education
- Prevent accidents

Ecotourism Development in Ogasawara

- Keep the forest reserves clean
- Collect information on the natural environment

Guide Training Content

The forest guide-training program included the following training seminars:

- State forest conservation (2 hours)
- Conservation and proper use of NP (2 hours)
- Safety instructions (4 hours)
- Nature on Ogasawara (2 hours)

The training program was held over a period of two days. Participants were charged a nominal fee of ¥500 (\$5US) for the course. Guiding certification is valid for two years. Guides may lose their certification if they fail to uphold the established rules of guiding outlined below.

Guidelines for 'Self-imposed Rules of Sekimon'

- Guides must file a report with the HTA providing a visitor list and tour itinerary. Upon completion of the tour, the number of participating visitors must be reported to the HTA for the sake of record keeping.
- The HTA should limit the number of visitors to fifty per day. Guides should be aware of weather conditions at all times.
- Visitors should remove any mud or seeds from their shoes and clothes. Guides should take into account the reported experience and physical condition of all guided-tour participants. Guides should refrain at all times from allowing visitors to wander off the designated trail.
- In the case of an emergency, the guide should contact the HTA or Village office as soon as possible.
- During the breeding season of the *akagashira-karasubato* (November to February) visitors should refrain from bird watching.
- Visitors should pack out all of their trash.

July 2001 (OVG)

Voluntary Rules for the Conservation and Use of Minamijima established

These rules stipulate the following points:

- Stay on designated trails
- Stay with guide
- Limit your time on the island
- Wipe soil and seeds from your shoes before stepping onto the island

- The daily number of visitors should not exceed one hundred
- To allow for re-vegetation, the island will be off limits three months a year (Nov.- Jan.)

December 2001 (OWA)

Nature guide training begins: Ogasawara Whale Watching Association

The OWA, which has been in operation since 1989, conducts investigations of local ecology, offers lectures on the environmental, and provides guide training. As of March 2003, roughly 150 nature guides have been trained. The OWA promotes ecotourism for the following reasons:

- To make use of natural resources, without abusing them
- To stimulates the local economy
- To establish 'voluntary' rules
- To contribute to conservation of nature and culture

March 2002 (OVG)

The Ogasawara Islands Sightseeing Program ('Blue Diamond Plan')

The Blue Diamond Plan promotes the development of ecotourism in order to achieve the following goals:

- To develop global communications
- To stimulate the economy
- To meet the needs of local residents

June 2002 (OVG)

Ogasawara Ecotourism Commission established

The commission defines its mission through the following objectives:

- To study the promotion of ecotourism
- To promote the concept of ecotourism to local residents
- To expand environmental education
- To establish guide training programs
- To cooperate with the TMG and its nature guide licensing program
- To promote environmental conservation
- To study and promote tourism
- To establish an organization to promote ecotourism

Ecotourism Development in Ogasawara

Representative members of the Ogasawara Ecotourism Commission are shown below:

Ogasawara Tourism Association	2
Hahajima Tourist Association	2
Ogasawara Whale Watching Association	2
Society of Commerce and Industry	2
Industrial Tourism	2

July 2002 (TMG)

Scheme: Nature Conservation and Appropriate Use of Tokyo Administrated Islands

This scheme set out the following goals:

- Designating promotional areas for environmental conservation
- Conducting research to monitor these designated areas
- Establishing rules for appropriate use within these designated areas
- Developing a guide training and certification program
- Insisting on guided tours within these designated areas
- Defining the role of nature guides

The purpose of this scheme was to build an eco-friendly system and to encourage nature conservation and proper use of the Ogasawara Islands, which have an abundance of precious natural resources. The Governor of Tokyo has designated the following areas as natural reserves:

- Habitats populated by indigenous species of animals or plants
- Geologically unique areas
- Scenically attractive areas
- Areas that should be protected from pollution

The designation of nature reserves will follow the following procedure:

- The Governor will designate nature reserves based on research of the local wildlife.
- The Governor will consult with the head of the local government and landowners about the designation of a proposed nature reserve.
- After designating a nature reserve, the Governor will make an announcement to the head of the local government and to the landowners.

- After the Governor has designated a nature reserve, an agreement on the proper use of the area will be made between the Governor and the head of the local government. This agreement will address role-sharing, access and time frame.
- The Governor and local government head will direct users to follow the rules on the proper use of the nature reserve.
- The TMG and local village government will make an effort to conserve the natural environment and to encourage proper of the nature reserve.

July 2002 (TMG & OVG)

Conventional Agreement on the Development of Ecotourism

The TMG and the OVG developed an ecotourism plan for Minamijima and Sekimon (on Hahajima) based on the 'Scheme: Nature Conservation and Appropriate Use of the Tokyo Administrated Islands'. Motivations for protecting these environmentally sensitive areas are shown below:

Minamijima

- soil erosion caused by hikers
- endemic plants being threatened by naturalized plants
- the destruction of lapiaz

Sekimon

- safety

August 2002 (TMG)

Nature guide training begins: Tokyo Metropolitan Government

History

Guide training is based on the fifth item mentioned under the 'Scheme: Nature Conservation and Appropriate Use of Tokyo Administered Islands'. Roughly 6% (or 140) of the residents living on Chichijima for one year or more took part in the first wave of training held in the autumn of 2002. (As of March 2003, 152 people have been trained on Chichijima.)

Application Procedure

Applicants must be Ogasawara residents eighteen years of age or older who have resided in Ogasawara for at least one year. Guides will be certified by the Governor of Tokyo. Certification may be revoked if applicants falsely report information on the application form or fail to pay the course registration fee.

Guide Responsibilities

There were no specific guidelines offered in the documents that were reviewed. One might assume that these responsibilities would roughly parallel those

established by the HTA, only localized for Minamijima. The 'common rules' outlined later in this paper would seem to reflect the primary responsibilities of nature guides.

Guide Training Content

Training ran for a total of 20 hours at the cost of ¥4,200 (\$42US) per person. Lectures and workshops focused on the following topics:

1. conservation of local nature
2. local nature
3. introduction of ecotourism
4. study of local plant life
5. study of local animal life
6. study of local geology
7. study of local ecology
8. guiding technique (lecture)
9. guiding technique (practice)
10. risk management

Nov. 2002 (TMG)

Sightseeing Industry Promotion Plan ('Action Plan')

This plan promotes the development of ecotourism in order to achieve the following goals:

- To conserve Ogasawara's natural resources
- To allow for (continued) tourism
- To create new sightseeing resources and industries
- To develop educational programs

April 2003 (TMG & OVG)

Rules of proper use of nature reserves in the Tokyo Administered Islands

The purpose of this agreement is for the TMG and the OVG to encourage the proper use of nature reserves in Ogasawara, with particular reference to Minamijima and Sekimon. The rules became effective as of April 1, 2003.

(General Rules)

1. TMG and OVG should cooperate in an effort to ensure that visitors are aware of and follow the rules of proper use. Rules may change over time based on research findings.
2. TMG is in charge of (1) enlightening Tokyo residents and tourists on the importance of nature reserves; (2) training and accrediting nature guides;

- (3) monitoring the training and accreditation system; and (4) enforcing the rules.
3. OVG is in charge of (1) enlightening the village residents and tourists on the importance of proper use of nature reserves; (2) managing the rules; (3) promoting the rules; (4) conducting research by interviewing nature guides; and (5) updating the TMG on the conditions of the nature reserves.
 4. The TMG and OVG will consult with each other periodically.

(Common Rules)

- Follow guide
- Guides should identify themselves by wearing armbands
- Stay within designated areas
- Don't remove plants, animals, wood, rocks or any items
- Don't play a role in transporting foreign species to the island
- Do not feed the animals
- Do not harass the animals
- Do not write graffiti on rocks
- Do not litter—pack out your trash

(Local Rules)

	Minamijima	Hahajima
Area restrictions	off-trail	limestone caves
Time limits	2 hours	none
Visitation limits	100 per day	50 per day
Closure	Nov. through Jan.	Limestone caves
Guided tour limits	15 per guide	5 per guide

Concluding Remarks

What follows are some general comments about each of the main ecotourism or guide training events since May of 2001. This section is intended to raise more questions that it answers and to identify areas for further research.

HTA Forest Guide Training

It is interesting that the first nature guide training program was developed on Hahajima, since it is a smaller island with many fewer visitors. The primary reason for developing the HTA guide training program was to ensure the safety of visitors—and locals, rather than providing an educational experience. Eligibility requirements for guide training are based partly on recognized environmental activity, i.e. membership in an environmental group. Guides are certified to take visitors to Sekimon, one of two areas in Ogasawara designated as special environmental zones. The OVG played a pivotal role in

establishing guide rules and tour routes. The forest guide certification is mutually exclusive with that of the OWA or TMG.

Voluntary rules for the conservation of use

Reliance on voluntary rules is common in Japan, where people are expected to recognize the rules and voluntarily comply without overt enforcement or fear of penalty. One potential weakness of such a system is that it requires that citizens recognize the rules and the importance of the rules. This would seem to underline the importance of environmental education. Compliance may encourage compliance, but first people need to be aware of why they are being asked to comply.

OWA Guide Training

This organization has established itself by offering a variety of educational programs along with guide training. The OWA has also been active in conducting research in the area of local ecology. Their main research focus is on tracking and monitoring whales. Similar to the HTA, the OWA is funded by the OVG. One has to wonder why these two OVG affiliated organizations do not offer some sort of combined guiding certification. The guide certification offered is mutually exclusive with that of the HTA or TMG.

OVG Blue Diamond Plan

The BDP was a very expensive plan, drafted by an outside consultancy firm. While this elaborate plan (and the sprightly brochure it produced) contained many ideas, few of them were ever implemented. The creation of this plan, however, seemed to promote further discussion about the development of Ogasawara and may have played a role in positioning the OVG in favor of ecotourism development at this location.

Ogasawara Ecotourism Commission

This is well represented body is trying to promote the model of ecotourism to island residents. This commission is funded by the OVG, who is supposed to represent the interests of the village residents. By various informal accounts, the commission is struggling to realize its objectives but has certainly played a role in promoting the discussion of ecotourism in Ogasawara. One has to wonder if including representation from the TMG would help or hinder the mission of this commission.

Scheme of Nature Conservation and Proper Use

This scheme provides valuable guidelines regarding nature conservation and appropriate use of the Tokyo Islands, which includes Ogasawara. By standardizing these guidelines, it provides a more consistent policy statement from the TMG and should make it easier to implement these guidelines throughout the Tokyo administered islands.

Conventional Agreement on the Development of Ecotourism

This agreement was very important in bringing together the interests and visions of the TMG and OVG by providing a common development goal. Minamijima and Sekimon were identified as fragile environmental zones, where conservation and preservation would be promoted, and outlined the reasons for their selection. Choosing to 'showcase' these two unique environmental areas was well intentioned, yet the issues of use and access remain ongoing challenges.

TMG Nature Guide Training

Though a latecomer in providing guides training, the TMG launched the largest, most comprehensive program. The first wave of training (held in the autumn of 2002) certified 152 nature guides. These guides have been certified to take visitors to Minamijima, one of two areas designated as special environmental zones. One issue that remains a challenge is how to ensure the appropriate number of nature guides required per group, when the number of people going out on boats varies everyday. At present, procuring the required number of guides and abiding by regulations is left up to the tour operators. The nature guide certification is mutually exclusive with that of the HTA or OWA.

TMG Action Plan

The TMG 'Action Plan' came out roughly six months after the OVG 'Blue Diamond Plan'. While there were some similarities between the two plans, the TMG plan stressed conservation, educational programs and development (including the development of outlying islands). The Action Plan, as the name might suggest, was presented as a more concrete, goal-orientated plan that sought tangible results. In spite of the abundance of ideas included in this plan, implementation of this plan has been limited. The Action Plan reflects the emphasis on conservation and nature guide training outlined in the TMG nature guide training program that was launched several months prior to the Action Plan.

Rules of Proper Use of Nature Reserves

This agreement outlines the roles of the TMG and the OVG. The TMG is charged with enlightening visitors about the importance of the nature reserves; providing, certifying and monitoring nature guides; and the enforcement of rules. The OVG is charged with enlightening local residents about the importance of the nature reserves; promoting and managing the rules; assisting in the monitoring of guides by conducting interviews; and reporting to the TMG on the conditions of the nature reserves. Generally speaking, the OVG has been asked to play a supportive role that focuses on local and managerial issues.

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“Small firms can improve their performance through strategic planning, but only if it is based on an understanding of the opportunities and threats in the environment, and of their own strengths and weaknesses which enable them to assess both the short and long-term implications (strategic awareness) of the project”.

Planning will enable an organisation to avoid unrealistic goals and achieve the aims of company within a given period of time. In addition, according to classical writers like Denning (1971), Hussey (1985), Kotler (1994) and Sherman (2000), planning fails because the managers think that long-term planning cannot work—the reason many managers give for thinking that it is not important to plan. Some managers see planning as a costly process to adopt which is time consuming and whose benefits, such as they are, are outweighed by the costs of planning.

Another explanation for resistance towards seriously distant long-term planning is the lack of knowledge about its implications. Owners need to become more aware of their responsibilities to their staff and also their customers, when developing long-term planning systems. An alternative argument is that long-term planning tends to put more pressure on the owners and the workforce. It is said that planning takes up the time of senior management and reduces the power of management, rather than improving the organisation’s goals.

Sherman (2000) argued that over the years many successful entrepreneurs have ignored strategic long-term planning processes. One reason for this is that entrepreneurs think strategic long-term planning strategy process is a method based on drawing a line through past and present performance to determine an organisation’s future. More over, in last decade strategic thinking has replaced strategic long-term planning as the new watchword to help the firms to deal with the core competencies.

Strategic long term planning also provides a new way of controlling business activities, by providing a realistic model of future goals and helping the organisation to achieve its target in a given period of time. In addition to this, planning helps the organisation to maximise its use of available resources.

Steiner (1979) stated long -term planning is an attitude and a process concerned with the future consequences of current decisions. Formal strategic planning links short, intermediate, and long-range plans. Strategic planning does not attempt to make future decisions or even forecast future events. It need not replace managerial intuition and judgement with massive, detailed sets of plans.

Steiner argued for the importance of strategic planning, providing keen insight into overcoming the barriers and biases associated with planning failures. However, research by Steiner (1979) and others is founded in the critical assumption that planning is important. One of the debates carry’s on in the

literature review, is there really a link between long-term planning and performance of the small organisation.

Research Methods

The aim of this project was to explore the planning process and the levels of planning activity within the respondent firms. Research was conducted through interviewing the members of staff from five different small businesses. The sample was extended to include observation of the planning process in these firms. In this pilot phase, the number of businesses surveyed are small, collectively the information that was gathered allowed a clear analysis of written and verbal accounts to make comparison from the research to extract key themes from the data.

The majority of firms in the sample had been under control of the present management for less than five years. Almost two-third had been in business for only two years or less. As can be seen in Table 1, the hot food-takeaway establishments have been acquired recently, in comparison with wholesaling or retailing firms.

Table-1: Sample distribution of business

Function by Number of Years

<i>Number of Years in Business</i>	<i>Retail</i>	<i>Wholesaling</i>	<i>Hot Food</i>
0 - 1 Year	-	-	1
1 - 2 Year	-	-	1
2 - 3 Year	1	-	-
3 - 4 Year	1	-	-
4 - 5 Year	-	1	-

The selected organisations only agreed to co-operate in the study, if the organisation and the respondent remained anonymous. They are not therefore identified within the findings.

The Survey Findings

The scope of planning varies considerably from firm to firm. So too does the manner and extent of planning in relation to any particular activity or function. In two companies, the planning process does not cover any activities and functions, whether formalised or otherwise. Most long-term planning is related to the finance and far less attention is paid to personnel planning and organisation.

It is difficult to make even broad generalisations, because the scope of planning differs, so much from company to company. As already noted these companies put much emphasis on short-term profit planning and various aspects of financial long-term planning, particularly in relation to capital expenditure.

Management attitude and approach to long-term planning

Respondents gave several answers about their present planning systems stating that long-term planning was not essential, or even important to a business, as several owner-managers explain.

“We do not know from day-to-day or from month-to-month what our costs will be.”

“Of course, planning is vital. We look ahead as far as possible in all our various operational areas but we have no set planning guides or any formal co-operation of a planning process”.

“Obviously, we need to plan. However, we have no time to plan the activities. This is something that senior management should do”.

“We should have a planning framework, but with maximum flexibility and should plan about one year ahead”.

These are some typical comments received from the managers and supervisors. The majority of staff believed that some form of long-term planning was necessary. In addition, most staff stressed that planning was the responsibility of senior management and not of operational staff.

Difficulties Faced by the Companies

The staff and the management with regards to the difficulties faced by the companies made several incisive comments about advance planning process. Selections of these comments were made by the staff and management on planning difficulties, as explained by respondents:

“We have recognised for some little time now that one of our main problems is that we have not established precise objectives for the future.”

“We are trying to plan as accurately as we can. It will take a few years to plan as efficiently and comprehensively as other pizza companies.”

Taking these comments into account, we can see that these organisations are lacking true direction and surviving on a daily basis in a manner that could eventually see the demise of the business. Plans evidently need to be made and objectives set if success is to come.

Management showing greater interest towards long term planning

The findings obtained through interviewing and observation indicate that management is now taking a greater interest in the planning function than ever before. In particular, growing importance is being attached to some form of long-term planning process. The management is slowly introducing changes. Indicating that they are in the process of introducing long-term plans for the future.

The extent to which the planning methods have been developed and formalised to date is hard to say. As no concrete evidence has been obtained from management. The owners have built from the majority of businesses next to nothing and it can be said that the planning framework has been developed to suit individual personalities.

The scope of planning methods varies considerably from company to company, as does the style and extent of planning in relation to a particular function or activity. In one company, not all activities and functions were covered by the planning process formalised or otherwise. Most of the long term plans related to the financial side of the business, far less attention being paid to production, marketing and personnel areas.

The planning process changes from one organisation to another so that it is difficult to make even broad generalisations about the reasons for these companies failing to plan successfully for the long term. As already noted, the companies concerned put most emphasis on short-term profit planning and various aspects of financial long-term planning, particularly in relation to annual expenditure.

Experience of respondents of short-term and long-term policies

Most members of staff interpreted "Short-term" policies as those used by the company over a one-week period, and long-term policies as the annual budget. The majority of them believed that long-term planning could be associated with anything from one-month to one year.

This finding indicates that the companies have no formal co-ordination or integration between long-term and short-term planning. The scope of the planning process was generally found to be somewhat limited. In addition, the present planning processes were not completely co-ordinated by senior management, either formally or informally.

There seems little doubt that the senior management appreciated the status and importance attached to a planning process. In contrast, the author believes that all staff considers themselves "**Masters of their own art**", none of them

pay any attention to a long-term planning system. As explained by one respondent:

“We have no major problems with our methods of planning. It would perhaps be useful for the company to keep records of various decisions, which are made at informal and formal meetings. This is more of a minor than a major problem”.

This was the opinion of one respondent, who felt no regrets with regards to the lack of a formalised long-term planning system, but none the less recognised that it was important for the company to introduce a long-term planning system, in order to survive in the given market.

Present position of formalised long-term plans

Table 2 indicates the extent to which long-term planning has been formalised in various major areas of activity by the five organisations who have some measure of organised and co-ordinated planning. Attention is drawn to the fact that the table emphasises the present position of formalised long-term planning. As already mentioned above these companies spend a considerable amount of time on planning the financial activities of the organisation. For example, it can be seen that these companies spend only minimal time on marketing, production, and personnel activities. However, this does not mean that marketing, production and personnel activities are completely neglected by the organisations. In a few companies it does receive quite considerable attention.

For example, in one company, the senior management sets long-term and short-term financial goals. They are particularly interested in achieving a higher return on the investment of the company as a whole rather than meeting improved marketing, personnel or production activities.

The Results Round Key Issues

Table-2: Scope of formalised planning processes

Finance	Considerable
Marketing	Moderate
Production	Minimal
Personnel	<i>Not at all</i>

Obviously, some small businesses are family-run businesses that do not aspire to become large organisations. As the Leeds Metropolitan University study shows (2000) nine out of ten small firms are best described as ‘life-style entrepreneurs’. The life-style entrepreneur’s aim is to survive the economic

climate on a day-to-day basis rather than trying to develop into a larger company or planning for the future. Planning is seen as something that is linked to economic objectives and many of these firms are unlikely to recognise the value of planning.

The planning techniques present in unambitious small businesses are concerned with the more immediate future, and do not involve new objectives for the long term. Their planning and control systems are not highly formalised and documented procedures. Not only are the procedures and documentation very informal, in addition, the company lacks formal objectives and set guidelines that would indicate to staff precisely where they are heading. Management also appears to lack the ability of co-ordinating planning at staff level.

The evidence which has been collected suggests the following reasons why these organisations are failing to achieve the expected classical planning system:

- Conflict between hands-on management and owners who have removed the entire decision-making process, leaving the organisation's thinking in a disjointed state.
- Lack of commitment to the planning system. In addition, at the present management are too busy with short-term concerns and considerations.
- Management is failing to develop and implement sound strategies, as the overall planning framework used is poorly designed.
- Plans based on faulty assumptions are leading to invalid results.
- Lack of clear delegation from management to staff causes problems for the staff who are to implement the plans.
- Unpredictable and rapid changes—in internal structure and increasing sales of food—cause planning problems for these companies.
- Problems with the organisation's hierarchy; no clear identification of who does what.
- Lack of business knowledge from owners, leading to mis-management of the organisation.

Improving Planning in the Future

As with so many aspects of planning it is difficult to obtain a completely clear picture with regard to the development of planning methods in the future. In order to improve the present planning system management must adopt the following important points to achieve effective and efficient long term planning system.

The findings indicate that the companies do not make the long term planning process an essential tool of management techniques in relation to survival. In addition, the formalised planning method that is being used by the company is focused almost entirely on the financial side of the business. It is difficult to sum up whether the company does want to achieve long term planning in the future or prefers the present management technique of planning. All organisations appear reasonably satisfied that their methods of planning have been successful. In two companies management considers that the company's record and progress reflect the success and planning. In this respect one company's owner said:

“Whether we succeed or not depends mainly on factors of the company's control. It doesn't matter whether company plans or not”.

However, almost every survey company illustrated the success of its planning methods various according to development and marketing of new products.

Conclusion

Despite the small sample of companies surveyed, there is no clear link or pattern between the quality of the planning process and those enterprises which obtained the most successful results during the last few years. It would also be a mistake to attempt to draw conclusions about the extent to which planning existed in the small business sector.

The survey suggested that there is a general consensus of opinion amongst staff that the senior management and owners had insufficient time to devote too long-term planning priorities. Few managers believed that long-term planning is necessary. There may be general awareness of the concept and genuine interest in various aspects but one can conclude that, worthwhile long-term planning is definitely not widely practised by the types of firm examined in this study.

The findings of the study indicate that even though long-term planning in a formal sense is unlikely to exist in small firms. The owner-managers of successful firms are well aware that for the success of the business it is important to adopt the planning methods in place to meet the new challenges for the future.

The owners of small businesses appreciate that they cannot progress without planning in the future and that change is important. Their existing methods may have been reasonably successful, but they will not necessarily be adequate in the future.

They are beginning to think in terms of a long-term planning philosophy. Hospitality organisations need a planning framework of overall objectives, within which more realistic and efficient objectives can be developed.

The Fear of Long-term Planning in Small Hospitality

To sum up, it can be said regardless of size or type of business that, to survive in any given market, long-term planning is a vital tool in the long run for any business to meet its goals.

This study was only a pilot, as 5 companies do not reflect fully the small business sector. Nevertheless, only an in-depth study can help us to explore and develop this pilot study in a larger study.

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Forthcoming Conferences

December 5-7, 2005

Concorde Hotel, Shah Alam
Selangor, MALAYSIA

The 2nd Tourism Outlook Conference Tourism Edge and Beyond

The Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Shah Alam takes pleasure in announcing the 2nd Tourism Outlook Conference with the theme: Tourism Edge and Beyond. The Conference will take place on the 5 – 7 December 2005, Concorde Hotel, Shah Alam, Selangor.

The main objective of the Conference is to provide a platform for tourism educators, government agencies, hoteliers, airlines, tour operators, travel agents, tourist associations, event organisers and other related bodies for intellectual discussions on the issues and challenges; and identify new directions to improve tourism performance and benefits for the country. The conference aims to further strengthen the relationships and networking possibilities amongst educators and practitioners locally and internationally.

Call for Papers

Educators and industry practitioners are invited to submit proposal for presentations. All presenters are required to register for the conference with full payment of Conference fees. In selecting the proposed topics for inclusion in the final programme, preference will be given to proposal on the following related areas:

- Current industry development and implications for tourism
 - Promoting education and industry collaboration and partnership
 - Sustainable tourism
 - Tourism risk management - Managing crisis and disasters
 - New dimensions in tourism strategies
 - Tourism and hospitality marketing
 - Event and meeting management
 - Other tourism related fields

Important Dates

- Dateline for Abstract submission: 31 August 2005
- Notification of Acceptance: 15 September 2005
- Full Paper Submission: 15 November 2005

All abstract of the intended presentation should be submitted in English using Microsoft Word 2000 an Arial font size 11 in not more than 350 words. Abstract

Forthcoming Conferences

under the heading The 2nd Tourism Outlook Conference, followed by Paper Title, Names of Author/s, contact address and email of author. Please submit via email to norain568@salam.uitm.edu.my (Norain Othman) or mail to:

The 2nd Tourism Outlook Conference

Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management

Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)

40450, Shah Alam, Selangor

MALAYSIA

(Attn: Ms Norain Othman)

Tel: (603) 55435687/ 5657/5689

Fax: (603) 55435698

Email: norain568@salam.uitm.edu.my

16-18 February 2006

Mombasa, Kenya

ATLAS Africa conference cosponsored by the IGU Tourism Commission

Introduction

ATLAS Africa and Moi University are pleased to host the ATLAS Africa conference in February 2006. The Conference is organised jointly with the International Geographical Union's (IGU) Commission of Tourism, Leisure and Global Change. The conference will be held at the Whitesands Hotel in Mombasa, Kenya.

Conference Goals and Objectives

The aim of the Conference is to discuss the relationship between tourism and landscapes in African context. The conference will focus on landscapes in tourism and their connection to culture, conservation and consumption in tourism research and management. The general aims of the Conference are:

- Examine the role of landscapes in tourism consumption and production and the impacts of tourism in natural and cultural landscapes.
- Analyse contemporary issues, practices and future changes and challenges in tourism landscapes.
- Discuss the benefits and costs of tourism development in landscapes for communities and nature conservation.
- Explore various and often competing social and physical constructions and ways of consuming and conserving landscapes in Africa.
- Develop new approaches into the social, cultural, economic, political and environmental implications of global-local connections (globalization) in tourism landscapes.

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- Provide an open forum for the exchange of views among academics and landscape, community and nature conservation area planners and professionals.

Theme

The conference organisers welcome full papers and communications on a range of themes, but not limited to:

- The role of landscapes in tourism;
- Landscape use and abuse in the context of tourism;
- The role of landscapes in nature conservation and tourism;
- Competing constructions of landscape in tourism;
- Landscape consumption in tourism;
- Landscapes of resistance;
- Changing landscapes in tourism development;
- Landscape, (local) identity and tourism;
- Local-global relations in tourism landscapes;
- Landscape representations and tourism;
- Tourism and landscape planning;
- Landscape and tourism impact assessment;
- Landscapes and tourism in national parks and other conservation areas;
- Landscapes and Community-based tourism;

The official language of the Conference is English. All abstracts will be subject of double blind review process. Abstracts should be submitted to ATLAS by e-mail (admin@atlas-euro.org) and should include: author's name, institution, contact address/e-mail and title. Abstracts (approximately 300-500 words) should indicate background, theoretical/ practical implications, methods and/ or data sources and indicative findings of the paper.

Important dates and deadlines:

Abstract submission	: September 30, 2005
Notification of acceptance	: October 2005
Conference	: February 16-18, 2006
Paper submission	: April 15, 2006

Please Contact: Leontine Onderwater or Jantien Veldman
ATLAS, Travit - POBox 3042, 6802 DA Arnhem, The Netherlands

E-mail: admin@atlas-euro.org / leontine.onderwater@atlas-euro.org
<http://www.atlas-euro.org>

March 16-18, 2006

Salisbury University, Salisbury, Maryland

27th Annual Conference Of The Nineteenth Century Studies Association

Tourism and the rise of resorts reflect nineteenth-century economic, social, and cultural developments which brought about increased time for leisure, sport, entertainment, and vacation activities beyond prescribed hours of “work.”

Theme

For our 27th Annual Conference, NCSA encourages proposals that explore the meanings of travel, tourism, and resorts from a variety of disciplinary perspectives. Possible topics include but are not limited to the following:

- Travels through time and space
- Travel of the mind/inward
- Travel companions/solitary or group travelers
- The laws of travel
- Economies/Business of travel
- Travel destinations—city/walking/boat tours
- Tours/Travels with children
- Mysterious, quiet, indiscreet travelers
- Traveling spectacles
- Traveling secrets
- Journeys East or West/home or abroad
- The Middle Passage
- Means/Modes of Travel
- Travel innovations and progress
- Traveling artists, preachers, teachers, & librarians
- The distance we’ve traveled
- Migration, immigration, emigration
- Getaways and hideaways
- Resort architecture; architecture of sport & leisure
- Architectural sites as travel destination
- Representation of travel in art & literature
- Representation of sport and leisure in art/lit

Papers may come from the fields of architecture, art history, ethnic or race studies, history, literature, medicine, museum or library studies, music, or the social sciences. NCSA was founded to promote interdisciplinarity; proposals, which approach the theme of the conference from an interdisciplinary basis, are especially encouraged.

Forthcoming Conferences

Proposals should consist of a one-page, single-spaced abstract (12-point font), with the title of the paper and author as heading; the paper **must** be able to be presented within 20 minutes. Proposals should be accompanied by a one- to two-page vita. Please send materials to both Program Directors, Heidi Kaufman and Lucy Morrison. The deadline for submissions is **October 14, 2005**. Acceptances will be sent by mid-December, 2005.

Email: kaufman@udel.edu and lxmorrison@salisbury.edu

Post: Heidi Kaufman, 212 Memorial Hall, University of Delaware, Newark, DE 19716, Lucy Morrison, English Department, Salisbury University, 1101 Camden Avenue, Salisbury, MD 21801

Fax: Kaufman 302-831-1586 / Morrison 410-548-2142

March 26 – 28, 2006

Bridgetown, Barbados, West Indies

The Department of Management Studies of The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus' First International Management Conference 2006.

Theme: *“Driving creative management: Kickstarting small island enterprise competitiveness.”*

Nature and Scope of Conference

The primary interest of the Management Conference is knowledge-based social and economic change for competitiveness for small island enterprises. Driven by globalization and advances in information technology, this change has been characterized in terms of emerging information/knowledge societies and a global knowledge-based economy.

The conference hopes to promote contributions to the broad theme from any discipline(s) and/or functional area(s) of management including, among others: accounting and finance, human resource management, marketing, project management, international business and tourism. Particular perspectives on the conference theme may include the following:

- Knowledge Transfer
- Change Management
- Competition Dynamics
- International Entrepreneurship & Intra-preneurship
- International Business & Cross Cultural Management
- Regional Economic Integration, including Globalization
- Challenges in the Development of Local Capital Markets
- Tourism & Hospitality Management
- Corporate Governance, Accounting, Taxation & Regulatory Issues

Forthcoming Conferences

- Human Resources Management
- Employment Relations and Labour market Dynamics under Globalization
- Public Sector Employment Relations
- The Impact of Information Technology
- e-Commerce
- Assessment of Business Risks
- Social Responsibility & Ethical Issues
- CSME and Globalization

Submission Guidelines

Abstracts/proposals ----- September 30, 2005

Acceptance decision of abstracts ----- October 31, 2005

Final Paper Submission ----- December 15, 2005

Confirmation of final acceptance ----- January 15, 2006

Please submit your paper as an e-mail attachment using Microsoft Word. Submissions should not exceed 25 double-spaced pages (including tables, charts and references), 1" margins (top, bottom, left, and right), in 12-point font.

Submissions should not have been published, presented previously, scheduled for presentation, or be under concurrent consideration for another Conference.

Submissions will be blind reviewed and accepted papers will be published in the refereed proceedings on a CD-Rom format. Accepted papers should be prepared using Harvard Referencing format.

Conference Chair

Philmore Alleyne Tel: (246) 417 4295 Email: hilmore.alleyne@uwichill.edu.bb

Contacts

If you would like to know more about this conference, please contact:

Denise Reid-Husbands Email: denrh@caribsurf.com or Nicole Arthur Email: nkarthur@hotmail.com

Department of Management Studies, University of the West Indies

Cave Hill, Bridgetown, Barbados, West Indies

Website at: <http://cavehill.uwi.edu/socsci/management>

Instructions for Contributors

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Manuscripts must be submitted in triplicate and be prepared to include the following sections: title page, abstract / key words, manuscript text, references, tables / figures, acknowledgements (if applicable). Only one copy of the manuscript should include a title page with manuscript title, author's name, academic degree, present position, complete address (including telephone / fax / e-mail) as well as a brief biography (at the bottom of page) indicating academic field, degree (including year and institution), title and affiliation, and research interests. The cover page for the other two copies should only show article title. Manuscripts should be typewritten on one side of the paper in 12 font New Times Roman, double spaced (including references), and should be checked carefully. Article should not be more than 30 pages in length. Submitted manuscripts should not have been published elsewhere. However, if a longer / shorter version or translation of a previously published article is being submitted, a photocopy of the original publication must be include.

Text Preparation on Disk

The electronic version on disk should be sent with the paper to the editor. The hard copy and electronic files must match exactly.

Abstracts, Key Words and Summaries

Authors should include an abstract of 150-200 words and up to 6 key words. Abstracts should contain an abbreviated representation of the content of the manuscript. Major results, conclusions, and / or recommendations should be given, followed by supporting details of method, scope, or purpose as appropriate.

References within Text

Citations in the text should include the author's last name, and year of publication enclosed in parentheses without punctuation. For example, (Sonmez 1994) or Crompton 1979, 1982) or (Yucelt and Marcella 1996) or (Fesenmaier et al. 1994) or (Dener 1995 : 14-21) (for quoted material). No footnotes or endnotes should be included.

References

All cited references must be given in full, including the volume, issues, and page numbers. The list of all references should be placed at the end of the paper, arranged in alphabetical order by authors' last names, as shown in examples below.

Periodicals / Journals

Palmer, A., & Bejou, D. (1995). Tourism Destination marketing alliances. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(3), 616-629.

Books

Porter, M. (1980). *Competitive strategy: Techniques for analysing industries and Competitors*. New York: Free Press.

Chapters in Edited Book

Walton, M. and Wilcox, L. A. R. (1996). Role of Women in Travel and Tourism. In R. Shah, M. Polen, and G. Mars (Eds.), *VPR's Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism* (pp. 798-810). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Internet

Jacobson, J. W., Mulick, J. A., & Schwartz, A. A. (1995). A history of facilitated communication : Science, pseudoscience, and antiscience : Science working group on facilitated communication. *American Psychologist*, 50, 750-765. Retrieved January 25, 1996 from the World Wide Web : <http://www.apa.org/journals/jacobson.html>

Tables, Illustrations / Diagrams and Photographs

All supplements to the manuscript text should be professionally done, should be enclosed on separate pages, and the place where they are to be printed must be clearly marked in the text (i.e., "figure 1 here"). Tables should be intelligible without reference to the text and should include a title caption and headings for columns. Very wide or very long tables should be avoided.

Illustrations / diagrams must be clear, suitable for direct reproduction (camera ready) and should include a title caption. Lettering should be large enough to be legible after reduction to printing size. The first author's name and figure

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number should be lightly pencilled on the reverse side of the sheet. Captions for illustrations / diagrams should be included on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. Photographs should be submitted unmounted on white glossy paper (slides are not acceptable). These pages should not be numbered.

Shorter Items

Responses to the articles should be 500-1000 words, book reviews and new pieces 250-500 words. Notices of forthcoming meetings for listing in the calendar section are welcomed. Entries must be received at least six months before the date of event.

Manuscripts Reviews

Submissions will be reviewed by a double-blind review process and will be published based on the recommendations of reviewers and discretion of the editors. submissions to JOHAT can be processed efficiently only if they are prepared according to these guidelines.

Proofs

Proofs may not be sent to authors. Authors are therefore advised to prepare the manuscripts with utmost care.

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