Rights and Regulation of Travel and Tourism Mobility

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Despite substantial growth in international mobility as a result of technological, economic and political change national borders still constitute a significant barrier for tourism. Although in many countries people may believe that they have an intrinsic right to travel no such legal rights exist under international law, with the decisions and declarations of the World Tourism Organization only constituting a form of 'soft' international law in contrast to 'hard' international and domestic law. The paper argues that international migration and trade law, particularly the General Agreement of Trade in Services, are potentially the most significant with respect to the regulation of travel and tourism mobility along with some aspects of supranational law such as consumer rights. As a result the paper emphasises the importance of cognate policy domains, such as trade, migration and the environment, for understanding the regulation of tourism and travel, and their influence on tourism policy.
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Introduction

Even in a highly globalised world, borders still matter. As a recent dispute between the governments of New Zealand and Singapore demonstrates, the effects of rights and regulation can be subtle but powerful in shaping mobilities and, perhaps more importantly, non-mobilities. One reported trend has been for Asian bridal couples to visit New Zealand ahead of their marriage. Accompanied by a professional photographer, the purpose of this so-called 'wedding photo tourism' is to produce high quality images of the happy couple in exotic locations for their friends and relatives to see later at their ceremonies (Tan, 2009a, 2009b). Some photographers have been refused entry to New Zealand because they have not secured the correct rights to enter the country, resulting in a protest from the Singapore government not to say a number of disgruntled and disappointed customers. Technically, as the New Zealand border authorities have argued,

the photographers have been in New Zealand regularly for work purposes, not as leisure visitors. They tried to enter the country for vocation not vacation, and so they required a visa for their stays. Instead, like the couples they have been accompanying, they mostly entered on visitors' permits.

While there is no indication of the size of this niche, it is nevertheless emblematic of several larger sets of issues which this collection of papers starts to unpack and on which it seeks to encourage further critical debate and theoretical engagement in the future. Travel and tourism –or more correctly stated, rights to travel and tourism- are often taken for granted in the globalised world not only by individual travellers, but also by scholars. Contemporary modes of travel and tourism have emerged in the past quarter of a century which were perhaps unimaginable even during the heyday of modern mass tourism half a century ago (Hall, 2005a). New travel technologies have widened the spatial and temporal horizons of individuals so that it is relatively common to find people travelling to second homes overseas (Hall & Müller, 2004) or taking long-haul flights for their major holiday or to watch a sporting event or cultural spectacle (Adey et al., 2007; Coles 2008a; Gössling et al., 2009). Travel and tourism are entwined with other forms of socio-cultural behaviours like never before. Trips for health and medical reasons are routinely combined with leisure and recreation (Coles, 2008a; TRAM, 2006). Tourist shopping is no longer just about souvenirs of the exotic transferred into the everyday. Products and brands are experienced through travel to the full or for the first time in a potentially enduring relationship (Coles, 2004, 2008b; Timothy, 2005). The boundaries between tourism, migration and short-term mobilities are ever more fluid as the distinctions between types of movement have become increasingly blurred (Coles & Hall,

2006, 2008; Coles & Timothy, 2004; Gössling et al., 2009; Hall, 2005a, 2005b; Hall & Coles, 2008; Hall & Williams, 2002; Hughes & Allen, 2010; Williams & Hall, 2000; Winter, 2009).

Yet as wide as the range of new forms of travel and tourism may be and as powerful as new enabling technologies may have become, the possibilities are not infinite. Rights and regulation can shape the possibilities for travel and tourism (Hall & Coles, 2008); as importantly, they can also restrict them too (Hall, 2008). There are constraints and limits to travel and tourism as studies of time-space compression continue to demonstrate (Hall, 2005a). Markets are one means by which tourism consumption and mobilities can be modified. This is manifested in changes to economic conditions, including the current global recession (Barda & Sardianou, 2010; Boerjan & Vanhove, 1984; Hall, 2010; Prideaux, 1999). The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2010) estimates that international tourist arrivals fell by 4% in 2009. The resurgence of domestic tourism in the United Kingdom, as in many other countries affected by the recession, has been a result of a combination of factors including weaker currencies, employment uncertainty, and lower levels of disposable income. In the UK the emergence of the so-called 'staycation' (Grove, 2009) is evidence of the weakness of the Pound since 2008 (Walker, 2009), as is the return of many retired, second home owners from abroad who have seen the value of their pensions and other investments fall sharply (Ford, 2010). In the first half of 2009 trips abroad by UK residents fell 17% with their overall spend down by 18%. In markets in which the exchange rates had become relatively unfavourable the fall was even more pronounced. For example, the number of

Britons visiting North America dropped by 28%, with June 2009 visits totalling only 320,000 compared with 495,000 in June 2008 (Walker, 2009).

Time-space contractions in tourism mobilities are not merely a response to the recent economic downturn. The weakness of the Euro during the middle part of the last decade led many Germans to take trips, euphemistically, to 'Balkonia'; in other words they stayed at home and sat on their balconies rather than travel further afield (SD, 2007). Markets have also regulated production. Historically, high energy prices have gone hand-in-hand with periods of economic recession, and they have had a significant influence on business strategy (Hall, 2010; Henderson, 1999; Kontogeorgopoulos, 1999; Stanbury, Pryer, & Roberts, 2005; UNWTO, 2006; World Tourism Organization, 1988). Record oil prices in 2008 forced several airlines to collapse altogether, to suspend operations or to close routes. The failure of Sterling Airlines in October 2008, a low-fares airline based in Denmark which left 40,000 customers with worthless tickets, was just one of 24 in the previous six months (Wienberg & Brogger, 2009). While the repatriated were rendered temporarily immobile, perhaps more significantly residents of peripheral regions of Scandinavia became even more 'transport impoverished' to use the public affairs jargon of low-fares airlines.

Global economic conditions have by and large been characterised by growth since the oil crises of the 1970s and they have supported major growth in travel and tourism around the world (UNWTO, 2006). Neoliberal approaches to governance in which market conditions frame organizational and consumer behaviour may be increasingly prevalent (Harvey, 2005). The financial and economic crisis of 2008-10 is the latest phase in the evolution of financial markets under the radical deregulation process that

began in the late 1970s. This evolution has taken the form of cycles in which deregulation accompanied by rapid financial innovation stimulates powerful financial booms that end in crises (Crotty, 2009). In the case of tourism this crisis has been further affected by substantial economic dislocation in some countries, such as Greece and Iceland, in which tourism is seen as a potential solution to the crisis (Jóhannesson, 2010). Notwithstanding, as Hall (2010) notes, there is nevertheless surprisingly little discussion about the potential ways in which tourism may potentially contribute to financial and economic crisis in the form of either over-dependency on an insecure market and/or unsustainable government borrowing for investment in unproductive tourism infrastructure. Tourism may even lead to a net increase in the instability of export earnings and be a particular problem in small, open developing economies (Sinclair, 1990) where it could potentially worsen economic crises not ameliorate them (Hall, 2010). What's more, such readings of neoliberalism, by definition, start to call into question the role and ability of the state as a regulator for travel and tourism (Hall, 2008). In many respects this is quite understandable. Greenhouse gas emissions from aviation have, for instance, been under the full glare of the policy spotlight on global environmental change (Gössling et al., 2009). The origins of the debate lie in the proliferation of air transport with the progressive deregulation of the skies in the 1980s and 1990s, and the rise of so-called 'low cost' carriers (Groβ & Schröder, 2007). Concern among state governments about the rise of global emissions has, though, been matched by their relative inability to regulate against airlines because of the host of international treaties that make aviation a largely supranational policy concern (Duval, 2008).

One important area in which the state continues to play a significant role is as an arbiter of citizenship and hence as a mediator of entry and exit. Arguably, this role has been reinforced around the world since the events of 09/11. Enhanced security measures, new visa regimes, restrictions of cabin baggage and luggage contents are all measures demanded by state governments not just as responses to the perceived and actual threats of terrorism but also to notable biosecurity hazards such as the Swine Flu pandemic of 2009 (Hall, 2010). Glitzy policy announcements and detailed press scrutiny of such measures obscure the fundamental point that who we are and the passport we hold are key determinants in where and how we are able to travel (Coles, 2008b). As the dispute between Singapore and New Zealand makes clear, they also determine what we are able to do if and when we are allowed to enter. In effect, our rights to travel are connected to our citizenship(s).

Citizenship is another concept that has been largely taken for granted in studies of travel and tourism (Coles, 2008a, 2008c). Orthodox interpretations, especially those used in public policy, focus on the duality of rights and responsibilities bestowed on each citizen. Rights and responsibilities are both granted to, and expected by, social groups and citizen members. In exchange for discharging their responsibilities to a group, citizens have rights to conduct certain activities. The range and level of rights of a citizen is commensurate with status and responsibility in a group. This broad conceptualisation has been heavily contested and the subject of considerable debate (see Coles, 2008a, 2008c). One important strand of critique argues challenges the primacy and exclusivity of state-based models of citizenship. Instead citizenship groups have increasingly emerged that reflect contemporary social and cultural conditions in particular. For instance, types

of consumer-based citizenship groups have been identified (Isin & Wood, 1999). Nevertheless, the state-based view forms the basis for understanding most individual movements across territorial borders. At its simplest, without a passport or identity card, travel is not sanctioned. The nature of the passport or identity card determines what other permissions are necessary (such as visas, entry permits, fees) for entry or departure, or not as the case may be (Coles 2008a). As such, the complex geographies of regulation and rights of entry play significant roles in determining global patterns of travel and tourism.

Thus, the mosaic of regulatory agreements between states is deserving of far greater critical analysis, not least because of the fundamental importance of geopolitical conditions and important points of international law in mediating mobility. One subtle but highly important distinction is that in most states citizens have rights to travel and hence depart but they may not have rights to enter their proposed destination. Rights of travellers have been declared in some jurisdictions, although there is very little articulation of the rights of movement under international law. Although many nation-states have entered into bilateral and multilateral agreements that facilitate mobility between parties the prerogative to control entry remains with the nation-state (Hall, 2008a). Indeed, under international covenants, such as the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, the rights to enter another country do not exist. Even the advisory *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* only postulates a right of exit and entry to one's own country and freedom of mobility within a citizen's own country. Article 13 states:

> (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.
> (2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country (United Nations 1948).

Declarations of organizations such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) with respect to a *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism* or the *Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code*, carry little weight in international law and they are generally characterised as 'soft law' (Hall, 2008a, 2008b). Soft law refers to regulatory conduct that, because it is not provided for in a treaty, is not as binding as hard law, although the term is sometimes also applied to treaty law in which there are no enforceable sanctions for non-implementation. Soft law is often a precursor to hard law and may characterise emerging issues of international law where national rights and obligations remain contested as with a policy connected to heritage or the environment. Examples of soft law include recommendations or declarations that are made by international conferences or organisations. In contrast, 'hard' international law refers to firm and binding rules of law such as the content of treaties and the provisions of customary international law to which nations are bound as a matter of obligation.

Although both hard and soft international law are significant in policy terms, it is clearly easier to identify the extent to which national and supranational policies with respect to international and cross-border mobility are implemented when there is a clear set of obligations and operational definitions, as established under hard international law. Nevertheless, there is a pronounced lack of hard international law that specifically addresses 'tourism' or the 'tourist'. Table 1 indicates the extent to which the terms 'tourism' or 'tourist' are included under regional and international instruments of international migration law. As the table indicates, the terms are significant within the legal instruments of the European Union and, to a lesser extent, the African Union; however, at an international level they are extremely limited and represent only 5% of the

109 international and 318 instruments included in the International Organization for Migration's instrument database. In contrast, tourism is noted as a category in 18% of national legal instruments (Table 2) thereby indicating that far more attention is still given to migration mobility as well as the role of visas and travel documents as a means to control international movement.

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Arguably, the most significant piece of international law with respect to cross-border mobility for tourists is the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). In this the movement of natural persons constitutes one of the modes of supply for services (mode 4) which covers travel for business services and consumption abroad (mode 2) which covers travel for leisure, educational and health consumption (Hall & Coles, 2008). Interestingly, Kordvani (2006) argues that that the real barrier to the movement of persons is not created by states exercising their right to regulate cross-border mobility but rather by the administration of that right in an unreasonable, subjective and discriminatory manner which is inconsistent with article VI(1) (Domestic Regulation) of the GATS. Panizzon (2006) also provides another dimension to the interpretation and implementation of mode 4 liberalisation by suggesting that,

> …the non-violation nullification and impairment complaints may be used to consider the economic damage which occurs when human rights infringements impair upon GATS commitments, specifically in those cases where the WTO Members receiving services condition their mode 4 commitments to the respect for core labour standards. If the human right amounts to jus cogens or emanates from a human rights treaty to which both parties to a WTO dispute are Members, the human right itself forms the ground of a WTO violation complaint. In all other cases, it is not the human rights violation itself, but its effect that is the economic damage on the sending country's economy, which nullifies and impairs a trade benefit (Panizzon, 2006, p.1).

Given the lack of specific hard international law, the rights of travellers outside their normal jurisdiction have been mainly conferred in the area of consumer rights; in other words, as 'consumer citizens' they have rights that accompany their responsibilities

as visitors. Sometimes these pertain to their statutory rights and hence to the levels of service delivery they (like other consumers) may expect from tour operators, travel agents, accommodation providers and hospitality businesses (depending on how they arrange and organise their trips). For instance, British travellers are afforded protection variously through the Association of British Travel Agents (ABTA, 2009), the Air Travel Organisers' Licensing (ATOL) scheme (CAA, 2010a) and the wider activities of the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA, 2010b). Also, as the recent volcanic ash cloud crisis made clear, protection as consumer citizens can be provided by supranational bodies like the European Commission (EU, 2004). Its *Directive on Air Passenger Rights 261/04* has been the source of much debate and resentment among airlines, not least because of the additional costs they incurred in an already testing operating environment (Gabbatt, 2010) but also because they were concerned at the time about their potentially open-ended liabilities if the crises rumbled on. This directive grants passengers the right to care (in the form of refreshments, meals, and accommodation as appropriate) where their flights are delayed for a length of time (Paragraph 17) but the airlines pointed out that the same document limited their obligations or excused them altogether in 'extra-ordinary circumstances' including meteorological conditions (Paragraph 14)

Another area where the cross-border rights of travellers can appear restricted is with respect to biosecurity. Recent pandemics such as SARS and swine flu have witnessed the development of new health surveillance mechanisms so as to recognise potential carriers as well as to restrict movement (Henderson, 2003). In fact the classic response to biosecurity concerns is to contain movement and to restrict the carriage of potential vectors. For example, the domestic response to the 2001 Foot and Mouth

Disease crisis in the UK was to restrict access to large areas of the countryside, while the international response included close monitoring and surveillance of travellers who had been to the UK, as well as on any foodstuffs they were carrying (Sharpley & Craven, 2001). Growing awareness over the economic impact of diseases and pests introduced by tourism and international trade as well as associated loss of indigenous biodiversity means that biosecurity concerns are only likely to increase in the future (Pimentel et al., 2005).

An Introduction to the Theme Issue

The purpose of this theme issue is to argue that a fuller understanding of travel and tourism mobilities is only possible through a deeper consideration of rights and political regulation. Moreover, public policy in the area of travel and tourism mobilities would benefit from a more nuanced understanding of how rights and regulation play out.

Policy studies in tourism and leisure studies are by and large under-developed compared to other sectors (Hall, 2008b) and this journal seeks to encourage more critical dialogue in this regard. Too often, policy and planning are conflated, with greater emphasis on planning than policy. In order to develop a fuller understanding of how rights and regulation mediate mobilities, wider scans of the policy landscape are going to be necessary. Moreover, such scans should be able to detect rights and regulations that are directly intended to shape mobilities, as well as those that arbitrate mobilities but which were perhaps intended to yield other outcomes first and foremost.

Scans must extend beyond literal understandings of travel and tourism. Rights and regulation are not shaped solely by the state apparatus connected to travel or tourism (Hall, 2008a). Instead, scans must reflect the way in which tourism, mobility and

migration are entwined with other aspects of social and cultural life, sometimes leading to conflicting and contradictory aspirations. For example, as in many developed countries, education is recognised and encouraged as a major export sector in the United Kingdom in current economic policy (UUK 2009). Overseas students provide an important stimulus to the economy through the injection of their tuition fees and living expenses before they return home (Oxford Economics, 2010). Recent immigration policy has, though, attempted to regulate further the rights of foreign students to reside and work in UK, not least by introducing a series of contact points to measure attendance (UKBA 2010). Despite the apparent importance of temporary overseas visitors for this particular purpose, this form of short-term mobility does not feature in dedicated state policy to encourage travel and tourism. Put another way, other policy domains –in this case, immigration- serve to moderate specialised travel and tourism markets.

Thus, policy studies of tourism and leisure need to progress beyond the destination. National and supra-national policy and regulation are clearly important considerations; so too is an individual's understanding of rights and responsibilities. The traditional focus on the destination is understandable from literal, behaviouralist perspectives of tourism and the tourist. After all, destinations are the places travellers visit, it is helpful to understand why they are drawn there, and the impacts of visitation for adjacent communities and environments have to be managed. This approach emphasises the role of the destination as an attractor drawing in visitors and it assumes that visitors are indeed able to travel in order to consume the destination. As we have noted above, rights and regulation of mobility determine the potential set of locations which may be visited. Thus, far more than a reworking of debates about 'push and pull'

factors driving the precise selection of destinations and activities during a trip, rights and regulation act as an essential qualification stage before further travel decisions may even be contemplated.

The papers in this collection signify the importance of these issues and the need for more nuanced approaches. Michael Janoschka focuses on some of the more medium-term outcomes of deregulation and the resulting enhancement to individual mobilities. The rise of second home ownership is well-documented (Hall & Müller, 2004) but more recently the subject has slipped somewhat down the academic agenda. Since the rush to acquire second-homes in typical destinations such as Spain, France, Portugal and some of the eastern European countries, Janoschka's paper suggests that a new social order has been established. Earlier work predicted that widespread second home ownership would create distinctive social relations between host communities and the second home owners, and within them (cf. Hall & Müller, 2004). This paper reveals that after some of time of normalized activity as temporary residents in Spain, 'senior residents in lifestyle communities' –as he describes them- have become more politically active, in particular in the realms of urban development and the 'symbolic appropriations of space and place'. As a distinctive citizenship group, second home owners have rights not just in their home countries but also where their second homes are located. In this study, the way in which mobility is experienced is, in turn, mediated by the nature of their rights to participate in political processes. One of the principal findings of the paper is that an array of mainly foreign senior residents established a protest movement against local and regional authorities.

In her contribution, Constantia Anastasiadou focuses on the spatial scales through which regulation is enacted and played out. Through an extensive meta-survey of secondary data, she explores a series of micro-regional and regional arrangements among states that are intended to enhance mobility by apparently stripping away the barriers to movement across borders. While it may be tempting to conceptualise deregulation in general terms, her work demonstrates that are some quite considerable variations in the types of arrangements made between partners to reduce the strictures of regulation. Her conclusions are generally quite positive but with some important qualifications. In her view there are several regional integration schemes that contribute enhanced opportunities for mobility. Some of these schemes would appear, however, not to operate quite as they were anticipated, some measures can be mutually contradictory, and new asymmetries of mobilities result. Her paper also points to the unfolding nature of many of these arrangements, often over protracted periods, and the need to keep reviewing their importance over time.

Finally, Hall examines how biosecurity is increasingly affecting the regulation of mobility at international and national scales. Tourism is recognised as a significant contributor to the movement of biological material that is potentially harmful for biodiversity conservation. While a number of countries have signed up to the biodiversity convention, implementation of biosecurity protocols is weak. Furthermore, he highlights the broader tensions that exist between international legal arrangements for biosecurity and biodiversity conservation and international trade law. He argues that these tensions are also symptomatic of the broader issues that surround the relative restrictions and freedoms the mobilities of international tourism.

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Table 1. Recognition of tourism and the tourist in regional and international instruments of international migration law

Body	Title	Date of Adoption	Legal-Status
United Nations	Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (UN General Assembly Resolution 54/263)	25/05/2000	Binding
Andean Community	Decisión 504 Creación del Pasaporte Andino	27/06/2005	Binding
AC	Decisión 603 Participación de la República Bolivariana de Venezuela en la Decisión 503	06/12/2004	Binding
AC	Decisión 583 Sustitución de la Decisión 546, Instrumento Andino de Seguridad Social	07/05/2004	Binding
AC	Decisión 545 Instrumento Andino de Migración Laboral	25/06/2003	Binding
AC	Decisión 526 Ventanillas de entrada en aeropuertos para nacionales y extranjeros residentes en los Países Miembros	07/07/2002	Binding
AC	Resolución 527 Modificación del Contenido y Formato de la Tarjeta Andina de Migración (TAM)	11/07/2001	Binding
AC	Decisión 503 Reconocimiento de documentos nacionales de identificación	22/06/2001	Binding
African Union	The Constitutive Act of the African Union	11/07/2000	Binding
AU	Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community (Abuja, Nigeria, 3 June 1991)	03/06/1991	Binding
European Union	Regulation (EC) No 562/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 March 2006 establishing a Community Code on the rules governing the movement of persons across borders (Schengen Borders Code)	15/03/2006	Binding
EU	Council Common Position 2006/276/CFSP of 10 April 2006 concerning restrictive measures against certain officials of Belarus and repealing Common Position 2004/661/CFSP	10/04/2006	Binding
EU	Commission Decision of 6 September 2005 on the adequate protection of personal data contained in the Passenger Name Record of air passengers transferred to the Canada Border Services Agency (2006/253/EC)	06/09/2005	Binding
EU	Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and social Committee and the Committee of the Regions – Study on the links between legal and illegal migration (COM(2004) 412 final)	04/06/2004	Non-binding
EU	Proposal for a Council Regulation establishing a Community Code on the rules governing the movement of persons across borders (COM (2004) 391 final)	26/05/2004	Non-binding
EU	Council Decision of 8 March 2004 concerning the conclusion of the Memorandum of Understanding between the European Community and the National Tourism Administration of the People's Republic of China on visa and related issues concerning tourist groups from the People's Republic of China (ADS) (2004/265/EC)	08/03/2004	Binding

EU	Memorandum of Understanding between the European Community and the National Tourism Administration of the People's Republic of China, on visa and related issues concerning tourist groups from the People's Republic of China (ADS)	12/02/2004	Binding
EU	Council framework Decision 2004/68/JHA of 22 December 2003 on combating the sexual exploitation of children and child pornography	22/12/2003	Binding
EU	Euro-Mediterranean Agreement establishing an Association between the European Community and its Member States, of the one part, and the Republic of Lebanon, of the other part	16/06/2002	Binding
EU	Accord entre la Confédération suisse, d'une part, et la Communauté européenne et ses Etats membres, d'autre part, sur la libre circulation des personnes	21/06/1999	Binding
EU	The Schengen acquis as referred to in Article 1(2) of Council Decision 1999/435/EC of 20 May 1999	20/5/1999	Binding
EU	Common Manual (2002/C 313/02)	28/04/1999	Binding
EU	Common consular instructions on visas for the diplomatic missions and consular posts (2005/C 326/01) – Introduction - Annex 12	28/04/1999	Binding
Council of Europe*	European Convention on Establishment (Paris, 13.XII.1955)	13/12/1955	Binding

* Referred to traveller rather than tourist, entered into force 23/02/1965.
Source: Derived from International Organization for Migration (2006).

Table 2 Categories in National Legal Instruments Related to Migration

Country	Tourists	Students, Trainees	Temporary Labour Migration	Bilateral Labour Agreements	Visa	Travel Documents	Biometrics
Albania	1		1		1	1	
Algeria		4	6	8	8	8	
Angola	1	2	1		1	1	
Australia	5	11	10	8	13	12	2
Austria	2	4	10	3	10	7	2
Azerbaijan	1		5		6	7	
Bahrain					7	8	
Belgium		15	8	4	2	10	1
Belize		2	6		4	6	
Benin		4	5		3	4	
Bosnia & Herzegovina					1		
Botswana						1	
Bulgaria		1	2				
Burundi			1				
Burkina Faso		1	1	1	2	4	
Cameroon	1	3	1	1	4	3	
Canada		16	8		2	2	
Cape Verde		1	1		1	1	
Central African Republic		1	1	1	1	1	
China	1				1		
Congo		1	1	1	1	1	
Costa Rica	1	2	2		1	2	
Côte d'Ivoire		1		1	2	1	
Croatia	1	1	1		3	3	
Democratic Republic of Congo		1			2	3	
Denmark	2	1	2		2	2	
Dominican Republic	1	1					
Ecuador					7	8	1
Egypt			4		2	6	
El Salvador			1		2	2	
Finland		1	2		2	2	
France		18	21	21	18	17	1
Gabon	1		1		2	3	
Germany	4	7	10	1	12	6	1
Ghana			1				
Guatemala	1	1					
Honduras	2	1					
Iceland		1	1		2	2	2
India	1	5	3	1	10	9	
Ireland			1		1	2	
Italy	3	5	5	2	8	6	
Jordan		9	11		11	53	
Kazakhstan	1				1	2	
Kuwait		2	47		18	22	
Lebanon			4		5	9	
Libyan Arab			6		3	3	

Jamahiriya							
Lithuania		1					
Luxembourg		2	3		1	6	
Malaysia	3	8	12	1		2	1
Mali	1	2	1	1	3	4	
Malta	1		2				
Mauritania		2	1	1	1	1	
Morocco			2	1	1	1	
Nepal	3	1	10		3	4	
New Zealand	1	2	2				
Niger		1	1	1	3	3	
Panama	1	1					
Philippines	7	25	21	2	15	13	
Portugal		2	2	3	1		1
Qatar			1		7	6	
Republic of Moldova	6	2	2		9	2	
Russian Federation				2			
Senegal		1	1	1	2	2	
Serbia	2	1	1		1	2	
Sierra Leone			2		2	2	
Singapore	2	1			2	2	
Slovakia		3	3		1	2	
Spain			3	2	5	6	
Switzerland	6	8	19	8	20	11	3
Syrian Arab Republic					2	1	
The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia						1	
Togo		2	1	1	3	2	
Tunisia			3	3	5	5	
Turkey		1		1		4	1
Ukraine	2			1		3	
United Arab Emirates		1	4		3	8	
UK	1	4	2	2		1	2
USA	6	8	15	2	37	22	6
Uzbekistan				1			
Zambia		1				1	
Zimbabwe	1	1				1	
Total	73	204	307	91	310	318	27