

Tourism Concepts and Principles

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Zeeshan Norris



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PREFACE

The terms tourism and travel are sometimes used interchangeably. In this context, travel has a similar definition to tourism, but implies a more purposeful journey. The terms tourism and tourist are sometimes used pejoratively, to imply a shallow interest in the cultures or locations visited. By contrast, traveler is often used as a sign of distinction. The sociology of tourism has studied the cultural values underpinning these distinctions and their implications for class relations. Tourism is travel for pleasure or business; also the theory and practice of touring, the business of attracting, accommodating, and entertaining tourists, and the business of operating tours. Tourism may be international, or within the traveller's country. The World Tourism Organization defines tourism more generally, in terms which go "beyond the common perception of tourism as being limited to holiday activity only", as people "traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes". Tourism can be domestic or international, and international tourism has both incoming and outgoing implications on a country's balance of payments. Today, tourism is a major source of income for many countries, and affects the economy of both the source and host countries, in some cases being of vital importance. Tourism suffered as a result of a strong economic slowdown of the late-2000s recession, between the second half of 2008 and the end of 2009, and the outbreak of the H1N1 influenza virus, but slowly recovered. International tourism receipts grew to US\$1.03 trillion in 2011, corresponding to an increase in real terms of 3.8% from 2010. International tourist arrivals surpassed the milestone of 1 billion tourists globally for the first time in 2012, emerging markets such as China, Russia and Brazil had significantly increased their spending over the previous decade. The ITB Berlin is the world's leading tourism trade fair.

— *Zeeshan Norris*

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Introduction

Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited. Tourism is travel for predominantly recreational or leisure purposes or the provision of services to support this leisure travel. The World Tourism Organization also defines tourists as described above as people who “travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited”. Tourism has become a popular global leisure activity. In 2004, there were over 763 million international tourist arrivals. Tourism is vital for many countries, due to the income generated by the consumption of goods and services by tourists, the taxes levied on businesses in the tourism industry, and the opportunity for employment in the service industries associated with tourism. These service industries include transportation services such as cruise ships and taxis, accommodation such as hotels, restaurants, bars, and entertainment venues, and other hospitality industry services such as spas and resorts.

TOURISM: GENERAL DEFINITIONS

Tourism is different from travel. In order for tourism to happen, there must be a displacement: an individual has to travel, using any type of means of transportation (he might even travel on foot: nowadays, it is often the case for poorer societies, and happens even in more developed ones, and concerns pilgrims, hikers). But all travel is not tourism.

Three criteria are used simultaneously in order to characterize a trip as belonging to tourism.

The displacement must be such that:

- It involves a displacement outside the usual environment: this term is of utmost importance
- *Type of purpose:* The travel must occur for any purpose different from being remunerated from within the place visited: the previous limits, where tourism was restricted to recreation and visiting family and friends are now expanded to include a vast array of purposes;
- *Duration:* Only a maximal duration is mentioned, not a minimal. Tourism displacement can be with or without an overnight stay. We shall discuss the particularity of in transit visits, from a conceptual and statistical point of view.

Some other definitions of Tourism:

- Occupation of providing local services such as entertainment, accommodation and catering for tourists.
- Industry promoting sightseeing by people with money. "Tourism is often regarded by the host community as an economic necessity but a social evil."
- Tourism is a service based industry comprising a number of tangible and intangible components.

The tangible elements include transport, foods and beverages, tours, souvenirs and accommodation, while the intangible elements involve education, culture, adventure or simply escape and relaxation.

- the all-embracing term for the movement of people to destinations away from their place of residence for any reason other than following an occupation, remunerated from within the country visited, for a period of 24 hours or more.
- The act of visiting places for the purpose of enjoyment.
- a source of income for a state/country or business based on people's travel habits/patterns/purchases
- Tourism can be defined as the act of travel for the purpose of recreation, and the provision of services for this act. A tourist is someone who travels at least eighty kilometres (fifty miles) from home for the purpose of recreation, as defined by the World Tourism Organization (a United Nations body).

THE GROWING POTENTIAL OF TOURISM

Geographical knowledge is more important than ever in an increasingly global and interconnected world. Tourism is widely recognised as the world's largest industry. The figures on the size and significance of tourism are staggering.

For example, according to the World Tourism Organisation, in 1995:

- World tourist arrivals reached 567 million.
- More than 360 million passengers were carried on international air services, an increase of 5 per cent over the preceding year.

- International tourism receipts (excluding international transport) increased by 7.2 per cent between 1994 and 1995 to US\$372 billion. International fare receipts in 1995 were estimated at US\$60 billion.
- Tourism receipts represented more than 8 per cent of the world merchandise exports and one-third of world trade in services.

Five years on the figures were even more incredible:

- World tourism arrivals were estimated to have reached 698.3 million.
- World tourism grew by an estimated 7.4 per cent - its highest growth rate in nearly a decade and almost double the increase of 1999.
- Receipts from international tourism climbed to US\$476 billion, an increase of 4.5 per cent over the previous year.

However, tourism, tourists and their impacts, are clearly not evenly distributed. Substantial differentiation occurs at a variety of international, regional and local scales.

For example, to continue the snapshot from 2000:

- All regions of the world hosted more tourists in 2000, although the fastest developing area continued to be East Asia and the Pacific with a growth rate of 14.5 per cent and some 14 million more tourists than in 1999.
- Europe, which accounts for 58 per cent of international tourism, grew by 6.2 per cent to 403 million arrivals, nearly 25 million more trips than one year earlier.
- Despite the strong dollar, the United States achieved a growth rate of 8.7 per cent in international tourism arrivals.
- Africa increased its international arrivals by 1.5 per cent - its poorest growth rate ever. While Kenya, Zambia, Mauritius, Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria all enjoyed strong growth, international arrivals to South Africa and Zimbabwe, two of Africa's biggest destinations, stagnated.

Yet tourism is also highly dynamic and is strongly influenced by economic, political, social, environmental and technological change. For example, following the dramatic downturn in a number of South-East Asian economies in the second half of 1997 and early 1998, the WTO revised its outbound figures for intraregional travel in the East Asia Pacific (EAP) region from a previous estimate for 1998 of 8 per cent growth to a revised estimate of there being no growth, while in terms of travel from EAP countries to outside the region the change was from an original estimate of 6.3 per cent growth to a fall of 2 per cent. In addition, of great significance in terms of outbound tourism and the overall competitiveness of some international tourism destinations is the extent to which the devaluation of some Asian currencies has served to attract tourists.

At a global level the World Travel and Tourism Council, using a tourism satellite accounting system, have measured that, directly and indirectly, the travel and tourism industry constitutes: 11 per cent of global GDP (US\$3,575 billion); supports 200 million jobs worldwide; 8 per cent of total employment or 1 in every 12.4 jobs. By 2010, the travel and tourism economic contribution is estimated to grow to 11.6 per cent (US\$6,591

billion) of global GDP and will support 250 million jobs, 9 per cent of total employment or 1 in every 11 jobs. More recently, the WTTC estimated that by 2011, the travel and tourism economy will constitute: 11.0 per cent of global GDP; support 260,417,000 jobs worldwide, 9 per cent of total employment or 1 in 11.2 jobs.

The immediate economic significance of such figures is to be seen not only in tourist destination and tourist generating areas but also in those destinations from which tourists switch their travel in order to take advantage of cheap prices. However, changes in the international tourism market will also be related to domestic holiday travel, as consumers can switch their travel plans not only between international destinations but also between domestic and international destinations.

Tourism, as with other forms of economic activity, therefore reflects the increasing interconnectedness of the international economy. Indeed, by its very nature in terms of connections between generating areas, destinations and travel routes or paths, tourism is perhaps a phenomenon which depends more than most not only on transport, service and trading networks but also on social, political and environmental relationships between the consumers and producers of the tourist experience. Such issues are clearly of interest to geographers. For example, according to Mitchell, in his discussion of the contributions that geography can make to the investigation of tourism:

The geographer's point-of-view is a trilogy of biases pertaining to place, environment and relationships. ... In a conceptual vein the geographer has traditionally claimed the spatial and chorographic aspects as his realm.... The geographer, therefore, is concerned about earth space in general and about place and places in particular. The description, appreciation, and understanding of places is paramount to his thinking although two other perspectives (*i.e.*, environment and relationships) modify and extend the primary bias of place.

Yet despite the global significance of tourism and the potential contribution that geography can make to the analysis and understanding of tourism, the position of tourism and recreation studies within geography is not strong. However, within the fields of tourism and recreation studies outside mainstream academic geography, geographers have made enormous contributions to the understanding of tourism and recreation phenomena.

It is therefore within this somewhat paradoxical situation that this book is being written, while the contribution of geography and geographers is widely acknowledged and represented in tourism and recreation departments and journals, relatively little recognition is given to the significance of tourism and recreation in geography departments, journals, non-tourism and recreation-specific geography texts, and within other geography subdisciplines. We therefore seek to explain how this situation has developed, indicate the breadth and depth of geographical research on tourism and recreation, and suggest ways in which the overall standing of research and scholarship by geographers on tourism and recreation may be improved. This topic is divided into several sections. First, it examines the relationship between tourism and recreation.

Second, it provides an overview of the development of various approaches to the study of tourism and recreation within geography. Finally, it outlines the approach here towards the geography of tourism and recreation.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISM AND RECREATION

Tourism, recreation and leisure are generally seen as a set of interrelated and overlapping concepts. While there are many important concepts, definitions of leisure, recreation and tourism remain contested in terms of how, where, when and why they are used. In a review of the meaning of leisure, Stockdale identified three main ways in which the concept of leisure is used:

- As a period of time, activity or state of mind in which choice is the dominant feature; in this sense leisure is a form of 'free time' for an individual;
- An objective view in which leisure is perceived as the opposite of work and is defined as non-work or residual time;
- A subjective view which emphasises leisure as a qualitative concept in which leisure activities take on a meaning only within the context of individual perceptions and belief systems and can therefore occur at any time in any setting.

According to Herbert, leisure is therefore best seen as time over which an individual exercises choice and undertakes activities in a free, voluntary way.

Leisure activities are of considerable interest to geographers. Traditional approaches to the study of leisure by geographers focused on leisure in terms of activities. In contrast, Glyptis argued for the adoption of the concept of leisure lifestyles which emphasised the importance of individual perceptions of leisure.

This allows the totality of an individual's leisure experiences to be considered and is a subjective approach which shifts the emphasis from activity to people, from aggregate to individual and from expressed activities to the functions which these fulfill for the participant and the social and locational circumstances in which he or she undertakes them.

Such an experiential approach towards leisure has been extremely influential. For example, Featherstone argued that 'The significance and meaning of a particular set of leisure choices can only be made intelligible by inscribing them on a map of the class-defined social field of leisure and lifestyle practices in which their meaning and significance is relationally defined with reference to structured oppositions and differences'. Similarly, such an experiential definition of leisure was used by Shaw and Williams in their critical examination of tourism from a geographical perspective.

However, while such a phenomenological approach to defining leisure, and therefore tourism and recreation, is valuable in highlighting the social context in which leisure is both defined and occurs, such an approach will clearly be at odds with 'objective', technical approaches towards definitions which can be applied in a variety of situations

and circumstances. Yet it should be emphasised that such definitions are being used for different purposes. A universally accepted definition of leisure, tourism and recreation is an impossibility. Definitions will change according to their purpose and context. They are setting the 'rules of the game' or 'engagement' for discussion, argument and research. By defining terms we give meaning to what we are doing.

Even given the subjective nature of leisure, however, at a larger scale it may still be possible to aggregate individual perceptions and activities to provide a collective or commonly held impression of the relationship between leisure, tourism and recreation. In this sense, tourism and recreation are generally regarded as subsets of the wider concept of leisure. In the wider context of geography, Johnston argued that 'Academic disciplines exist to maintain, further and promote knowledge', and this is certainly the case in tourism and recreational geography.

Historically, research in outdoor recreation developed independently of tourism research. As Crompton and Richardson noted: 'Traditionally, tourism has been regarded as a commercial economic phenomenon rooted in the private domain. In contrast, recreation and parks has been viewed as a social and resource concern rooted in the public domain.' Outdoor recreation studies have focused on public-sector (*i.e.*, community and land management agencies) concerns, such as wilderness management, social carrying capacity and non-market valuation of recreation experiences. In contrast, tourism has tended to have a more 'applied orientation' which concentrates on traditional private-sector (*i.e.*, tourism industry) concerns, such as the economic impacts of travel expenditures, travel patterns and tourist demands, and advertising and marketing.

Although the division between public and private activities may have held relatively true from the end of the post-war period through to the early 1980s, in recent years the division between public and private sector activities has been substantially eroded in western countries. The distinction between tourism and recreation may therefore be regarded as one of degree. Tourism primarily relates to leisure and business travel activities which centre around visitors to a particular destination, which will typically involve an infusion of new money from the visitor into the regional economy. According to Helber, 'In this sense, tourism can be viewed as a primary industry which, through visitor spending, increases job opportunities and tax revenues, and enhances the community's overall economic base'.

On the other hand, recreation generally refers to leisure activities which are undertaken by the residents of an immediate region, while their spending patterns will involve 'a recycling of money within the community associated with day, overnight and extended-stay recreation trips'.

Natural settings and outdoor recreation opportunities are clearly a major component of tourism, perhaps especially so since the development of interest in nature-based and ecotourism activities. Indeed, outdoor recreation and tourist resources should be seen as complementary contexts and resources for leisure experiences. Nevertheless, while authors such as Pigram take the view that 'tourism is carried on within an essentially

recreational framework', others such as Murphy have expressed an opposing view, conceptualising recreation as one component of tourism. However, this argument smacks of something of the 'glass is half-full or half-empty' argument. The reality is that as tourism and recreation studies have grown and borrowed concepts from each other, and as society has changed, particularly with respect to the role of government, so the demarcation line between recreation and tourism has rapidly become 'fuzzy and overlap is now the norm'.

Little success has been afforded to those attempting to differentiate between recreation and tourism and their application to tourism and recreation has largely mirrored trends in the main discipline, while new developments in behavioural geography, humanistic geography and, more recently, cultural geography have only belatedly begun to permeate the consciousness of tourism and recreation geographers.

What began to develop in the last decade of the twentieth century and has now gathered momentum in tourism and recreation geography is the evolution of new paradigms (*i.e.*, ways of thinking about and conceptualising research problems). As a result, developments in the 'new cultural geography' have begun to permeate, transform and redefine the way in which geographers approach tourism and recreation. Crouch conceptualises leisure and tourism as an encounter, in the anthropological tradition, noting the geographers' contribution to this perspective, where the concern is between people, between people and space and the contexts of leisure/tourism. However, what is a fundamental redefinition of the geographers' concern with space, is the manner in which space is viewed and contextualised. Crouch argued that space may be something material, concrete, metaphorical or imagined questioning the traditional notion of location and space, where activity is located. This new conceptualisation is reflected in that 'The country and the city, the garden, the beach, the desert island, and the street hold powerful metaphorical attention in significant areas of leisure/tourism'.

This concern with conceptions from cultural geography, where space is something metaphorical, whereby it is something that shapes people's enjoyment of leisure/tourism, derives much of its origins from humanistic geography and cultural studies. For example, Squire argued that leisure and recreation practices are a reflection of the way in which people make maps of meaning of their everyday world. This concern with the individual or group, the human experience and the symbolic meaning of leisure and tourism in space has opened a wide range of geographical avenues for research in tourism and recreation. For example, Cloke and Perkins examined representations of adventure tourism, exploring many of the issues of meaning and symbols.

Williams and Kaltenborn's analysis of the use and meaning of recreational cottages is significant in this context because it also questioned the traditional notion of geography and tourism, with the focus on tourism as a temporary phenomenon in time and space. Indeed, they challenged the conventional way of viewing tourism, arguing that tourism and leisure needs to be viewed as a more dynamic phenomenon, where the circulation and movement of people in space is the rule rather than the exception. They argue that

it is the movement to tourism and leisure spaces that adds meaning, by allowing people to establish an identity and to connect with place. In other words, tourism and leisure are deeply embedded in everyday lives and the meaning people attach to their lives, since changing work practices and less separation of work, leisure and pleasure has made tourism and recreation more important to people's lives. This is intrinsically linked to the rapidly changing nature of time-space compression and Hall and Williams (for more detail), with other mechanisms contributing to people's lives increasingly connected to the concept of a 'global village'.

What is clear from the transformation occurring in what one might term the new cultural geographies of leisure and tourism is the lack of a specific frame of reference or guiding research agenda to incorporate these perspectives into mainstream tourism and recreation geography. What appears to be emerging is a social and cultural detachment within the subdiscipline, mirroring other developments in human geography, where two different languages, knowledge bases and modes of analysis are emerging (*i.e.*, the empiricist-positivist and inducture-qualitative culturalists), neither of whom have found a common language to communicate with each other. With these issues in mind, attention now turns to the historical development of the geography of tourism and recreation and a discussion of many of the formative studies.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF FEAR AND RECREATIONAL PARTICIPATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Urban parks are estimated to be used by 40 per cent of the British population on a regular basis, but critics argue that urban parks as a recreational resource are being avoided by the general public. This is particularly acute for certain groups of the population (*e.g.*, women, children and ethnic groups), where fear acts as a constraint on use. This adds a new dimension to the recreational constraints literature. Explanations of the growing neglect of urban parks within the United Kingdom have been related to a decline in public spending, from 54 per cent of leisure budgets in 1981 to 1982 to 44 per cent in 1991 to 1992, although these statistics need to recognise greater financial efficiencies derived from contracting out park services.

In the 1990s there was growing evidence that urban parks were not perceived as peaceful sanctuaries for recreational and leisure pursuits among the wider population. Burgess' innovative Greenwich Open Space Project documented the dimensions of fear. Dimensions included antisocial behaviour among teenagers and vandalism that reduced local enjoyment and participation. Similar concerns of insecurity, fear and use of parks and open spaces have also been recorded in Australia, and North America. Additional research shows how women, black people, the elderly and the gay community may be excluded from using urban space as freely as other subgroups of the population. As Burgess remarked in the Greenwich context: 'many people expressed feelings of

insecurity and vulnerability in open spaces, reflecting fears of personal attack and injury. Among the Asian community, these feelings are exacerbated by the growth in incidence of racially motivated attacks in public open spaces.’ The outcome, as Madge recognised, was that ‘This fear, which reflects structural inequalities in society, is translated into spatial behaviour which usually involves a reluctance to occupy certain public spaces at certain times of the day’. For the geographer, it is the spatial manifestation of that fear and its implications for recreational resource use.

The geography of fear and urban park use in Leicester, located in the East Midlands in the UK, is a medium-sized city with a population of 272,000 people. What is notable is its diverse ethnic mix: 72 per cent of the population are white, 24 per cent are Asian, 2 per cent Afro-Caribbean, 2 per cent Chinese and other ‘ethnic groups’. Despite the city’s urban-industrial development, it is widely acknowledged that the city has an enviable distribution of open space. By 1994, Leicester City Council was responsible for over 1200 ha of open space, which comprised 20 per cent of the total city area. This is a significant level of provision within an international context, and certainly enhances the city’s green and open feel as a British city. In this context, Madge’s analysis of the geography of fear was timely. The sampling framework, namely face-to-face interviews with Leicester residents at on-street locations sought to derive a sample of city-wide park and open space use, with some 535 respondents interviewed.

From the survey, ten main constraints emerged which influenced park use. In order of importance these were:

- Fear
- Weather
- Lack of time due to work
- Family constraints
- Lack of transport
- Lack of interest
- Limited awareness of facilities available
- Housework
- Distance of parks/too far away
- Physically unable to get to the parks.

Some 43 per cent of respondents attributed fear as a ‘very important’ factor constraining their use of parks. The gender difference was striking with 75 per cent of women compared to 50 per cent of men stating fear was a major constraint on park use. This is in line with Westover’s finding in North America, where 90 per cent of female respondents felt unsafe if alone in parks. Studies of victimisation in Leicester recognise that women have a greater sense of insecurity due to their vulnerability to crime.

When ethnicity was examined, Asian groups expressed higher levels of fear compared with white and Afro-Caribbean groups reflecting victimisation statistics, racial abuse and attacks in the urban environment. In terms of age, those over 45 expressed the greatest levels of fear. As Madge rightly acknowledged: ‘The result of fear of crime is,

however, concrete: the elderly are less likely to use public parks for recreation.’ In terms of causes of fear, Madge observed that the main causes of fear of park use were: anxieties related to actual or potential bodily harm (*e.g.*, mugging, sexual attack, loitering people, gangs of youths, dogs and racial attack). Women’s fears were greatest in relation to fear of sexual attack by men. These findings reflected the prevailing levels of fear of sexual violence which women in Leicester harbour, particularly the high level of sexual harassment which was rarely reported. In fact 77 per cent of female respondents were fearful of sexual attacks in parks, a much higher figure than in similar surveys in Edinburgh and Seattle. Fear of racial attack was also much higher for Afro-Caribbean and Asian groups than for white groups.

The implications of these findings are reflected in the behaviour and use of parks. Women tended to avoid large open spaces, unlit areas and those areas with dense undergrowth and trees. The onset of nightfall also elevated fear of using such places, especially if they were alone.

As Madge suggested, ‘Fear is a significant factor structuring the use of public parks in Leicester. The intensity and cause of fear varied with social traits of gender, ethnicity and age and affected spatial behaviour regarding use of parks. The geography of fear is mediated through a set of overlapping social, ideological and structural power relations which become translated into spatial behaviour.’ The findings of Madge’s study highlight how a new constraint on leisure behaviour has specific gender, ethnic and social ramifications for recreational resource use.

Although Madge criticises the existing recreational literature for neglecting this issue, fear is a more profound issue in urban environments than has hitherto been the case in recreational research. While Hoyles argued for a greater feminisation of public space, and Madge argued for increased informal surveillance to encourage public participation and use of parks and open spaces, creating safer parks is deeply embedded in more complex notions of creating safe cities. Koskela and Pain point to the problems and failures of designing out fear from the urban environment, given the extent to which fear of crime pervades city spaces.

In a review of urban public space in Tokyo and New York, Cybriwsky recognised the growth in the surveillance of public spaces to improve security which could lead to a return to private spaces and attempts to modify social behaviour in recreational spaces. This is a feature which Giddens recognised whereby ‘surveillance is a means of leveraging the modern social world away from traditional modes of social activity’. Indeed, Koskela and Pain argued that ‘Geographers and planners should take greater account of the complexity of fear. ... Places have some influence on fear, but perhaps of equal or greater significance is the ways in which fear shapes our understanding, perception and use of space and place.’ This is certainly a truism in the case of recreational use of urban parks in Madge’s findings which have a wider application to urban recreational resource use in the developed world. A great deal of progress will need to be made in addressing fear of crime and recreational and leisure spaces in urbanised societies until

Koskela and Pain's analysis that 'Green urban spaces and woodlands are commonly perceived as dangerous places and feelings of insecurity often have a deterrent effect on women's use of them' is no longer a valid assessment.

SUMMARY POINTS

- The geography of fear is an important factor shaping participation by certain social groups in recreational activities.
- The problem of fear affects certain groups' participation patterns (*e.g.*, the elderly and women) more than others.
- The creation of safer recreational open spaces is more problematic since it will involve greater surveillance, monitoring and control of informal leisure spaces.
- The new cultural geography, particularly the geography of gender, provides invaluable insights to explain how women's leisure space is embedded in notions of fear, constraints on the use of urban space and the resultant inequalities.

RESOURCES AND FASHIONS

While models of participation and obstacles to recreation have attempted to predict the probability of people participating in activities, using variables such as age, sex, marital status and social variables (*e.g.*, housing tenure, income and car ownership), predictions decline in accuracy when attempting to identify individual activities. What such recreational models often fail to acknowledge is the role of choice and preference given a range of options. In this respect, geographical proximity to recreational resources and access to them is a major determinant. This is demonstrated by Burton, who found that in Britain, people were three times as likely to use a recreational resource if they lived between half and three-quarters of a mile away, a feature emphasised by Patmore and Page in research on urban parks. This shows that the proximity to a recreational resource increased the propensity for use at a swimming pool, yet for leisure centres where attendees used cars to visit them, the distance-decay function had a less rapid decline in attendance in relation to distance. Outside urban areas, the occurrence of recreational resources are more varied in their spatial distribution, and recreational opportunities need to be closely examined in relation to demand and supply. To provide a number of detailed insights into the patterns of recreation in different countries, and how demand is influenced and constrained, a number of national recreational patterns are examined followed by a case study of regional demand.

MEASURING RECREATIONAL DEMAND

Most geographers acknowledge the continued lack of suitable data on recreational demand, as Patmore explains:

Prior to the 1960s sources were scattered and fragmentary, and lacked any coherent basis. The studies undertaken for the American Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission and published in 1962 gave the impetus for work in Britain. Two wide-

ranging national surveys were carried out later in the latter part of that decade: the Pilot National Recreation Survey ... and the Government social survey's Planning for Leisure. These surveys remain unique at national level.

Although such surveys also have a number of limitations - they were 'one-off' studies, the methods of data collection did not allow comparability of the data for each survey, and the results are often dated on publication due to the time required to analyse the results - they were a starting point for analysing demand. Yet since 1972 no major survey specifically focusing on leisure has been undertaken in the UK, although the General Household Survey (GHS), which normally occurs every four years, has included a number of questions on leisure.

PROBLEMS AND METHODS OF MEASURING RECREATIONAL DEMAND

When seeking to understand their recreational habits, asking individuals questions about their recreational habits using social survey techniques remains the most widely used approach. A landmark study by Rowntree and Lavers of *English Life and Leisure* provides a good illustration of the early use of a diverse range of research methods and sources to construct patterns of participation in leisure and recreation in post-war Britain. Even so, researchers recognise that precision is needed to identify participation, non-participation and the frequency of each. For this reason, questions on surveys need to follow the type of format used on the GHS, to provide both a temporal and quantitative measure of demand.

Patmore cites the GHS, which begins by asking respondents: 'What ... things have you done in your leisure time ... in the four weeks ending last Sunday?' Survey data rarely record all the information a researcher seeks (*e.g.*, respondents' recall ability may not accurately record the full pattern), or respondents have a different understanding of a term to that intended by the researcher. As a result, a variety of survey techniques are necessary to derive a range of complementary and yet unique insights into recreation demand.

Within the recreation literature, three techniques have primarily been used:

- A continuous record of recreation activities of a sample population for a given time period which involves respondents keeping a diary of activities (the time budget approach) (Zuzanek cross-national survey of Dutch and Canadian use of time is a good source to consult).
- Questionnaire surveys which require respondents to recall activities either in the form of an individual case study, which are detailed and sometimes contain both qualitative and quantitative questions and which are inevitably small-scale due to the time involved in in-depth qualitative interviews.
- Questionnaire surveys which are large scale, enabling subsamples to be drawn which are statistically significant. Such surveys may be derived using simple and unambiguous questions which focus on a specific recreation activity or one that covers the entire spectrum of leisure activities. To illustrate how these

techniques have been used and the way such data have been analysed, the time budget approach and national surveys of recreational activities are now examined.

TOURISM DEMAND

One of the fundamental questions tourism researchers consistently seek to answer is: Why do tourists travel? This seemingly simple proposition remains one of the principal challenges for tourism research. D.G. Pearce expands this proposition by asking ‘What induces them to leave their home area to visit other areas? What factors condition their travel behaviour, influencing their choice of destination, itineraries followed and activities undertaken?’

Such questions underpin not only issues of spatial interaction, but also lead the geographer to question:

- Why tourists seek to travel;
- Where they go;
- When they go and how they get there.

These basic issues have spatial implications in terms of the patterns of tourism, where tourism impacts will occur and the nature of management challenges for destinations which may attract a ‘mass market’ or be seeking to develop tourism from a low base. In other words, an understanding of tourism demand is a starting point for the analysis of why tourism develops, who patronises specific destinations and what appeals to the client market. However, geographers are at a comparative disadvantage in answering some of the principal questions associated with tourism demand since ‘geographers have not been at the forefront of this research which has been led by psychologists, sociologists, marketers and economists.

Some of these researchers have touched on such issues as the potential significance of variations in motivation on destination choice’. However, tourist behaviour and the analysis of motivation has not traditionally been the logical positivist and empirical approach of traditional forms of spatial analysis on tourism with some exceptions. The area of tourist behaviour has a more developed literature within the field of social psychology than geography, and the emphasis here is on the way such approaches assist in understanding how tourist behaviour may result in the spatial implications for tourism.

WHAT IS TOURISM DEMAND

The precise approach one adopts to the analysis of tourism demand is largely dependent upon the disciplinary perspective of the researcher. Geographers view demand in a uniquely spatial manner as ‘the total number of persons who travel, or wish to travel, to use tourist facilities and services at places away from their places of work and residence’, whereas in this context demand ‘is seen in terms of the relationship between individuals’ motivation [to travel] and their ability to do so’ with an attendant emphasis on the implications for the spatial impact on the development of domestic and

international tourism. In comparison, the economist emphasises ‘the schedule of the amount of any product or service which people are willing and able to buy at each specific price in a set of possible prices during a specified period of time. Psychologists view demand from the perspective of motivation and behaviour’, while Uysal reviewed the wider context of tourism demand.

In conceptual terms, there are three principal elements to tourism demand:

- *Effective or actual demand* comprises the number of people participating in tourism, commonly expressed as the number of travellers. This is most commonly measured by tourism statistics which means that most official sources of data are measures of effective demand.
- *Suppressed demand* is the population who are unable to travel because of circumstances (e.g., lack of purchasing power or limited holiday entitlement) which is called potential demand. Potential demand can be converted to effective demand if the circumstances change. There is also deferred demand where constraints (e.g., lack of tourism supply such as a shortage of bedspaces) can also be converted to effective demand if a destination or locality can accommodate the demand.
- *No demand* is a distinct category for the population who have no desire to travel. According to Cooper the demand for tourism may be viewed in other ways using a number of other concepts:
 - *Substitution of demand* where the demand for a specific activity is substituted by another activity;
 - *Redirection of demand* where the geographical distribution of tourism is altered due to pricing policies of competing destinations, special events or changing trends and tastes.

Therefore, it is apparent that the analysis of tourism demand as an abstract concept remains firmly within the remit of tourism economics. However, the factors which shape the tourist decision-making process to select and participate in specific forms of tourism is largely within the field of consumer behaviour and motivation.

TOURIST MOTIVATION

According to Moutinho, motivation is ‘a state of need, a condition that exerts a push on the individual towards certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction’. In this respect Cooper rightly acknowledge that ‘demand for tourists at the individual level can be treated as a consumption process which is influenced by a number of factors. These may be a combination of needs and desires, availability of time and money, or images, perceptions and attitudes’. Not surprisingly, this is an incredibly complex area of research and it is impossible within a chapter to overview the area in depth. Nevertheless, P. Pearce’s influential work in this field outlined a ‘blueprint for tourist motivation’, arguing that in an attempt to theorise tourist motivation one must consider the following issues:

- The conceptual place of tourism motivation;
- Its task in the specialism of tourism;
- Its ownership and users;
- Its ease of communication;
- pragmatic measurement concerns;
- Adopting a dynamic approach;
- The development of multi-motive perspectives;
- Resolving and clarifying intrinsic and extrinsic motivation approaches.

To date no all-embracing theory of tourist motivation has been developed which has been adapted and legitimised by researchers in other contexts. This is largely due to the multidisciplinary nature of the research issues identified above and the problem of simplifying complex psychological factors and behaviour into a set of constructs and ultimately a universally acceptable theory that can be tested and proved in various tourism contexts. As a result, Cooper prefer to view the individual as a central component of tourism demand to understand what motivates the tourist to travel. Their research rightly acknowledges that:

No two individuals are alike, and differences in attitudes, perceptions and motivation have an important influence on travel decisions [where] attitudes depend on an individual's perception of the world. Perceptions are mental impressions of ... a place or travel company and are determined by many factors which include childhood, family and work experiences. However, attitudes and perceptions in themselves do not explain why people want to travel. The inner urges which initiate travel demand are called travel motivators. If one views the tourist as a consumer, then tourism demand is formulated through a consumer decision-making process, and therefore one can discern four elements which initiate demand:

Energisers of Demand

Factors that promote an individual to decide on a holiday;

Filterers of Demand

Which means that even though motivation may prevail, constraints on demand may exist in economic, sociological or psychological terms;

Affecters

Which are factors that may heighten or suppress the energisers that promote consumer interest or choice in tourism;

Roles

Where the family member involved in the purchase of holiday products and the arbiter of group decision-making on choice of destination, product, and the where, when and how of consumption.

These factors underpin the tourist's process of travel decision-making although it does not explain why people choose to travel.

THE MEASUREMENT OF TOURISM DEMAND: TOURISM STATISTICS

Ritchie argued that 'an important part of the maturing process for any science is the development or adaptation of consistent and well-tested measurement techniques and methodologies which are well-suited to the types of problems encountered in practice'. In this context, the measurement of tourists, tourism activity and the effects on the economy and society in different environments is crucial to the development of tourism as an established area of study within the confines of social science. Burkart and Medlik provide a useful insight into the development of measurements of tourism phenomena by governments during the 1960s and their subsequent development through to the late 1970s. While it is readily acknowledged by most tourism researchers that statistics are a necessary feature to provide data to enable researchers, managers, planners, decision-makers and public and private sector bodies to gauge the significance and impact of tourism on destination areas, Burkart and Medlik identify four principal reasons for statistical measurement in tourism:

- To evaluate the magnitude and significance of tourism to a destination area or region;
- To quantify the contribution to the economy or society, especially the effect on the balance of payments;
- To assist in the planning and development of tourism infrastructure and the effect of different volumes of tourists with specific needs;
- To assist in the evaluation and implementation of marketing and promotion activities where the tourism marketer requires information on the actual and potential markets and their characteristics.

Consequently, tourism statistics are essential to the measurement of the volume, scale, impact and value of tourism at different geographical scales from the global to the country level down to the individual destination. Yet an information gap exists between the types of statistics provided by organisations for and the needs of users. The compilation of tourism statistics provided by organisations associated with the measurement of tourism has established methods and processes to collect, collate and analyse tourism statistics (World Tourism Organisation, yet these have been understood by only a small number of researchers and practitioners. Thus this section attempts to demystify the apparent sophistication and complexity associated with the presentation of statistical indicators of tourism and their value to spatial analysis, since geographers have a strong quantified methods tradition, which is reflected in the use and reliance upon such indicators to understand spatial variations and patterns of tourism activity. All too often, undergraduate and many postgraduate texts assume a prior knowledge of

tourism statistics and they are only dealt with in a limited way by most tourism texts, and where such issues are raised they are usually discussed in over-technical texts aimed at a limited audience.

A commonly misunderstood feature which is associated with tourism statistics is that they are a complete and authoritative source of information (*i.e.*, they answer all the questions posed by the researcher). Other associated problems are that statistics are recent and relate to the previous year or season, implying that there is no time lag in their generation, analysis, presentation and dissemination to interested parties. In fact, most tourism statistics are ‘typically measurements of arrivals, trips, tourist nights and expenditure, and these often appear in total or split into categories such as business or leisure travel’. Furthermore, the majority of published tourism statistics are derived from sample surveys, with the results being weighted or statistically manipulated to derive a measure which is supposedly representative of the real-world situation. In reality, this often means that tourism statistics are subject to significant errors depending on the size of the sample. The statistical measurement of tourists is far from straightforward, and Latham identifies a number of distinctive and peculiar problems associated with the tourist population:

- Tourists are a transient and highly mobile population, making statistical sampling procedures difficult when trying to ensure statistical accuracy and rigour in methodological terms.
- Interviewing mobile populations such as tourists is often undertaken in a strange environment, typically at ports or points of departure or arrival where there is background noise which may influence responses.
- Other variables, such as the weather, may affect the responses.

Even where sampling and survey-related problems can be minimised, one has to treat tourism statistics with a degree of caution because of additional methodological issues that can affect the results.

For example, tourism research typically comprises:

- Pre-travel studies of tourists’ intended travel habits and likely choice of destination (intentional studies);
- Studies of tourists in transit to provide information on their actual behaviour and plans for the remainder of their holiday or journey (actual and intended studies);
- Studies of tourists at the destination or at specific tourist attractions and sites, to provide information on their actual behaviour, levels of satisfaction, impacts and future intentions (actual and intended studies);
- Post-travel studies of tourists on their return journey from their destination or on-site experience or once they have returned to their place of residence (post-travel measures).

In an ideal world, where resource constraints are not a limiting factor on the generation of statistics, each of the aforementioned approaches should be used to provide a broad spectrum of research information on tourism and tourist behaviour. In reality,

organisations and government agencies select a form of research which meets their own particular needs. In practice, most tourism statistics are generated with practical uses in mind and they may usually, though not exclusively, be categorised as follows:

- Measurement of tourist volume, enumerating arrivals, departures and the number of visits and stays;
- Expenditure-based surveys which quantify the value of tourist spending at the destination and during the journey;
- The characteristics and features of tourists to construct a profile of the different markets and segments visiting a destination.

However, before any tourism statistics can be derived, it is important to deal with the complex and thorny issue of defining the population - the tourist. Therefore, how does one define and differentiate between the terms *tourism* and *tourist*?

DEFINING TRAVEL AND TOURISM

The terms *travel* and *tourism* are often interchanged within the published literature on tourism, though they are normally meant to encompass 'the field of research on human and business activities associated with one or more aspects of the temporary movement of persons away from their immediate home communities and daily work environments for business, pleasure and personal reasons'. These two terms tend to be used in differing contexts to mean similar things, although there is a tendency for the United States to continue to use the term 'travel' when in fact they mean tourism. Despite this inherent problem which may be little more than an exercise in semantics, it is widely acknowledged that the two terms are used in isolation or in unison to 'describe' three concepts:

- The movement of people;
- A sector of the economy or an industry;
- A broad system of interacting relationships of people (including their need to travel outside their communities and services that attempt to respond to these needs by supplying products).

From this initial starting point, one can begin to explore some of the complex issues in arriving at a working definition of the terms *tourism* and *tourist*. In a historical context, Burkart and Medlik identify the historical development of the term *tourism*, noting the distinction between the endeavours of researchers to differentiate between the concept and technical definitions of tourism. The concept of tourism refers to the 'broad notional framework, which identifies the essential characteristics, and which distinguishes tourism from the similar, often related, but different phenomena'. In contrast, technical definitions have evolved through time as researchers modify and develop appropriate measures for statistical, legislative and operational reasons implying that there may be various technical definitions to meet particular purposes. However, the concept of tourism, and its identification for research purposes, is an important consideration in this instance for tourism statistics so that users are familiar with the context of their derivation.

While most tourism books, articles and monographs now assume either a standard definition or interpretation of the concept of tourism, which is usually influenced by the social scientists' perspective (*i.e.*, a geographical, economic, political, sociological approach or other disciplines), Burkart and Medlik's approach to the concept of tourism continues to offer a valid assessment of the situation where five main characteristics are associated with the concept.

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

Furthermore, Burkart and Medlik's definition of tourism as a concept is invaluable because it rightly recognises that much tourism is a leisure activity which involves a discretionary use of time and money, and recreation is often the main purpose for participation in tourism. But this is no reason for restricting the total concept in this way and the essential characteristics of tourism can best be interpreted to embrace a wider concept. All tourism includes some travel but not all travel is tourism, while the temporary and short-term nature of most tourist trips distinguishes it from migration. Therefore, from the broad interpretation of tourism, it is possible to consider the technical definitions of tourism for a further discussion, together with Medlik and Hall for a concise set of definitions).

TECHNICAL DEFINITIONS OF TOURISM

Technical definitions of tourism are commonly used by organisations seeking to define the population to be measured, and there are three principal features which normally have to be defined:

- Purpose of travel (*e.g.*, the type of traveller, be it business travel, holiday-makers, visits to friends and relatives or for other reasons).
- The time dimension involved in the tourism visit, which requires a minimum and a maximum period of time spent away from the home area and the time spent at the destination. In most cases, this would involve a minimum stay of more than 24 hours away from home and less than a year as a maximum.
- Those situations where tourists may or may not be included as tourists, such as cruise passengers, those tourists in transit at a particular point of embarkation/

departure and excursionists who stay less than 24 hours at a destination (*e.g.*, the European duty-free cross-channel day-trip market).

Among the most recent attempts to recommend appropriate definitions of tourism was the World Tourism Organisation (hereafter WTO) International Conference of Travel and Tourism in Ottawa in 1991 which reviewed, expanded and developed technical definitions, where tourism comprises ‘the activities of a person travelling outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited’, where ‘usual environment’ is intended to exclude trips within the areas of usual residence and also frequent and regular trips between the domicile and the workplace and other community trips of a routine character, where ‘less than a specified period of time’ is intended to exclude long-term migration, and ‘exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited’ is intended to exclude only migration for temporary work.

The following definitions were developed by the WTO:

- *International tourism:* Consists of inbound tourism.
- Visits to a country by non-residents and outbound tourism residents of a country visiting another country.
- *Internal tourism:* Residents of a country visiting their own country.
- *Domestic tourism:* Internal tourism plus inbound tourism (the tourism market of accommodation facilities and attractions within a country).
- *National tourism:* Internal tourism plus outbound tourism (the resident tourism market for travel agents and airlines).

In order to improve statistical collection and improve understanding of tourism, the United Nations (UN) and the WTO also recommended differentiating between visitors, tourists and excursionists (day trippers). The WTO recommended that an international tourist be defined as: ‘a visitor who travels to a country other than that in which he/she has his/her usual residence for at least one night but not more than one year, and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited’; and that an international excursionist (*e.g.*, cruise ship visitors) be defined as ‘a visitor residing in a country who travels the same day to a country other than which he/she has his/her usual environment for less than 24 hours without spending the night in the country visited and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited’.

Similar definitions were also developed for domestic tourists, with domestic tourists having a time limit of ‘not more than six months’. Interestingly, the inclusion of a same-day travel, ‘excursionist’ category in UN/WTO technical definitions of tourism makes the division between recreation and tourism even more arbitrary, and there is increasing international agreement that ‘tourism’ refers to all activities of visitors, including both overnight and same-day visitors. Given improvements in transport technology, same-day travel is becoming increasingly important to some countries, with the UN observing, ‘day visits are important to consumers and to many providers,

especially tourist attractions, transport operators and caterers'. Chadwick moves the definition of tourists a stage further by offering a typology of travellers (tourists) which highlights the distinction between tourists (travellers) and non-travellers (non-tourists) is distinctive because it highlights all sections of society which are involved in travel of some kind, but it also looks at the motivation to travel.

It is also useful because it illustrates where technical problems may occur in deciding which groups to include in tourism and which to exclude. From this classification of travellers, the distinction between international and domestic tourism needs to be made. Domestic tourism normally refers to tourists who travel from their normal domicile to other areas within a country. In contrast, international tourism normally involves a tourist leaving their country of origin to cross into another country which involves documentation, administrative formalities and movement to a foreign environment.

DOMESTIC TOURISM STATISTICS

D.G. Pearce acknowledges that the scale and volume of domestic tourism worldwide exceeds that of international tourism, though it is often viewed as the poorer partner in the compilation of statistics. For example, most domestic tourism statistics tend to underestimate the scale and volume of flows since certain aspects of domestic tourist movements are sometimes ignored in official sources. The 'visits to friends and relatives, the use of forms of accommodation other than hotels (for example, second homes, camp and caravan sites) and travel by large segments of a population from towns to the countryside are not for the most part included'. This is supported by the WTO, who argue that 'there are relatively few countries that collect domestic travel and tourism statistics. Moreover some countries rely exclusively on the traditional hotel sector, thereby leaving out of account the many travellers staying in supplementary accommodation establishments or with friends and relatives'.

Therefore, the collection of domestic tourism statistics requires the use of different data sources aside from the more traditional sources such as hotel records which identify the origin and duration of a visitor's stay. To assist in the identification of who to include as a domestic tourist, the WTO suggests the following working definition: 'any person, regardless of nationality, resident in a country and who travels to a place in the same country for not more than one year and whose main purpose of visit is other than following an occupation remunerated from within the place visited.' Such a definition includes domestic tourists where an overnight stay is involved and domestic excursionists who visit an area for less than 24 hours and do not stay overnight. In fact, Latham points to the variety of definitions which exist aside from those formulated by WTO and the following issues complicate matters further:

Purpose of Visit

All countries using this concept define a domestic tourist as one who travels for a purpose other than to perform a remunerated activity.

The Length of Trip and/or Distance Travelled

Certain definitions state that travellers should, for example, be involved in an overnight stay and/or travel a prescribed minimum distance.

Type of Accommodation

For practical reasons, some countries restrict the concept of domestic tourism to cover only those persons using commercial accommodation facilities. Problems in applying WTO definitions may also reflect an individual country's reasons for generating such statistics, which may not necessarily be to contribute to a better understanding of statistics *per se*.

For example, WTO identified four uses of domestic tourism statistics:

- To calculate the contribution of tourism to the country's economy, whereby estimates of tourism's value to the Gross Domestic Product is estimated due to the complexity of identifying the scope of tourism's contribution.
- To assist in the marketing and promotion of tourism, where government-sponsored tourism organisations seek to encourage its population to take domestic holidays rather than to travel overseas for a discussion of this activity among Pacific Rim countries).
- To aid the regional development policies of governments which harness tourism as a tool for area development where domestic tourists in congested environments are encouraged to travel to less developed areas and to improve the quality of tourism in different environments.
- To achieve social objectives, where socially oriented tourism policies may be developed for the underprivileged which requires a detailed understanding of the holiday-taking habits of a country's nationals.

Regional and local tourist organisations also make use of such data to develop and market destinations and different businesses within the tourism sector. But how is domestic tourism measured? Burkart and Medlik argue that two principal features need to be measured: first, the volume, value and characteristics of tourism among the population of the country; second, the same data relating to individual destinations within the country. The WTO considers the minimum data requirements for the collection of domestic tourism statistics in terms of arrivals and tourist nights in accommodation classified by:

- Month;
- Type of grade of accommodation establishment;
- Location of the accommodation establishment and overall expenditure on domestic tourism.

Latham argues that it is possible to generate additional data from such variables including length of stay, occupancy rate and average expenditure. Many countries also collate supplementary information beyond the minimum standards identified by WTO, where the socioeconomic characteristics of tourists are identified, together with their

use of tourist transport and purpose of visit, though the cost of such data collection does mean that the statistical basis of domestic tourism in many less developed countries remains poor. The methods used to generate domestic tourism statistics are normally based on the estimates of volume, value and scale derived from sample surveys due to the cost of undertaking large-scale surveys of tourist activities. The immediate problem facing the user of such material is the type of errors and degree of accuracy which can be attached to such data.

For example, Latham identifies the following sample surveys which are now used to supplement data derived from hotel records:

- *Household surveys*, where the residents of a country are interviewed in their own home to ascertain information of tourist trips for the purpose of pleasure. A useful example of a pan-European study is the EC Omnibus study. Even so, little progress has been made internationally to collate common data on household surveys since the OECD's attempt in 1967 to outline the types of data which national travel surveys should collect.
- *Destination surveys*, where high levels of tourist activity occur in a region or resort. Such studies frequently compile statistics on accommodation usage, sample surveys of visitors and may be linked to existing knowledge derived from household surveys.
- *En route surveys*, where tourists are surveyed en route to examine the characteristics and features of tourists. Although it is a convenient way to interview a captive audience depending upon the mode of transport used, the results may not necessarily be as representative without a complete knowledge of the transport flows for the mode of tourist transport being surveyed.

The problem of incomplete questionnaires or non-response may occur where such surveys require a respondent to post the form back to the surveyor for a review on the use of this survey type).

INTERNATIONAL TOURISM STATISTICS

The two principal organisations which collate data on international tourism are the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). In addition, international regional tourism organisations such as the Pacific Asia Travel Association and the ASEAN Tourism Working Group also collect international tourism statistics. Page reviews the major publications of the first two organisations in relation to international tourism, noting the detailed contents of each. In the case of the WTO, the main source is the *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics*, which contains a summary of the most salient tourism statistics for almost 150 countries and territories. In the case of the OECD, their *Tourism Policy and International Tourism* (referred to as the 'Blue Book') is less comprehensive, covering only 25 countries, but it does contain most of the main generating and receiving areas. While the main thrust of the publication is government policy and the obstacles to international tourism, it

does expand on certain areas not covered in the WTO publication. In contrast to domestic tourism, statistics on international tourism are normally collected to assess the impact of tourism on a country's balance of payments, though as Withyman argued:

Outward visitors seem to attract less attention from the pollsters and the enumerators. Of course, one country's outward visitor is another country's (perhaps several countries) inward visitor, and a much more welcome sort of visitor, too, being both a source of revenue and an emblem of the destination country's appeal in the international market. This has meant that governments have tended to be generally more keen to measure inward than outward tourism, or at any rate, having done so, to publish the results.

This statement indicates that governments are more concerned with the direct effect of tourism on their balance of payments. Yet such statistics are also utilised by marketing arms of national tourism organisations to base their decisions on who to target in international campaigns. The wider tourism industry also makes use of such data as part of their strategic planning and for more immediate purposes where niche markets exist. Even so, Shackleford argued that the collection of tourism statistics should be a responsibility of the state to meet international standards for data collection. However, it is increasingly the case that only when the economic benefits of data collection can be justified will national governments continue to compile tourism statistics. Where resource constraints exist, the collection and compilation of tourism statistics may be impeded. This also raises important methodological issues related to what exactly is being measured. As Withyman argued: 'In the jungle of international travel and tourism statistics, it behoves the explorer to step warily; on all sides there is luxuriant growth.'

Not all data sources are what they appear to be - after close scrutiny some show themselves to be inconsistent and often unsuitable for the industry researcher and planner.' The key point Withyman recognises is the lack of comparability in tourism data in relation to what is measured (*e.g.*, is it visitor days or visitor nights?) and the procedures and methodology used to measure international tourism. Frechtling concluded that the approaches taken by national and international agencies associated with international tourism statistics were converging towards common definitions of trip, travel and traveller. Yet the principal difficulty which continues to be associated with this is whether business travel should be considered as a discrete activity in relation to tourism. Chadwick notes that 'the consensus of North American opinion seems to be that, despite certain arguments to the contrary ... business travel should be considered part of travel and tourism'. While BarOn examines the standard definitions and terminology of international tourism as used by the UN and WTO, research by Ngoh is useful in that it considers the practical problems posed by such definitions when attempting to measure international tourism and find solutions to the difficulties.

Latham suggests that the main types of international tourism statistics collated relate to:

- Volume of tourists;
- Expenditure by tourists;
- The profile of the tourist and their trip characteristics.