Journal of Tourism Futures

Political ideas and developments in future tourism
Guest Editors: Craig Webster & Stanislav Ivanov

Guest editorial
Craig Webster & Stanislav Ivanov
Political ideologies as shapers of future tourism development
Craig Webster & Stanislav Ivanov

The independence referendum in Scotland: a tourism perspective on different political options
Brian Hay
New opportunities for future tourism after 25 years of political and socioeconomic transformation – foresight in Poland’s tourism planning
Matylda Awedyk & Agnieszka Niezgoda
The geopolitics of future tourism development in an expanding EU
Peter Antony Singleton
Ethno-nationalism and impediments to cooperation in tourism in a post-settlement Cyprus?
Craig Webster, David Jacobson & Kelsey Shapiro
Keeping it pure – a pedagogical case study of teaching soft systems methodology in scenario and policy analysis
Ian Yeoman, Una McMahon-Beattie & Carol Wheatley

Other papers
Inciting tourist accommodation managers to make their establishments accessible to people with disabilities
Virginie Capitaine
Conference report - The future of tourism education and transformational learning
Marion Joppe
Book review - Volunteer Tourism – Popular Humanitarianism in Neoliberal Times
Alexander Grit


Published by:
Stenden
etf
Emerald

The European Tourism Futures Institute is part-financed by the European Union, European Regional Development Fund and the Northern Netherlands Provinces (SNN), the provinces of Friesland, Drenthe and the municipalities of Leeuwarden and Emmen.

www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com

etfi.eu/jtf
Table of contents

Political ideas and developments in future tourism  
Guest Editors: Craig Webster and Stanislav Ivanov

Feature articles

Political ideologies as shapers of future tourism development  
Craig Webster and Stanislav Ivanov  
109

The independence referendum in Scotland: a tourism perspective  
on different political options  
Brian Hay  
125

New opportunities for future tourism after 25 years of political and  
socioeconomic transformation – foresight in Poland’s tourism planning  
Matylda Awedyk and Agnieszka Niezgoda  
137

The geopolitics of future tourism development in an expanding EU  
Peter Antony Singleton  
155

Ethno-nationalism and impediments to cooperation in tourism in a  
post-settlement Cyprus?  
Craig Webster, David Jacobson and Kelsey Shapiro  
165

Keeping it pure – a pedagogical case study of teaching soft systems methodology in scenario and policy analysis  
Ian Yeoman, Una McMahon-Beattie and Carol Wheatley  
175

Other paper

Inciting tourist accommodation managers to make their establishments accessible to people with disabilities  
Virginie Capitaine  
196
Welcome to “Political Ideas and Developments in Future Tourism,” a special issue of the Journal of Tourism Futures. The concept upon which this edition of the journal rests is that political ideas will play a role in tourism in the future. This is an interesting and timely topic, as we see in general that politics and political ideas are being taken increasingly seriously in the tourism literature.

We feel that the topic is critical to be written about, as we find it hard to differentiate between the economic and the political, as they are often intertwined and nearly indistinguishable. For example, it is hard to distinguish whether a concept such as “free trade” is a political construct or an economic one. We also think that political changes, as well as economic development will have an impact on tourism in the future. So while a concentration of capital in developed countries and the expansion of China as an economy are economic events or developments, reactions to these events or developments are likely to be political or at least based on political ideas, such as that wealth should be shared equally or that nations are important. Ideas are important because they allow us to conceptualize the reality around us and political ideas are linked with entire frameworks that inform policy, policy that can and will have an impact on the tourism industry.

In the article “Political ideologies as shapers of future tourism development” Craig Webster and Stanislav Ivanov investigate something that is not frequently mentioned in tourism research: political ideologies. The authors outline the major political ideologies and then illustrate the relationships between the prevailing political ideologies that exist and their relationship with tourism. The authors then look into how the ideologies have played a role in terms of informing tourism development in the past in various countries/regions (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Scandinavia, Russia, USA, China, Japan, Indonesia, North Korea), showing that political ideas have played a role in terms of guiding political forces in terms of how they respond to the challenges of tourism. The authors also elaborate on how political ideas will likely play a role in shaping tourism in the future.

“The independence referendum in Scotland: A tourism perspective on different political options” by Brian Hay deals with a more simple political idea, nationalism. While most mainstream social scientists view nationalism as something that evolved following the French Revolution, the idea is a political idea that is not necessarily linked with deeper political systems of thought (political ideologies) although some argue that nationalism is an ideology. The political idea of an independent Scotland and a referendum on it is something that is political but has deep implications for tourism in Scotland. In this piece, the author analyses the tourism implications of the Scottish secessionist movement. With the rise of secessionist concepts in Western countries, this is a timely and important topic.

In “New opportunities for future tourism after 25 years of political and socioeconomic transformation – foresight in Poland’s tourism planning” Matylda Awedyk and Agnieszka Niezgoda discuss the Polish experience with tourism planning. The authors investigate the political changes that occurred in Poland in 1989 and how these led to a change in the ways that the authorities have looked into the political process of tourism planning. The authors give insight into how a major political change led to substantial changes in the way that political authorities conceptualize the role of tourism in the economy and society.

A different take on political ideas and future tourism is found in “The Geopolitics of Future Tourism Development in an Expanding E.U.” In this piece, Peter Singleton observes that the political idea of the European Union and its expansion plays a positive role in terms of expanding the tourism potential of member states of the European Union. The author stresses that the political idea of
the European Union and its investment in infrastructure and association with peace have led to a positive environment in which the tourism industry can develop.

In “Ethno-nationalism and Impediments to Cooperation in Tourism in a Post-Settlement Cyprus,” Craig Webster, David Jacobson and Kelsey Shapiro look into the long-standing political and ethnic division of Cyprus. The research is based on a field study to learn about the attitudes of Cypriots toward cooperation with other Cypriots in the tourism industry in a Cyprus with a political solution. The research shows how Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots in the hospitality industry view the future of the hospitality industry in Cyprus following a political solution. In this piece there is more than a little bit of politics, as ethno-nationalism has split the country for decades and the thought of a political solution and the results for the tourism industry are important.

Ian Yeoman, Una McMahon-Beattie, and Carol Wheatley’s “Keeping it Pure – A Pedagogical Case Study of Teaching Soft Systems Methodology in Scenario and Policy Analysis” is a very different article, explaining how a pedagogical approach can be implemented. It is political, as it relates to tourism planning and the political forces in the process of planning. What is interesting about this piece is that it illustrates how a different methodology can be implemented in the classroom to incorporate political actors in the planning process of tourism.

All in all, this special edition offers a great deal to readers, introducing them to the role of political ideas in future tourism. For some of the authors, the political ideas that they explore are sophisticated systems of thought (ideologies) but for some, the political ideas are simple concepts such as ethno-nationalism or the value judgment of what role the state should play in the tourism planning process. We hope that this edition is helpful and useful to many who read it, as it shows that tourism is influenced by political ideas, whether the political ideas are as superficial as ethno-nationalism, as deep and sophisticated as Marxism or liberalism, or as pragmatic and technocratic as the expansion process of the European Union. We hope that the idea that politics will play an essential and enduring role in tourism development will be appreciated by readers and cause them to reflect upon the role of political ideas as well as political actors in tourism and not just treat tourism as an economic thing that is influenced by rational business decisions divorced from value judgments that are and always have been political in nature.
Political ideologies as shapers of future tourism development

Craig Webster and Stanislav Ivanov

Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to identify the link between political ideology and the management of tourism in countries. The authors stipulate that the predominant political ideology in the country influences the nature and logic of state interventions in the tourism industry.

Design/methodology/approach – The paper elaborates several case studies from various countries – Bulgaria, Cyprus, Scandinavia, Russia, USA, China, Japan, Indonesia, and North Korea.

Findings – Countries with predominant (neo)liberal ideology do not typically interfere in tourism regulation, while nationalism leads governments to stimulate inbound and domestic tourism. Communist ideological approaches tend to be burdensome, inhibiting growth while stressing the promotion of the socialist achievements of a country. Countries that are traditionally thought of as social democratic have been evolving in recent years to regulate tourism in ways that are more liberal in nature than social democratic.

Practical implications – Political ideologies shape the acceptability of government support for private tourist companies, legislation in field of tourism, limitation/stimulation of inbound/outbound tourist flows. For the future the authors expect greater politicisation of tourism, active tourism "wars" between countries, greater control of governments on populations, thriving nationalism, "aggressive" environmentalism.

Originality/value – This is one of the first papers to discuss the impact of the political ideology on the management of tourism at the national level.

Keywords Politics, Tourism policy, Macro environment, Political ideologies

Paper type Viewpoint

Introduction

This paper analyses the impact of political ideas and systems of thinking on tourism in the future. The main premise of the work is that political and economic institutions are created first in the minds of people and that the institutions are a reflection of values and assumptions regarding the nature of humans and the nature of political and economic reality. There is a continuing interest in academic circles in the role of ideas on political outcomes and institutions (see, e.g. Campbell, 1998, 2002; Lowndes and Roberts, 2013), although this is rarely looked into in the field of tourism, with some exceptions (such as, Britton, 1982, 1991; Hall, 2004; Jeffries, 2001; Desforges, 2000; Stevenson et al., 2008). Therefore, we seek to look into how the mindsets of people lead to specific sets of economic and political organisation for tourism currently and look at trends to determine whether the trajectory is sustainable or it appears that certain events/developments may derail the trajectory.

The key concept that needs to be defined for this investigation is the idea of "ideology". There is a continuing controversy regarding the definition and meaning of "ideology" (Sargent, 1996, p. 3), so this sort of investigation becomes especially difficult, as it is premised upon a concept that is by its very nature controversial. There are other related concepts as "theory" and "philosophy" that will be used in this work as well that also defy a global/universal agreement regarding their definition. At any rate, there is a voluminous literature dealing with political
thought, whether labelled as “philosophy”, “theory”, or “ideology” (see, e.g. Freeden, 2003; Heywood, 2012, 2015; Kymlicka, 2001; Schwarzmantel, 2008; Vincent, 2009; Wolff, 2006; Zizek, 1989). However, for our purposes, we use “ideology” and “philosophy” as pertaining to systems of thought that are generally internally consistent and pertain to an understanding of the interrelationships between state, market, and society.

To begin with, this work will not look particularly at ideologies of political economy, as this has been done elsewhere (e.g. Webster and Ivanov, 2012; Webster et al., 2011). Although the theoretical perspectives on political economy are related to the theoretical perspectives on politics, the thinking systems are also separate and can be understood separately. As political ideologies deal with the central concepts of how to organise a society to make them consistent with human nature and human needs, political economy ideologies deal with a somewhat more narrow focus, on how to organise an economy. Although the two are related, they can be considered and will be considered here in a broader way than merely looking into the prescriptive approach of various frameworks of political economy.

In addition, the intent of this piece is not to look into how tourism changed countries, bring foreign ideas into countries and causing social and political change. While tourism may bring people into foreign locations, enabling the spread of new ideas, whether the new ideas are quite directly political and forcing political change or more social in nature, changing the way that people live their lives, this is not the central point of this piece. Instead, the intention of this paper is to look at ways in which the prevailing systems of thought of elites and the institutions that have been forged by such prevailing systems of thought have played a role in terms of state approaches towards tourism.

In this piece, we first delineate the various political ideologies that exist and are available to political leaders. To do this, we delve into how political theorists delineate and isolate the various political ideologies that currently exist. Here, we investigate the major political ideologies and look at how they view the role of tourism. We then explore how ideologies of politics have been incorporated into the politics of tourism in various countries, with case studies from a number of countries. We then assess how these ideologies will likely impact upon tourism throughout the world. Finally, we conclude making projections of how political thinking will impact upon tourism in the future and noting how future research can look into the impact of ideology on tourism in the future.

The ideologies of politics and tourism

To begin the investigation, we have to examine the various ideologies that currently exist and characterize how various theorists delineate political ideologies. To begin with, we look into how a few influential works have identified types of ideologies. Table I illustrates the language and categorisations with which several leading authors on political theory have isolated specific ways of thinking.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservatism</td>
<td>Traditional conservatism</td>
<td>Contemporary conservatism</td>
<td>Conservatism</td>
<td>Conservatism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberalism</td>
<td>Classical liberalism</td>
<td>Contemporary liberal</td>
<td>Democratic liberal</td>
<td>Liberalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>Anarchism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marxism</td>
<td>Marxism</td>
<td>Marxism</td>
<td>Communism</td>
<td>Socialism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascism/national socialism</td>
<td>Fascism and nazism</td>
<td>Fascism and national socialism</td>
<td>Fascism/nazism</td>
<td>Fascism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmentalism</td>
<td>Environmentalism</td>
<td>Environmentalism</td>
<td>Nationalism</td>
<td>Nationalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminism</td>
<td>Feminism</td>
<td>Feminism</td>
<td>Feminism</td>
<td>Feminism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third World ideologies</td>
<td>Liberation theology</td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>Islam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ideologies referred to</td>
<td>Liberation theology</td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>Islam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is most noteworthy is that there are notable overlaps in terms of the language and concepts between the various authors. For example, while all the authors have mentioned conservatism as an ideology, those who are not particularly in the field of the study of political theory would likely find it hard to imagine that conservatism is a system of thought and could be thought of as an ideology. What is also noteworthy is the recurrence of anarchism as a concept, while the language of the ideology seems to be remarkable stable between these authors.

A further interesting issue is the delineation of environmentalism as an ideology. While many of us who do not study political theory as a profession would be rather surprised to think of environmentalism (or “ecologism”) as a political ideology, it seems that those who do think of political theory as a profession do think of it as a separate system of thinking from other ideologies. Surely, some aspects of environmentalism/ecologism have filtered into all sorts of political parties that are affiliated with other ideologies; however, we see that those who deal with political theory think of it as a separate category.

With this overview of the ideologies and the conceptualisation of different closed systems of thought, we see that there is not only considerable overlap and similarity in language but there is also a great deal of diversity in the other ideologies referred to. While there is considerable attention given to the five leading ideologies, even while the language is very similar from author to author, the “other” category shows a great deal of diversity. What is also noteworthy is that the category “Marxism” for all the authors is treated as non-monolithic, obviously making it a difficult thing to deal with, as Marxism encompasses all sorts of varieties. What is especially interesting is that Vincent (2009) treats “Marxism” and “socialism” as virtual synonyms, something that many other authors would disagree with.

The “other” category, a catchall term for those ideologies that seem not to fit neatly into the prevailing categories is especially interesting as it is where the interesting ideologies of the future may be found. While it has been noted that the prevailing ideologies in the world are all Western in origin (Huntington, 2011), these authors suggest a foreshadowing of the rise of ideologies that are non-Western in nature. Indeed, such movements as Ba’athism and Kemalism are arguably political theories, if not self-contained ideologies, neither of which has a particularly Western genesis.

While the major political philosophies seem to show that there are a multitude of various ways of thinking about how to organise a society, two leading books in Comparative Politics (O’Neil, 2012; Draper and Ramsay, 2012) isolate fewer of them. O’Neil (2012) distils the major ideologies into communism, social democracy, liberalism, fascism, and anarchism. Draper and Ramsay (2012) deal only with social democracy, “extreme market democracy”, Christian democracy, and communism. While noting the multitude of ideologies and variations of ideologies that exist, it is necessary to limit the discussion to the prevailing ideologies that have stood the test of time, for the purpose of this investigation.

One brief comment that should be made is that ideologies seem to reflect a particular purpose, as Macridis (1986, p. 13) notes. They are either status quo, revolutionary, or reformist systems of thinking about reality. These labels mean that the ideologies imply that there is either something worthwhile in the status quo and seeks to reinforce and preserve the status quo or seeks either radical changes or gradual changes to make a better order. What is intriguing about this notion is that it implies that ideologies are not neutral but are partisan players, seeking either to preserve or change the current economic, political, and social order.

In terms of assessing the major current ideologies and what they say about tourism, many things can be said, as Table II illustrates. To begin, because the role of the state in liberal and anarchist ideologies remains minimal in scope, there is very little room for the state. Thus for these ideologies, the role of the state is minimal based upon the perception of the desirability or importance of the state. While liberals view the state as a necessary evil, anarchists simply view it as an evil that acts as an impediment to human freedom. From this very basic standpoint on the state, the state cannot really be an attractive vehicle to supply or support tourism. However, the nature and logic of how tourism is appreciated in both these systems of thought, is a bit different, as liberalism views leisure and tourism as things that are consumed and purchased through a market mechanism by individuals. Anarchists, on the other hand would stress the communal aspects of tourism and leisure. The differences between liberal and anarchist thinking are critical
in terms of understanding the role of tourism in a society. From a liberal perspective, tourism is not particularly important in a society, apart from the role that it may play in the economy. In addition, a liberal perspective would stress the market in its ability to provide tourism opportunities.

Opposed to this is an anarchist’s viewpoint that tourism is important, as it would be reflective of social values of leisure and social interaction, although it would be understood that much of this would be supplied by a society, rather than a market.

The other ideologies all have a more state-based approach towards tourism. While the communist approach envisions a post-socialist future that will be very similar to the utopia envisioned by anarchists, the pathway to that utopia for communists consists of stages in which the state plays a critical role in the supply of many things in the society. Communist, socialdemocratic, and fascist approaches all envision the state as being deeply involved in tourism for various different reasons. From a communist approach, tourism is envisioned as an entitlement of the working class, something that implies that the state should work in ways to ensure that there is adequate provision of this for all, but especially the working class. Much of the same would be expressed by social democratic thinking, as they are from the same Marxist roots. However, social democratic thinking enables the market to also be involved in the provision of leisure and tourism opportunities for all. What is intriguing is that the fascist approach uses much of the same mixture of market and state forces to provide tourism. This is no coincidence, as fascist thinking is always in a competitive situation with socialist thinking to achieve the loyalty of the working class.

In total, what we see is that there are very different ways at looking at tourism from the perspective of different ideologies. What we particularly notice is that the role of the state in the regulation and provision of tourism varies a great deal by the political ideology adhered to. We see that state provision and regulation of tourism is particularly acute in fascist and communist mindsets, while there is some involvement in this in social democratic approaches. What is also noteworthy is that liberal and social democratic approaches put significant stress upon the importance of market forces.

In terms of the current global paradigm of politics, we see that liberalism or neo-liberalism has been in a position of dominance in recent decades. Liberal institutions such as the WTO, IMF, and World Bank have generally championed liberal models of economic development. What is interesting is that this continual expansion globally upon the insistence on the market playing a key role in society has been increasingly widespread. However, ideologies of populations and segments of populations within countries have had a slightly different influence upon the practice and provision of tourism in many countries. Now, we turn to case studies to look at how these ideologies have either conformed to the liberal global consensus or resisted the global consensus regarding liberalism and make projections about the trajectory of liberal ideas regarding the practice and provision of tourism and alternative visions that come from opposed ideologies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table II</th>
<th>Major political ideologies and tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideology</td>
<td>Role of the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberalism</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communism</td>
<td>Provision of tourism and leisure of time during dictatorship of the proletariat, no role after socialist phase is past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social democracy</td>
<td>Provision of legal framework to ensure leisure and tourism opportunities, state regulation to ensure leisure and tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascism/ National Socialism</td>
<td>Provision of legal framework to ensure leisure and tourism opportunities, state/party intervention to ensure leisure and tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Case studies: ideological influences on tourism and tourism management

In this section we discuss the influence of political ideologies on tourism in several countries.

**Bulgaria**

Until 1989 Bulgaria was part of the Soviet bloc. The strong grip of communist ideology put its mark onto tourism and tourism management. First of all, all tourist companies were government owned – private tourism activity was allowed for private accommodations (rooms) only. This ownership structure allowed the tourist companies to be managed in a coordinated way, which led to their high bargaining power during negotiations with foreign tour operators. The tourism sector was managed by the governmental Tourism Committee (Ivanov and Dimitrova, 2014) with strong management functions over the tourism industry of the country. Furthermore, communist ideology led to the development of social tourism and organised leisure for the masses. On one hand, tourism was perceived as a tool to proclaim the achievements of the communist regime among domestic and foreign tourists. On the other hand, the affordability of annual 10-14-day domestic holiday trips, for example, created among Bulgarian population the perception of good standard of living and diverted much of the thoughts questioning the political system.

After 1989 the predominant political ideologies of the ruling party changed. After the havoc of the early 1990s, the mass privatisation fiasco during the same period and the hyperinflation in the winter of 1996-1997 resulting in mass civil protests, in 1997 a government with mixed conservative and neoliberal ideas took power. Tourism industry was privatised to a degree that as of today (March 2015) it is completely private. This practice was carried on by the neoliberal government of the former king at the beginning of the twenty-first century. The result was the emergence of multitude of small tourist companies with low bargaining power and virtually no tools to influence the large foreign charter tour operators. However, tourism industry experienced explosive growth, created many jobs (Ivanov, 2005), and offset partially the loss of jobs in other sectors of the economy (mostly the industry and the agriculture). The final outcome of the neoliberal philosophy was the closure of the State Agency for Tourism in 2009. For several years the country did not have a separate government institution to deal with the management of tourism industry. The agency’s functions were transferred to the Ministry of Economy, Energy and Tourism. In 2014 a new four-partite coalition government was formed, following the election results leading a highly partitioned parliament. The outcome was that the new government unites parties with diverse and often opposing political ideologies – conservatism, socialism, nationalism, neo-liberalism/social democracy. In some decisions of the government it is evident that the arguments of one of the ideologies prevail, while in other decisions it relies on the arguments of other ideologies. Nevertheless, the positive consequence for tourism is that for the first time in Bulgarian history a separate Ministry of Tourism was created in November 2014.

**Russia**

During the last 15 years the current Russian president applied the nationalist ideology and the “inclusive” strategy – the ruling party, for example, is named “United Russia”. Following the sanctions, resulting from the Autonomous Republic of Crimea’s transition from Ukraine to the Russian Federation, in the light of the nationalist ideology the government started to actively stimulate domestic tourism and adopted outbound tourism substitution strategy. Tourist flows are directed to Sochi and Crimean peninsula, instead of Balkan and Mediterranean countries via active advertising and dedicated TV series on the virtues of domestic tourist resources of the federation. Tourism is perceived as the instrument to stimulate Crimea’s economy which suffered heavily from the sanctions and the loss of the Ukrainian market. The Simferopol airport is being expanded (Koteneva, 2015) and the former military airport of Belbek in Sevastopol starts receiving civil flights from summer 2015 (Vzglyad, 2014). These actions increase the accessibility of the peninsula from other regions of Russia, thus making it more attractive for domestic tourists.

**North Korea**

North Korea is a classic example of the impact of communist ideology on its tourism industry. The country offers organised and strictly controlled visits of foreign tourists. Tourist groups are...
assigned a dedicated guide and travel on predetermined routes. Tourism is, therefore, highly politically overburdened and is perceived as a way to trumpet the achievements of the communist system (ideologically) and source of foreign exchange (pragmatically). However, prior research reveals that tourism may serve as a tool for peace building on the Korean peninsula (Webster and Ivanov, 2014). What is noteworthy is that in the North Korean case, a very special Stalinist version of communist thinking with a very nationalist bent to it has rejected liberal models completely, and has only in the smallest ways accepted the benefits of markets and market interactions since the Korean War (Kim et al., 2007). Such a rejection of the possible benefits of markets has retained North Korea’s tourism industry as a state-controlled industry with only very small scale forays into tourism and even when tourism is explored by the state, it is under very strict governmental controls.

USA

The liberal philosophy in the USA and the specific federal organisation of the country result in the lack of a national destination management organisation (DMO) but the existence of many DMOs on city/county/state levels. The Office of Travel and Tourism Industries within the Department of Commerce, is largely a “think tank” dealing with research, data collection and policy recommendations (Webster et al., 2011). The twin features of a federal structure paired with a strong philosophical preference for market-based solutions work in ways to ensure that the US Federal Government plays a very minor role in the tourism industry. While there has been an indication that the Federal Government would become more involved in the marketing of the USA’s tourism product following the 9/11 attacks in 2001, the promised money to fund such a marketing campaign never materialized. Two things seem to stick out from the USA’s experience. First, it seems that since the eighteenth century Constitution of the USA did not specifically mention tourism, states have retained the power to deal with tourism-related issues. However, it seems that when a true threat to possible tourism flows to the USA were in the horizon, the Federal Government was willing to take action. The liberal philosophy towards the regulation of tourism and the federal system of government have ensured a very laissez-faire approach towards tourism in the USA, although it seems that when the very success of the USA as a destination was threatened, the political leadership was willing to act in ways that seem pragmatic to bolster tourism, rather than based upon a stubborn allegiance to ideological principles and deferring to states’ rights.

Cyprus

Tourism plays a major role in this divided island, as there is a general lack of natural resources while the geography and location of the island make it a logical sun, sand, and sea mecca for tourists. At its inception in 1960, the Republic of Cyprus was a poor country that faced a major ethnic division. The country descended into civil war in the 1960s that eventually petered out. Then in 1974, an Athens-backed coup led to a short-term ousting of the president. This, in turn, led to a partial invasion by Turkey, leading to a division of the island with about one-third in the hands of the government of “the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” and the remainder under the government of the internationally recognised Republic of Cyprus.

The division of the island and the administration of tourism in both sections is a very political issue (Altinay and Bowen, 2006), due to the centrality of tourism in the economy. In both political entities on the island, tourism has been a key element in the economy, and the government has worked in ways to ensure that tourism is promoted and sometimes invisible to consumers (Andronicou, 1986; Farmaki et al., 2015). For example, cheaper round-trip air tickets in the summer of 2015 on Turkish Airlines from Istanbul to Northern Nicosia cost around USD100 for the hour-and-a-half direct flight, a cost that is suspiciously low, unless substantial tax advantages and subsidies are given to airlines to operate at such a low cost.

In terms of the politics of tourism regulation in both political entities on the island, the government plays a central role. While the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” is a pariah state of sorts, as it lacks international recognition, its governmental authorities have embraced Turkey as a source market for tourists, largely promoting what Turkey does not have, casinos. Although there are few data sources that would be considered reliable for this micro-economy, the political entity’s reliance on subsidies and tourism from Turkey must be substantial.
The World Travel and Tourism Council (2014) estimate that travel and tourism contributes to 24 per cent of GDP in the Republic of Cyprus, making tourism a major part of the economy and the political authorities recognise this. In the Republic of Cyprus, the semi-governmental Cyprus Tourism Organisation is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, with substantial regulatory powers.

What is interesting about the tourism industry in both entities is the centrality of politics in the tourism industry. While in the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” the political reality of isolation of the political entity has led to the government exploiting linkages with Mainland Turkey (Yasarata et al., 2010; Alipour and Kilic, 2005; Altinay, 2000), the Republic of Cyprus’ authorities have followed strategies that are largely based upon mass tourism, in an attempt to capture as much volume as possible. In both political entities, the state has retained a key role in the promotion and regulation of tourism, clearly defying liberal principals but also clearly not for redistributive purposes, but is done more in line with nationalist ideology.

Scandinavia

What is interesting is that Scandinavia (here referring to Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Denmark) has had a very strong and sustained influence of social democratic parties following the Second World War. The concept of social democracy was adopted by Scandinavian societies following the Second World War, leading to societies with very developed welfare state policies as while there was a noteworthy market economy functioning in each of the Scandinavian countries. The concept of social democratic governance led to very strong governmental interventions into the economy, leading to very high income tax levels in all the Scandinavian states, with the intention to redistribute the wealth to the poorer strata of society. This concept was referred to as folksammet (meaning “people’s home”) in Sweden, suggesting that the state should act in ways making the country a comfortable home for the working people. The concept of redistributing wealth to the poorer classes via all sorts of welfare including universal healthcare, free university education, and a myriad of other welfare benefits has made the Scandinavian countries some of the most equal countries in the world, according to most measures of inequalities within countries, although there is indication that there is a shift towards more inequality (OECD, 2011). The social democratic ideal has largely been achieved throughout Scandinavia, where taxes remain staggeringly high and welfare benefits generous.

However, in terms of tourism, the states in Scandinavia have not been afraid of being involved in the regulation of and promotion of tourism. In all the countries, the government was fairly generous in funding NTOs and supporting all sorts of efforts to promote national tourism products. This was done largely via outright ownership of NTOs that would promote tourism abroad, gather data on tourism flows, and sponsor all sorts of activities to support and promote tourism. The governments following the Second World War also held large shares of ownership in airlines either alone (Icelandair, Finnair) or working together in partnerships with other governments (Scandinavian Air Systems). This meant that the governments played a role in owning a major transportation network that would deliver tourists to/from Scandinavia.

However, in recent years, there has been a gradual introduction of ideas that are more oriented with market needs, rather than social and political goals (Webster et al., 2011). What this has meant in practice is that Scandinavian countries have moved towards having the state less involved in the promotion and marketing of tourism products, moving much of the responsibilities to firms that are privately owned. The most radical example of this is in Finland, where the former government owned and controlled National Tourism Office was reduced in size greatly, with most of the promotion and marketing responsibilities being shifted to a private firm. In Norway in 2004, the government consolidated several organisations into Innovation Norway, one of which was the Norwegian Tourist Board. The Norwegian consolidation of tourism into another larger organisation was also followed by much more recent (2014) proposals by the government to privatise the Airport Express train. The general movement towards market-oriented solutions is a general movement in Scandinavia, suggestive that some of the more statist responses to the regulation of tourism are being abandoned. This movement away from statist involvement in the economy seems to be moving in tandem with a waning political hegemony that social democratic parties have in many Scandinavian countries.
Japan
The Liberal Democratic party of Japan has controlled the government of Japan almost continuously since the Second World War, with the exception of five years. Despite the name of the leading party in Japan, the party has been very stubborn in terms of controlling and managing the economy in Japan and tourism is no exception (Webster et al., 2011). While most successive governments in Japan since the Second World War have been “liberal” in name, attitudes towards the economy and attitudes towards regulating the economy veer far from the liberal ideal, with the state and industry working in conjunction to plan and control the economy and tourism is no exception to this. The Japanese National Tourism Organization, formed in 1964, is an administrative arm of the government of Japan that deals with many aspects regarding the promotion of tourism in Japan and abroad.

One of the key elements in the regulation of tourism for Japan is the key role that the government plays in the control of the inflow of tourists (Soshiroda, 2005), in the marketing to tourists (Uzama, 2009), and in the tourism industry in Japan (Zhang and McComac, 2014). While the Japanese Government has been in control of a political party that is liberal in name, the presence of the state is omnipresent in the tourism industry, although the intention of policy is not a social democratic ideal (redistributing wealth) but seems to be more in line with a nationalist ideology, intending to create a stronger industry to be in line with building a stronger national economy.

China
China is a rather enigmatic country, as the Communist Party of China retains a monopoly on political power in the country while it has simultaneously relinquished a great deal of control over the economy. The prevailing current philosophy of the Communist Party developed out of the ideological struggles within the party in 1960s and 1970s. The ideological problematic was that the Communist Party came to political power in a country that had largely avoided the development of a capitalist class. The ideological argument was that the government needed to foster capitalist development under socialist control in order for a true socialist/communist order to develop. As a result, China has been largely enigmatic in that it has embraced capitalism while under strict control of the Communist Party.

In terms of tourism, enigmatically, the government has retained a great deal of control over the tourism industry, even when the government has largely embraced the free market for many other economic activities. The China National Tourism Administration is a governmental authority that has considerable authority in terms of the regulation of tourism in China as well as performs research and marketing for the Chinese tourism product abroad (Bao et al., 2014; Su and Teo, 2009; Weaver, 2015). Wang and Shu (2012) claim that Chinese tourism associations are more political and less marketing-oriented since they are government owned and are not operated independently in terms of marketing or management of the association members. The authors state that there is no independent association due to the fact that no association in China can form an association without government approval and involvement. What is interesting about China is that while the government for several decades has embraced the free market, tourism has remained largely exempt from this and has retained a high level of governmental involvement and regulation, although it seems that the current government is also targeting foreign investors in recent years (Wall Street Journal, 2014), as the current leadership seems to be reflecting a certain amount of economic nationalism.

Indonesia
When Indonesia became independent following the Second World War and following the war with the Netherlands in its attempt to re-establish its control over Indonesia, the government of President Sukarno was rather typical of those countries that became independent following the Second World War. The government followed an authoritarian model while contending with a powerful Communist Party and military that threatened intervention in the political system. In terms of the economic policies of the government, the government operated largely upon mercantilist logic, with the government retaining a great deal of control and ownership of the industries and natural resources of the country. However, that changed drastically in 1968 when President Suharto became installed as the Head of the Government.
President Suharto, who served as the President until 1998, oversaw a massive transition in the economy, moving towards liberalisation of the economy. He also played a key role in large-scale arrests and massacres of members of the Communist Party and suspected members of the party. In this strong movement towards liberalisation/capitalism, the state privatised many of its industries and raw materials and largely embraced the capitalist powers in the last decades of the Cold War. What is enigmatic is that Indonesia has an economy that is highly liberalised, although the Ministry of Tourism remains a fully state-owned enterprise (Cole, 2008). So, it seems that while the government since the late 1960s moved away from governmental control of the economy, tourism has remained a Cabinet-level ministry, showing the importance that tourism is perceived to have (Sofield, 1995).

Future developments in political ideologies and their impact on tourism

Politicisation of tourism

The economic and social importance of tourism has long made it a tool for achieving political goals. Furthermore, the existence of many stakeholders in tourism with countering interests has made it a highly politicised area of public debate. For example, being non-local residents, tourists are a lucrative target for taxation – it is politically convenient to levy taxes on non-voting non-residents (e.g. via hotel room tax, entrance fees to museums and attractions) than on voting local residents. Local authorities in New York, Jamaica, Dubai, Bulgaria, among others, use room taxes/tourist taxes to fund projects and generate revenues in local budgets. However, tourist services are often subject to lower VAT tax and tax refunds in order to make the destination price competitive and attract more tourists (e.g. in Bulgaria the VAT on tourist services is 9 per cent while the normal rate is 20 per cent). Furthermore, tourism is sometimes perceived by politicians as an instrument to generate votes and win elections through satisfying the interests of some of the stakeholders – for instance, subsidising the infrastructure construction, renovation or expansion (conservative/social democratic approach), vouchers to local residents to be used for domestic tourism (socialist approach), tax breaks for investors in municipalities with high unemployment rate (conservative/liberal approach), removal or simplification of regulations towards tourism businesses (liberal approach), etc. Political ideologies differ on the basis of: who would be supported – the tourist companies (conservatism, social democracy, liberalism) or the tourists (socialism); and how would the support be provided – indirect support: elimination of tax and regulatory burden on tourist companies (liberalism), provision of public assets and services needed to tourists and tourist companies (conservatism, social democracy) or direct support: vouchers for use of tourist services, subsidies for tourist companies (socialism).

Additionally, tourism is used for promotion of political ideologies (e.g. communist heritage tourism in North Korea and China) and stimulating nationalism and sense of national identity (domestic tourism, visits to museums and important historical places by children) which makes it politically burdened. In the Russian Federation it has even been considered as the tool for quick economic and social integration of Crimean peninsula after its cessation from Ukraine in March 2014. Furthermore, extremist and fundamentalist groups might perceive foreign tourists as carriers of unwanted social and cultural influence which could make them targets for terrorist attacks. And foreign tourists are lucrative targets for terrorist attacks because of the high visibility of such attacks due to their extensive media coverage and the “popularity” extremists gain.

For the future we expect further politicisation of tourism. As tourism grows and reaches more geographic areas and involves more social strata, either as tourists and/or as employees/owners of tourism enterprises, it expands its social reach which increases the number of tourism stakeholders and the diversity of interests which public authorities need to face. However, we think that governments would not adopt a one-size-fits-all ideology in dealing with tourism but they will use different mechanisms from the arsenals of different ideologies depending on the situation and their political convenience. This means that sometimes one government would provide tax breaks to big investors in tourism in order to decrease the unemployment, other times it would invest heavily in infrastructure, while in third cases it may provide incentives to local residents to undertake domestic trips. Such situational pragmatic ideological approach by public authorities seems more probable as it is satisfies the interest of many stakeholders although not necessarily the interests of society as whole.
Tourism wars

A natural consequence of the politicisation of tourism is the tourism wars. They relate to the aggressive destination marketing and in general can be applied by both destinations and tourist generating countries. When applied by destinations tourism wars refer to the diverting (“stealing”) of inbound tourists from competitor destinations. When applied by tourist generating countries tourism wars include redirecting outbound tourist flows from one destination to another) as a substitute and extension of political “wars”. As discussed above, the transition of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea in March 2014 and the subsequent international economic and political sanction on the Russian Federation resulted in stimulation of domestic tourism and recommendations by the Russian officials to citizens not to travel to countries that support the sanctions (BurgasNews, 2015). As Russian tourists contribute significantly to the economies of Greece, Cyprus, Turkey, Bulgaria, Egypt and other countries, the governments and tourism enterprises in these countries worried about the expected plummeting numbers of tourist arrivals from Russia. The reactions included: subsidising charter flights from Russia to Turkey (socialdemocratic approach) (Vestnik Kavkaza, 2015), simplified visa issue process for Russian tourists visiting Greece (liberal approach) (Greek Travel Pages, 2015), or even voices from Bulgarian tourism industry for compensation from the EU for missed revenues (socialist approach) (News.bg, 2015). For the future we expect such tourist wars to continue and sometimes even worsen. They would be used by major tourist generating countries as a powerful economic tool to redirect tourist and financial flows from one (inconvenient) destination to another. Destinations that depend heavily on tourism to create employment for its citizens and for foreign exchange earnings would be highly vulnerable.

Environmentalism

Environmentalism has permeated the agenda of political parties, governments and NGOs. It is no longer just “save the planet” way of thinking emphasising economic use of resources, use of renewable energy, waste separation, recycling and so on. Environmentalism has now received the qualities of a political doctrine per se – it is organised (e.g. Greenpeace and other organisations), influences our daily life (e.g. compulsory home waste separation), regulates the economic activities (e.g. ISO 14000: environmental management; EU requirements about renewable energy’s share in total energy production within the union) and its issues are discussed on top political and global level (e.g. UN’s Agenda 21). Tourism is largely perceived as one of the major contributors to global warming/climate change (Simpson et al., 2008). Therefore, tourism’s interactions with global warming/climate change and the sustainable tourism development have been widely discussed both by practitioners and the academia (e.g. Borges et al., 2014; Lopez-Sanchez and Pulido-Fernandez, 2014; Scott et al., 2012; Weaver, 2006) and have been included in the goals and activities of various tourism organisations. For the future we expect much greater role of sustainability thinking in governments and local authorities, leading to the infusion of even more “aggressive” green thinking in tourism organisations – e.g. compulsory offsetting of the carbon footprint for every tourist, compulsory minimum percentage of renewable energy in the total energy consumption of tourism enterprises, expansion of protected areas and limited access to them, severe regulations on water consumption and transportation in resorts, etc. The outcome would be increased costs of tourist services, and probably, decreased affordability of tourist trips, but in exchange of better quality of the environment. In general, tourism would benefit from the greater role of environmentalism in the political system. However, environmentalism should not be hindrance to the economic development of local communities and the latter should not be put into the position to choose jobs or environment. In the future, we think, the potential choice “jobs or environment” (e.g. the ecologists stopping the development of resorts and infrastructure) would be transformed into “jobs and environment” (tourist go to places with proper environment management).

Greater control on populations

The political goal of achieving greater control on populations might lead to the use of tourism as a tool to introduce and spread faster the human radio-frequency identification (RFID) microchip implants (Ivanov et al., 2013). Through tourism, neo-conservative governments might popularise
the benefits of implanted RFID microchips – smooth and fast passage at airports and frontier control points, electronic visa, no need of carrying physical ID/passport/cash/credit or debit cards, greater security of travel, no need of foreign exchange, etc. Therefore, tourism would be the instrument through which governments to achieve higher goals – i.e. greater control on populations’ movement, purchases, daily lives. We have already observed RFID human microchip implants used to access offices and use various appliances (Reuters, 2015) and believe this tendency would continue in the future in larger scale.

**Thriving nationalism**

New nations find nationalism and domestic tourism as tools for nation-building. The heritisation, antiquisation and the glorification of the past become vital steps in the process. The governments construct monuments, dedicated to the victorious ancient rulers and prominent figures from nation’s history, sometimes regardless of the historical facts, use tourism to promote the real and invented national heritage. The new city centre of Skopje, the capital of the Republic of Macedonia, is a good example – the nationalist ideology and the aim of the political elite of the country (creating a new nation and giving it past it could be proud of) led to the erection of monuments disputed by Greece (e.g. Alexander the Great) and Bulgaria (e.g. King Samuil). Domestic tourism to these new places of national worship strengthens the sense of national identity of residents. We envision this heritisation process to continue in the foreseeable future due to the growth of heritage tourism demand in general and its sub-segments (e.g. communist heritage tourism – Ivanov, 2009) and the cessation processes in many countries leading to new nations that need “new pasts” (Webster and Ivanov, 2015).

**Conclusion**

There are many things to be said with regards to how ideologies will play a role in the future. One of the major issues that will have to be contended with is the necessary friction between nationalism and liberalism. While liberalism is by definition an internationalist movement, especially in its current neo-liberal embodiment, it faces all sorts of public and governmental resistance. The resistance is largely based upon the way in which populations cling to nation-states as a form of organisation, giving populations a sense of security. One of the ideological clashes that will remain for some time in the future is the clash between international liberalism and nationalist/conservative resistance movements.

Many states seem to already have retained control or partial control over tourism and have not allowed tourism to be at the mercy of the free market. We see in the Asian countries surveyed that even when the countries have shown a dedication to liberalism, the state has retained tourism as something of political/strategic value and is thus largely under political regulation. This is especially interesting, as it illustrates that while liberalism and markets may be the stated mantra, the states in these cases, have maintained political organisations to deal with the industry. In the future, it seems that states will be more involved with the regulation of tourism, perhaps as a backlash to the neo-liberalism of recent decades.

What is also interesting is the slow and partial retreat from social democracy in Scandinavia. While the states there have begun to increasingly embrace market-based principles, substantial government involvement in the economy and regulation of tourism still takes place. However, the reorganisation and partial retreat from strong governmental control, ownership, and regulation of tourism seems to go hand-in-hand with the general decline in the power of social democratic parties in Scandinavia. Although much of the value system of social democracy is deeply engrained in Scandinavian populations, partial privatisations of tourism-related industries and the reorganisation of political institutions dealing with tourism are possible, although they do meet with some resistance. So, it seems that the slow decline of social democratic institutions relating to tourism in Scandinavia mirrors the general decline of social democratic parties in there, as well.

What is most interesting in this investigation is the question of liberalism and all the other ideologies that oppose it. With the global ascendance of liberalism, we see that there is resistance at all levels. The most interesting and most successful seems to be nationalism that rears its head and limits liberal forces. However, other non-liberal ideologies also have opportunities to counter
liberal tourism, although nationalism and conservatism seem to be ideologies that have the best chances in terms of launching successful opposition, as they largely are able to work in conjunction with state forces to oppose liberalisation. It is noteworthy that there are a number of states mentioned above that have stated their support for liberal policies and yet they retain strong institutions that have the potential for regulating tourism or do regulate tourism.

In terms of future research, it would be good to survey political elites to look at how they envision the role of tourism in their countries and ask them what role they feel that tourism could play in their country in future decades. This would be interesting and useful work as it would entail asking leaders about their faith and reliance upon international tourism markets rather than the nation-level regulation of tourism. Surveys could also be conducted to determine whether these elites feel that tourism should be regulated, as the negative externalities may entail cultural or political threats. Mapping out how political elites look at tourism and how it may threaten the political and cultural independence in countries would seem to be fruitful, especially if it entails delinking economic liberalisation with westernisation.

Another key concern that should be considered is to look at how political ideologies impact upon security concerns and economic concerns. While in the present epoch, tourism is typically thought of as an economic vehicle to assist countries in increasing living standards and does not have an ideological component, the ideological preferences of elites and state institutions also play a role. Much a similar case could be made in discussing security concerns. Future research should look more specifically into how ideological preferences of elites are mitigated by economic pragmatism and concerns regarding the security of the state. Although few states would compromise a great deal of their security or economic development for the ideological preferences of elites, some significant sacrifices may be made. For example, the German hotelier, Fritz Gabler, in National Socialist Germany stated that tourism and autarky were conceptually incompatible (Semmens, 2011). Gabler’s comment was a mild criticism of National Socialist policies in 1934, suggesting that the principles of autarky of the National Socialists were not helpful for the tourism industry in Germany. However, the ideology guiding the National Socialists did not place tourism development as a high priority for the regime. There are probably other similar examples from more recent history, when regimes either for security reasons or ideological reasons were willing to give up the use of tourism as a pathway to economic development. Certainly, the case of North Korea is an instance in which, for the most part, the elites have been willing to give up economic development via tourism either for security reasons or some other ideological reasons that are still rather vague. What future works should look into is the interaction of ideology, security, and economic development.

Another key concern in work on ideology is the perception of ideology. What may seem pragmatic and acceptable to a liberal may be ideological to an anarchist, for example. So while economic development may seem to be an ideologically neutral goal for a state and while security concerns for states may also seem to be ideologically neutral, they really are. Indeed, pragmatism is in the eye of the beholder.

In closing, this research has looked into how ideology is set to play a role in future tourism. While it may seem that liberalism is the wave of the future and that most governments have embraced liberal principles, it appears that many governments have not actually done this, even if they have pretended to do so. There is substantial evidence that governments have either retained institutions that have the ability to be given greater powers, in the event from a withdrawal from liberal policies (as in the case of Indonesia) or have retained powerful institutions that have retained high levels of control of tourism, despite stated liberal policies (as in the case of Japan).

What is noteworthy is that it seems that ideology seems to have some flexibility, in recognition of the value that tourism has for the economy. Thus, while the ultra-liberal USA professes a hands-off approach towards tourism, when its massive tourism industry was thought to be at risk, there was substantial support for governmental stimulus. On the other hand, Stalinist North Korea has shown a steady rejection of market principles, although the ideology of Juche was relaxed a bit in order to permit limited tourism development in the country. So while ideology may shape organisational responses to dealing with tourism, there still seems to be considerable room for manoeuvre within each ideology based upon pragmatism. So it seems that the very interesting thing to look at in the future is when governments fully reject ideological principles upon which
their tourism industries rest, based upon practical solutions that work and defy ideological prejudices. But even these practical/pragmatic solutions will meet with resistance within societies and political institutions if they clash with important cultural values linked with nationalism, conservatism, and (in Scandinavia) social democracy.

References


Further reading


Hall, C.M. (1994), Tourism and Politics: Policy, Power and Place, John Wiley and Sons, Chichester.


Corresponding author

Stanislav Ivanov can be contacted at: stanislav.ivanov@vumk.eu

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website: www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm
Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
The independence referendum in Scotland: a tourism perspective on different political options

Brian Hay

Abstract

Purpose – During the 2014 independence referendum in Scotland, there was much debate about the future broader political direction of the country but little discussion about its impact on Scottish tourism. The purpose of this paper is to explore and discuss the impact of the different future political options from a tourism perspective.

Design/methodology/approach – From the literature, four main political drivers were identified, and using Scotland as a reference, they were used in discussions with six experts to explore how tourism could develop under different political options. The outcomes from these discussions were combined by the researcher to develop in conjunction with the experts an agreed discussion note. This discussion note formed the basis for the exploration of the impact on tourism under four different future political options.

Findings – Of the four political options (devolution limited, devolution plus, devolution max/fiscal autonomy/federation and full independence), it is clear that all options had different positive and negative impacts for tourism. The devolution max option, however, was perceived as most damaging to tourism, because tourism would not be considered a priority, relative to other policy issues. The study concludes with six key lessons that destination management organisations (DMOs) should contemplate when considering the impacts of different political futures.

Research limitations/implications – Being focussed on one country with a strong political party whose raison d’être is independence makes it difficult to extrapolate the results. Nevertheless, given the strong commonality of agreement of the impacts within the experts consulted, this study suggests that DMOs can and should engage in political debates about the future of tourism in their destination.

Originality/value – The 2014 independence referendum in Scotland failed to achieve its primary aim of independence for Scotland, but it did provide space for other political options to be explored. This paper provides a perspective on how tourism could develop under different political options, and so help raise its profile in any future debates, both in Scotland and other destinations.

Keywords Tourism, Politics, Scotland, Futures, Secessionists movements

Introduction

Although Scotland is a small country, it has been at the forefront of tourism futures’ thinking through the use of scenario-planning as a tool in developing its tourism sector and in establishing the world’s first scenario-planning team within VisitScotland, the national tourism marketing organisation for Scotland. Yet, from the first tentative report making use of scenario-planning in Scotland (Price, 1999), which was driven by the first serious debates about devolution, discussions about the implications for devolution/independence have not really appeared in the scenario-planning reports emerging from VisitScotland nor in industry discussion papers about the future of tourism in Scotland. Indeed, in the most recent reports about the future of tourism in Scotland written by the
main industry organisation, the Scottish Tourism Alliance (2012), and by the publicly funded futures-focussed organisation, Tourism Intelligence Scotland (2014), neither mentioned the issue. What little research that has been published on the impacts on tourism of the referendum of September 2014 has been weak, lacks consensus and is inconclusive, and despite the rejection of independence by the people of Scotland, there still remains “much concern among industry stakeholders about the future of the Scottish tourism product” (Cuffy and Danby, 2014, p. 6).

The issue of devolved power is not unique to Scotland: within Europe, there are the German Laenders, Spanish autonomous communities, the regions of Belgium and the provinces of Northern Italy, and their secession movements have all explored the need for more devolved powers. As Wagstaff (1999) has noted, the member states of the European Union (EU) have for the most part not experienced any major political, ethnic or religious strife in recent years. This is not to say that there have not been problems in parts of Europe, for example, in Northern Ireland and in the former states of Yugoslavia, and in 2015, in Ukraine. However, in recent years, along with the expansion of the EU, there has developed the twin tracks of increasing centralisation of power at the European level and the demand for more control at the local level. In an effort to counter the impact of centralisation, there is a requirement enshrined in the 1993 EU Maastricht Treaty known as “subsidiarity”, which is based on the concept that nation states rather than the EU are best suited to deliver services to their people. Often the responsibility of implementing EU legislation falls to the myriad of regional governments (Keating, 2004). Also, unlike other major countries such as Australia, Canada, Switzerland and the USA, the peoples and the governments of Europe have not generally adopted the concept of federalism. However, there is a growing awareness of the increasing political strength of regional identity, and this has asserted itself through the demand for more local control of decisions. There is nothing new about this demand for local political control, and in Scotland, it can be traced back to the mid-1960s, when a combination of regional economic decline, disaffection with the dominant political party (Labour), the revival of strong regional development policies and public investment in large infrastructure projects helped to increase awareness of the advantages of local control. The election in 1967 of the first Scottish National Party (SNP) member to the UK Parliament is a reflection of this demand.

The four key political drivers of change in Scotland

Political driver 1

The above structural economic indicators, whilst important, are insignificant when compared to five key political events. In 2011, the SNP gained overall control of the Scottish Parliament; in September 2014, there was the referendum on whether Scotland should remain part of the UK or become a separate country; in 2015, there was a UK-wide election; in 2016, there was a general election for the Scottish Parliament; and in 2016, there will be a referendum on whether the UK leaves or remains a member state of the EU. Of these five events, the first four have already occurred: in 2011, the SNP gained control of the Scottish Parliament; in 2014, the people of Scotland, on an 85 per cent turnout, rejected independence by 55 to 45 per cent, with the voters in 29 of the 32 local government areas also rejecting independence. What was interesting, however, was the subsequent upsurge in support for the SNP, whose membership grew from 25,000 in 2013 to over 100,000 in 2014 (Keen, 2015), making it the largest political party in Scotland, despite being defeated in the 2014 independence referendum. This popularity carried over to the 2015 UK Parliamentary general election, in which the SNP gained 56 out the 59 Scottish seats to become by far the largest political party in Scotland and the third largest in the UK Parliament. This is the first issue to note in terms of political drivers — the development of a popular regional political party, with the welfare of its people at the heart of its policies.

Political driver 2

As part of the preparations for the independence referendum in 2014, the Scottish Government (2013) published a 650-page report with 390 references, setting out the case for independence, along with detailed arguments on how the various industries in Scotland could grow as a result of independence. In this report, there was almost a complete lack of discussion on tourism, despite it being noted as one of the key economic drivers for Scotland. In terms of other discussions in the
wider academic and popular press about the possible impact of independence on tourism, they were limited to some negative references in the popular press as to whether English tourists would still be welcome in Scotland. The tourism industry, however, had real concerns which were reflected in the only public debate about tourism, organised by the Scottish Tourism Alliance in June 2014. These concerns were not about the principles for or against independence but focussed on hygiene issues such as border controls, passports, currency and labour contracts. This debate at which the main political parties, along a few academics, spoke about the issue ended in a vote in which the audience (mainly tourism businesses) rejected independence by over 90 per cent.

There is nothing new about the growth of independence movements; over the centuries, states have been formed, merged and dissolved; the concept of a sovereign state with defined boundaries is a relatively new development. Since the end of the Second World War in 1945, many countries have gained their independence; for example, the UK ceded independence to almost 50 countries, from India in 1947 through to Hong Kong in 1997. Over the past 100 years in Europe, we have seen new countries granted independence, such as when Norway split from Sweden in 1905 and the dissolution of the USSR in the 1990s, which led to the emergence of the Baltic States and others such as Ukraine. Even later, Czechoslovakia was split into two countries, and new states such as Montenegro and Serbia were formed when Yugoslavia was dissolved. Outside Europe, perhaps the best known secessionist movement is the Canadian Parti Québécois, which failed in two referendums to gain enough public support to leave the Canadian Federation.

Although Europe is often considered to be a stable political environment, over the past decades, there has been an upsurge in the demand for more power to be devolved from national government to regional government (often labelled as nationalism) and even calls for the demise of the nation state (labelled as separation). As Cody (2012) has noted, there has been in Europe a recent growth not only in nationalist movements but also in separatist movements, driven by the recession in a number of European counties; he has also noted that the “old demons of regional separatism have surged anew, raising another unwelcome challenge to the Continent’s traditional nation states” (p. 23). Examples of growing demands for recognition include the New Flemish movement in Belgium and the Basque and Catalonia regions in Spain, although the demand for more recognition in others regions have faded, such as Corsica from France and the Northern League in Italy. In conjunction with the emergence of different political structures, the people of Europe are becoming much more physically and socially mobile. With the free movement of people across the EU, along with the emerging trend of a mobile workforce (Elliot and Urry, 2010), the idea of living and working only in one country is seen as obsolete, as is the concept of allegiance to a single nation state. This emerging irrelevance of the nation state and the demand for local control of decisions is the second issue to note, in terms of political drivers. As Attali (2009, p. 180) has noted “more than a hundred new nations could be born this century”.

Political driver 3

Scotland has four major political parties: Scottish Conservative and Unionist (right leaning), Scottish Labour (left leaning), Scottish Liberal Democrats (centralist)—all of which can be described as pro-UK unionist parties—and the SNP (left leaning), the sole major pro-independence party. With the rise in the popularity of the SNP in the 1970s and 1980s, there was a growing pressure on the Unionist parties to work together (Pittock, 2008), and this was manifested in the idea of devolving limited political power from the UK Government in London to Scotland. The people of Scotland rejected devolution in the first referendum in 1979, and in the UK election that year, the SNP gained only two seats, and, therefore, independence for Scotland was no longer on the UK political agenda. For the next 18 years, the Conservative Party was the major party in the UK Parliament, in what became known as the “Thatcher Years”. Over this period, Scotland experienced major changes in its industrial structure, such as the closure of its steel-making facilities and many of its coal pits, a rapid decline in the number of ship-building yards, high levels of unemployment and the imposition of what became known as the “poll tax” (a uniform tax on each adult in Scotland, which was perceived as a precondition of the right to vote).
In the 1997 UK election, a Labour Government was elected, and with the Conservatives holding no seats in Scotland, the scene was set for another referendum; in 1997, 74 per cent of Scottish voters opted for devolution. In 1998, a Scottish Parliament along with a Scottish Executive (a supporting civil service) was established, with powers over a wide range of activities such as health, justice, housing, rural affairs, transport and economic development, including tourism (Scottish Government, 2012). Since the first Scottish Parliament election in 1999, there has been a gradual shift in political power from Scottish Labour as the major political party to the SNP, and in the 2011 election, the SNP gained overall control of the Scottish Parliament; they included in their manifesto a commitment to hold a referendum on Scottish independence (Scottish National Party, 2012). It was to be a clear choice of either a “Yes” or “No” to independence, with no third option such as an increase in devolved powers. The referendum was designed to provide a clear statement of what would become known “as the settled will of the people of Scotland, providing a once-in-a-generation opportunity” (Lockhart, 2014, p. 1). Therefore, the third political driver is the election of the dominant political party with the determination to hold a vote on independence but failing to gain popular support for independence.

**Political driver 4**

The quality and the openness of the independence debate in Scotland was interesting; one impact was an increase in awareness among the Scottish people of politics and political issues in Scotland. The very high turnout of 85 per cent of the eligible population was welcomed across the political spectrum, as was the expansion of the franchise to 16 and 17 year olds. But there was also discontent, because Scots living in other parts of the UK as well as overseas were not allowed to vote, while immigrants in Scotland from other parts of the EU, including England, were allowed to vote. There was some discontent in other parts of the UK, as any decision taken in Scotland would also impact the governance of the rest of the UK, but the rules for the implementation of referendum did not provide for people living outside Scotland to vote.

The two political groupings of the “Yes” and “No” vigorously debated the issues. There was, perhaps surprisingly, a part of the population who perceived the supporters of the “No” campaign to be anti-Scottish, and this resulted in some unpleasant confrontations. There was, however, a consensus that the referendum should be a once-in-a-generation opportunity and that it should be accepted as the settled will of the people of Scotland. This was clearly stated by Alex Salmond, the leader of the SNP, and the then First Minister (Lockhart, 2014), but since then, there has been much debate as to whether the issue will appear in the SNP manifesto for the 2016 Scottish Parliament elections. There is also the possibility of a series of referenda until the SNP gain a “Yes” vote for their objective of independence; this has been labelled a “neverendum”, because the “Yes” movement has to win only once, while the “No” movement has to win every time. This issue has also arisen in Quebec, where, despite two referenda rejecting independence, there is still a strong movement for another referendum. The suspicion in Scotland is that there is likely to be another referendum in the near rather than distant future. The fourth political driver is the ability to hold a free, fair and decisive referendum, and for all sides to agree to abide by the decision, and for this decision to be seen as the settled will of the people.

**Research methods**

As this study was essentially explorative, the selected research methodology involved debating with and cross-examining “expert interviewees” in order to provide insights into their understanding of the implications of the selected political drivers and the impacts of various emerging options associated with each of the political drivers on the delivery of tourism. As O’Gorman and Macintosh (2014, p. 2) noted, “research is essentially about the production of new knowledge”, but this is a difficult claim to make for this study, as the research paradigm is difficult to elucidate, the sample is small and the discussions with the experts were essentially explorative in nature. As this study is about gaining a better understanding of the central issues that have an impact on the devolution/independence debates and exploring these ideas in discussions with “experts”, the research methodology could perhaps be best described as adopting an interpretive paradigm approach.

The limited number of experts who had detailed knowledge of tourism in Scotland and were also willing and able to think about future issues, whilst being able to reflect objectively on the impact
of the referendum, and were willing to be interviewed during a closely fought UK election (May 2015) certainly created challenges for the methodology. Further challenges included a Government “purdah”, which prevented public servants from taking part in discussions during the election, and the clear instructions from a number of Scottish universities to their staff, limiting their participation in open debates about devolution/independence.

The selection of the actual expert interviewees as the chosen sample was far from perfect, and it highlights the explorative nature of this paper. The experts were professional colleagues known to the researcher, but their individual political views on the independence debate were not known to the researcher; this is acknowledged as a limitation, but the quality and rigour of the one-to-one discussions did provide many deep insights. It was stressed by all the interviewees that they were offering personal rather than organisational observations, but the ability of the interviewees to distinguish between the two perspectives must be open to question. The interviews were conducted face to face in Scotland in April 2015, either in the interviewee’s office or on a university campus (Table I). The interviewees were not remunerated, and none of those approached declined to be interviewed. Of course, there are limitations to all research methodologies, and the extent to which the selected experts were representative of the universe of experts is open to question. The one clear advantage, however, of using known professional colleagues is the high degree of respect and trust between the interviewer and interviewee. The pitfalls in selecting expert informants are well documented by Johnson (1990) and include, but are not limited to, manipulation of the researcher, protecting the experts’ confidential comments and exploiting and deceiving the interviewees.

As Bryman and Burgess (1999) note, key experts can play a number of roles, all of which were performed by the experts in this study, namely, as a guide (suggesting critical topics to consider), an assistant (making available informal/little known documents), an interpreter (selecting and sifting important information and issues) and a historian (understanding the background development issues).

In terms of the research process, after selection, each expert was interviewed separately to assess, first, the suitability of the four selected political drivers derived from the background review and the researchers’ understanding of the issues; second, they were asked to explore the various possible political options of devolution/independence derived from these four drivers; and finally, to explore the likely implications of how tourism could develop within each of these options. After bringing together their collective thoughts and searching for areas of commonality, a draft note of the outcomes of their combined thoughts was circulated to each of the experts in order to seek their support of the researcher’s interpretation of their insights. Following comments on this first note, a revised note was circulated, where agreement was reached about the main issues, which was used to develop this paper.

Discussion of the various political options and implications for tourism futures

As Hay (2013) has outlined, there are a number of possible options facing a country when they are considering different degrees of autonomy, and each of these options may provide for a different operational model in how the destination management organisation (DMO) could

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of organisation</th>
<th>Job description</th>
<th>Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercial research consultancy</td>
<td>Senior tourism consultant</td>
<td>20+ years in consultancy, mostly but not all in tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public sector (tourism)</td>
<td>Tourism researcher</td>
<td>Relatively new to public sector, but extensive experience (15 years in private sector)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private sector (hospitality)</td>
<td>Managing director</td>
<td>Over 30 years working in hotel management in the UK and also overseas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>20 years of tourism experience, and also works as freelance consultant on Scottish Government contracts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK/Scottish Government</td>
<td>Senior economic advisor (retired)</td>
<td>25+ years as an senior Scottish/UK Government Economic Advisor on a wide range of studies, including transport and tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union</td>
<td>Policy advisor (retired)</td>
<td>Extensive experience (30+ years) working in Brussels for the EU on a number of issues, including regional policy issues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
manage their tourism product. As confirmed by the expert interviews, apart from the status quo, there are four possible political options (Table II).

To avoid confusion in the terminology, for the purpose of this paper, a host DMO is used to describe a country-wide DMO such as VisitBritain, while a regional DMO is used to describe a DMO operating in only one part of a country such as VisitScotland, even though Scotland is a country.

**Future political option 1: devolution limited, with organic change**

Under this option, as a region evolves, changes to its political structures tend to be slow and organic. There will be communication between the host DMO and the devolved regional DMO, as in Scotland, where marketing staff from both VisitBritain and VisitScotland worked together, for example, on marketing campaigns of mutual interest, and where the chairs of the boards of the two bodies acted as political touchpoints. It is unlikely in this option that any one part of the country would have the ability to raise its own taxes, such as a bed, tourism or convention tax, because there would be strong support for uniform tax rates across the whole country in order to prevent one part gaining a tax advantage over another part, by, for example, reducing sales tax on hotels. It is very likely that the regional DMO would be funded from either general taxation distributed through the regional political structures/organisations, or, but less likely, by the host-country DMO. It is possible that the regional DMO would focus on marketing within its own region and to other parts of the country, i.e., within Scotland and within the UK, but would leave most overseas marketing to the main DMO.

The regional DMO within this limited devolved option, if it is funded directly by the regional government, may be more aware of regional political issues and may even seek to undertake some in-destination, politically focussed marketing to stress its own importance, because it will need to compete with other publicly funded activities for limited public funds. The DMO’s relationship with the private sector will continue to develop as it becomes aware that it cannot achieve its goals without support from those delivering the product (accommodation, transport, activities, etc.). Under this option, the concept of public-private partnership may become stronger, with regionally based businesses now directly influencing the strategic direction of the regional DMO. In reality, probably little will change in terms of marketing priorities, the exception being a re-focussing of marketing to include marketing of the DMO’s destination to its own people, so as to encourage them to holiday in their own country. This may result in an increase in visiting friends and relatives tourism in the area. Also, there may be more sponsorship of local events and perhaps more direct contact with local people to explain the importance of tourism for the region, and so help to reinforce the need for a regional DMO.

**Future political option 2: devolution plus**

Although under this option there may be some additional but limited tax-raising powers for the devolved government, they will be few and limited, and the regional DMO will probably be fully

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table II</th>
<th>Levels of autonomy and possible DMO structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of autonomy</strong></td>
<td><strong>Key political drivers</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devolution limited, with organic change</td>
<td>The development of a popular regional political party, with the welfare of its people at the heart of its policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devolution plus</td>
<td>The emerging irrelevance of the nation state and the demand for more local control of decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devolution max/ fiscal federation/ fiscal autonomy</td>
<td>The election of the dominant political party with the determination to hold a vote on independence but failing to gain popular support for independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full independence</td>
<td>The ability to hold a free, fair and decisive referendum, and for all sides to agree to abide by the decision, and for this decision to be seen as the settled will of the people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
funded by the devolved government and receive no funds from the host DMO. It is unlikely to involve any one region varying the levels of taxes so as to give them an economic advantage over other regions. Therefore, the provision of direct tax-raising powers is unlikely, but under this option, the regional government will have much more responsibility for the management of a wide range of existing services. In Scotland, this includes responsibility for education, transport, health, social welfare and inward investment. Whatever the powers of any devolved authority, there will likely be a much more direct relationship between the raising of taxes and the resulting expenditure on services, including tourism.

One of the clear future trends in most Western European countries is that of a growing population of older people, which will require an increasing expenditure on social services; given the high costs of providing such services (public health, social services, welfare and pensions) and the political necessity of protecting them from budget decreases, it is likely that this policy will impact non-essential services such as tourism, where budgets may well be cut. Also, given the assumption that one part of a country would find it politically difficult to offer a lower level of such services than other parts, it is likely that under this political option, budgets for non-essential functions will be squeezed. After the “No” vote in the Scottish Referendum in 2014 and following several years of budget increases, the regional DMO in Scotland has had its budget frozen, and what additional funds that were allocated have been ring-fenced for specific activities by the Scottish Government (VisitScotland, 2014). Budgets for organisations funded by the Scottish Government have been increasingly subject to much more ring-fencing, i.e., budgets for organisations are being made conditional on achieving Scottish Government targets. In this option, there is likely to be a high degree of micro-management by the devolved government in the delivery of local functions. It is also possible that the regional DMO will begin to lose its independence and be subject to not only more management control but also more political control by the devolved government. The logical outcome of this action can be seen in Wales, where tourism, instead of being managed by an independent DMO, was transferred into the Welsh Government structure.

In Scotland, it is an oxymoron that with increasing devolution came more central control of traditionally devolved functions. For example, since the SNP took control of the Scottish Parliament in 1996, there has been the merger of eight police authorities into one organisation (Police Scotland), the merger of regional Fire and Rescues Services (Fire and Rescue Scotland), the 21 local economic development/enterprise companies merger into two organisations (Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise), the merger of local technical colleges into regional colleges and, in tourism, the merger of 14 local area tourist boards into one already existing organisation (VisitScotland).

Given that budgets are likely to be restricted, out-of-country marketing for the region will rely more on the national DMO, as the costs of such marketing may be too expensive for the regional DMO. It is also possible that the larger private-sector companies based in the regional DMO area will look to the national DMO for leadership, so the regional DMO may lose influence over local businesses, as they opt to support national DMO marketing campaigns rather than regional DMO campaigns.

It is also likely in this option that the public may question the rationale of the funding model for the regional DMO, where most of its funds are provided by general taxation. It is possible that they would ask why, when public funds are limited, they should support an activity that is designed for visitors rather than for the benefit of residents, although it could be argued that such support is good for local tourism businesses.

Future political option 3: devolution max/fiscal federation/fiscal autonomy

This option, commonly known as devolution max, is about as close as possible for a country to be independent, without actually being independent. It is likely, as has been suggested in Scotland, that the region would take full control of the raising all taxes and of all spending within its borders for all the services it provides (fiscal autonomy), with the exception of externally facing functions, such as foreign affairs and defence (Bowditch, 2015). There would be no internal border controls with the host country and no need for separate passports, and there would be continuation of a common currency, all of which would help tourism by maintaining the benefits of a national tourism product.
With control of its own taxes and spending (fiscal federation), there could be a call for the adoption of differential taxes from other parts of the host country and the creation of new taxes such as a bed tax, which, if hypothecated, could be used to fund the regional DMO, rather than relying on public funds. It could be argued that the regional DMO could be removed from public control and be managed through a different model, such as a public-private corporation.

The issue of tax-variation powers and, in particular, tax-reduction powers, has wider implications than just within the region using such powers, because their use might be perceived as anti-competitive by neighbouring political entities, which may not be able to match these tax reductions. National governments may resist proposals to grant such powers to any devolved administration on the grounds that they could disrupt its wider regional development policies, particularly with regard to social welfare and the wider benefits for society derived from what most countries would regard as an essential function, that of a redistributive/fiscal equalisation tax policy.

It is possible that the regional DMO would chose to adopt a different marketing strategy from the host-country DMO, by establishing its own tourism marketing offices in overseas countries. Although such offices could co-exist with those of the host DMO, it is very likely that the regional DMO would want to establish its own independent offices. An alternative model would be to share overseas offices with like-minded counties, e.g., Scotland with Ireland, although there may be a competition issue to overcome. However, given the innovative marketing opportunities offered by social media and the new methods tourists use to source information, establishing overseas offices could be more a vanity project and a statement of liberation rather than an absolute necessity. It is unlikely in this option that the regional DMO could become a member of international organisations such as the European Travel Commission or the UNWTO.

In this option, relations between the regional DMO and the private sector are likely to be very positive, as they may perceive that the devolved government would be much more proactive and in control of its own future, mainly through the ability to raise taxes and to set spending priorities. It is likely that a tourism tax would be introduced, with an assumption that the income generated would be used to support the regional DMO. It is also possible that the income could be used for other purposes, such as to subside a ferry route or as an incentive for marketing new air routes. It could also be used for improvements to the physical product, by assisting in the development of new hotels or attractions, or used to support the creation of other new political entities, such as tourism business improvement districts. Indeed, under this political option, there could be a re-examination of the role of the regional DMO, from a tourism marketing focus to a tourism management focus, i.e., the DMO would need to embrace a much wider set of functions than just marketing.

There is a possibility that the various country-wide tourism professional societies and organisations might experience a demand for a more autonomous regional structure, which would have only a loose attachment to existing professional national bodies. It is not clear if these new regional societies and organisations would have the same level of power and access to the political gatekeepers as the existing national organisations.

**Future political option 4: full independence**

For many in the independence movement, this is the only option, and it is assumed that were independence to be achieved, there would initially be a huge amount of publicity, which would have an immediate positive impact on the tourism sector. However, independence will not happen overnight; it will take a number of years and will involve many detailed discussions, because everything from splitting the national debt to sharing the defence assets would need to be agreed by both sides. Given the enormous significance of these issues, it is doubtful if discussions on the future management of tourism would take priority. However, in the recent debates in Scotland about independence, although tourism was not really a central topic, issues relating to tourism were subject to much discussion, such as passport control, common currency, border controls and the Schengen Agreement (which the UK has opted-out of), which allows for the free movement of people within Europe.
Such discussions were not limited to internal issues but also focussed on Scotland’s membership of international organisations, such as the United Nations, the European Union, NATO and the International Monetary Fund, and the adoption of the Euro, the common currency for EU states. It was thought likely that Scotland’s membership of such organisations would be fast tracked, but full recognition would not happen quickly, because rigorous procedures would need to be followed. Progress on these issues would be dependent on the outcome of the discussions in the period leading up to formal independence. Putting aside the issue as to whether Scotland would be regarded as a new member of these organisations, because the UK is already a member, the issues previously mentioned (passports, currency, border controls, etc.) would all have an impact on tourism in Scotland. For example, membership of the Euro, like all issues, could be negotiated; although the use of the Euro is required of all new EU members and is central to the concept of a united EU, it is likely that new countries such as Scotland would have to commit only to join the Euro at some vaguely defined date in the future, rather than as an immediate condition to be achieved by the date of entry into the EU.

Of much more concern is the free movement of people across the European Union, which is at the heart of an open Europe. The UK is already a member of a Common Travel Area (CTA) with Ireland, which means that passports are not required for travel between the two countries. If Scotland were to join the European Union CTA (the Schengen Agreement), which all the new EU countries admitted to the EU after 2004 are required to do so, this would prove difficult. Travel from its largest tourism market (England) would become problematic because England is not part of the Agreement. It would mean that a German citizen flying from Berlin to Edinburgh would not need a passport, but an English citizen travelling by train from London to Edinburgh would be subject to checks at the border. Given the importance of the English market to Scottish tourism, it is unlikely that Scotland would join the Schengen Agreement without some special dispensation from the EU. As with the Euro, it is likely that the EU would adopt a pragmatic approach and allow Scotland to temporally opt out of the Agreement. This discussion highlights an issue for other countries that although tourism may not be a central consideration in their independence debates, there are many hygiene issues (others include flight transfers, levels of duty/taxes and cross-border ownership of tourism facilities by companies) that would impact the travel and tourism sectors and need to be taken into consideration in any discussions.

One of the issues generating much debate across Europe is that of migrants, as many countries with a strong, but seasonal, tourism product rely on temporary workers from outside their borders. Working overseas, in fact, is often regarded by workers as necessary in order to progress in the hospitality and tourism sectors. The development of a guest-worker programme and the need for guest-workers’ visas is perceived as essential to the development of tourism in newly independent countries.

On the positive side of independence, it is likely that air transport will experience new demands from overseas visitors, who would expect direct flights to the new country rather than transferring through a hub in another country. It is also possible that there would be an increase in the number of people from England visiting their friends and relatives in Scotland, because Scotland could be seen as a “foreign” country. There could also be an increase in business tourism, because businesses may have to negotiate new contracts and develop new cross-border client relationships. Conference and exhibition tourism could also be expected to increase in value, because the new country may be perceived as a new and even exotic destination.

Key lessons for DMOs

1. DMOs should not be afraid to take part in the political debate on the future government of their destination, because they have a public responsibility to explain the consequences for the tourism sector of selecting any particular form of new government.

2. Whatever form of future government is selected, the nature and power of the political relationships between the government entities will change, as will the relationship between
the different public and private sector tourism organisations. Once the possibility of political change becomes an established reality, there is no going back to previous political models, for, as Davis (1999, p. 3) noted, “devolution is a process, not an event”.

3. The transfer of funds and resources between one part of a country and another is a key unifying policy in most countries, and this policy of “social welfare unionism” (McLean et al., 2013) ensures that, in tourism, those DMOs that are perceived to need more support are given relatively more funds than the other DMOs. If devolution means that this policy would then be open to question, this could result in the adoption of a different funding model. DMOs should, therefore, be aware that there could be changes in their funding.

4. At the trans-national level, there could also be a realignment of regional tourism political power, with the smaller countries/regions and their emerging DMOs working together and supporting each other, leading to the waning of the political power of the larger country DMOs.

5. Particularly with the devo-max option, the new competitor for public funds to support tourism would be the demand for increases in the provision of social welfare services rather than other leisure services. DMOs would need to show that their operations could result not only in an increase in the number of tourists, but will also contribute to its residents’ overall social well-being.

6. The more a region takes control of its tourism product, the more likely there is to be a shift from a DMO focussing only on tourism marketing to a new focus on managing the whole tourism product, which means that the DMO would likely be required to provide a full range of services to support its tourism sector and not just marketing.

Conclusions

Is the independence referendum in Scotland the first sign of a paradigm shift in disruptive behaviour that is upsetting the normal political processes in Europe, which could lead to profound changes in the management of its tourism products? Certainly in post-devolution politics in Scotland, there has been, as Cairney and McGarvey (2013) noted, a shift and a focus on the “new Scotland”, which in economic terms has been dominated by the service sector such as ICT, renewable energy, retail, financial services and leisure and tourism, and a shift away from the traditional sector, such as heavy industry and manufacturing. In this new paradigm, tourism will be in competition with these new services for skilled employees and government-funded support. This move away from the “old” to the “new” has also been reflected in tourism, where there has been a rejection of the “old” activities such as passive sightseeing tours in the Highlands to a more fluid mixture of city, short-break and activity-holiday focus, but such a shift is not unique to Scotland.

With increasing devolution, there is always a question of where does the road end— is it full independence or is it what Rosenau (1984) labelled as “cascading interdependence”, with political decisions taken at all levels— regional, national, state, supra-national and global levels. There has also been an increase in awareness of the fact that decisions cannot be taken in isolation at one level without an understanding of their impact on factors at the other levels. In tourism, the key question is what level of power is best suited to deliver tourism. The answer is, of course, not only dependent on the level of devolution, but also on the spectrum of functions that the DMO is expected to deliver and on whether their role is focussed strictly on tourism marketing or on a much wider tourism management role.

It is widely recognised that travel and tourism are complex phenomena that are in a constant state of flux, with many unexpected and unforeseen influences emerging from the development of social, political, economic and technology trends. This, along with weak empirical laws, theories and hypotheses, which fail to explain even the most basic behaviour of tourists, let alone assist in understanding their needs and desires in the future, makes tourism futures an exciting activity to explore; perhaps, at some time in the future, it will be possible to understand and even explain tourist behaviours. However, as Postma et al. (2013) noted, we are at the beginning of this exploration. Perhaps recognising and understanding the political needs of different national...
groupings of people within a country and their drive to govern and manage their own destiny can help us to at least explain if not control one of the variables, and so enable us to better understand the future development of tourism.

The independence referendum in Scotland has opened up the debate on the wide range of issues that need to be explored and considered within the various future political models. It is hoped that this paper provides insights into some of these issues and that it will assist DMOs in understanding the many and complex issues and difficult questions they will face on a road that is not well travelled and has no clear destination. However, as often been quoted, perhaps the journey is more important than the destination; this certainly applies to the devolved powers/independence debates, as the tourism sector seeks answers to difficult questions.

References


Johnson, J.C. (1990), Selecting Ethnographic Informants, Sage, Newbury Park, CA.


Price, G. (1999), Scenarios for Scotland – A Journey to 2015, University of St Andrews, St Andrews.


Tourism Intelligence Scotland (2014), Scottish Tourism in the Future, Tourism Intelligence Scotland, Edinburgh.
VisitScotland (2014), Board Minutes, VisitScotland, Edinburgh, November.

Corresponding author
Brian Hay can be contacted at: b.hay@hw.ac.uk
New opportunities for future tourism after 25 years of political and socioeconomic transformation – foresight in Poland’s tourism planning

Matylda Awedyk and Agnieszka Niezgoda

Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to present the changes in political and socioeconomic conditions after 25 years of transformation and how it provided to adopt new methodology in tourism planning. It shows the possibilities offered by the use of the foresight process in planning the development of tourism in Poland. Since one of the main foresight goals is to identify trends, the paper takes attempt to verify trends that occurred in Poland after 1989 and if they have now and will have in the near future influence on Polish tourism. Detailed objective is to characterize the systemic transformation and its impact on the tourism economy.

Design/methodology/approach – Paper is the review, which used literature, legislation and strategic documents query. It also includes comparative analysis.

Findings – The analysis of the political and economic changes that have taken place in Poland over the last 25 years shows that they were positive for the development of tourism base. The impact of globalization and global trends is now clearly noticeable also in Poland. Political and economic changes allow the use of foresight methodology in studies on the future of tourism while maintaining its main attributes: anticipation, participation, action, networking, vision.

Research limitations/implications – The analysis included the impact of political changes and social trends on the tourist economy. Proposals that show the positive aspects of these changes relate to tourism and present extensive opportunities to create scenarios, both at the national and regional levels.

Practical implications – The analysis forms the basis for the activities of tourism entities in Poland. It shows the characteristics for the future of the tourism market particularly the demand side.

Social implications – The analysis of changes in systemic and social trends enables anticipation of changes in tourism as a social phenomenon.

Originality/value – The paper presents the historical basis for the development of tourism in Poland after political changes in relation to the planning of tourism by using the methodology of foresight. It also presents these phenomena and social trends that have an impact on the development of tourism.

Keywords Foresight, Poland, Transformation, Future tourism, Political changes, Socioeconomic changes

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

The political changes that occurred in Poland after 1989, crucially influenced the organization, structure and functioning of the state, society and economy. After 1989, economic and social solutions were introduced that would lead to the full compatibility between the real needs of the society in the field of tourism market and the functioning of the tourism economy. Obtaining conformity required time and the social acceptance of reforms.
Foresight, particularly within the European Union, is a very comprehensive and current topic at the international and regional level (Popper et al., 2007; Georgiou et al., 2008; Da Costa et al., 2008; Loveridge, 2009; Hilbert et al., 2009; Öner, 2010; Jemala, 2010; Destatte, 2010; Coates, 2010; Colwell and Narayanan, 2010; Könnölä et al., 2011; Daffara, 2011; Meissner, 2012; van Asselt et al., 2012; Calof and Smith, 2012; Cuhls et al., 2012; Ramos et al., 2012; Borch et al., 2013; Meissner et al., 2013; Prior et al., 2013; Andersen and Rasmussen, 2014; Borodako, 2014; Vecchiato and Roveda, 2014; Güell and Collado, 2014; Mora et al., 2014; Remi, 2014; Rijken-Kloomp and Van Der Duin, 2014; Keller et al., 2015; Sokolova, 2015). Over the past decades, the concept has evolved greatly and is much different from the first attempts of forecasting. This gradual transformation is undoubtedly an integral part of the changes taking place in European capitalism, because foresight is feasible only in conditions offered by the market economy (McKinnon, 1991; Woo, 1994; Szubert-Zarzeczny, 1995; Svejnar, 2002; Hayo, 2004; Rhonheimer, 2012; Richardson, 2014). Within the foresight process it is necessary to consider many factors that influence the success: the structure of the system, the competitive context in which firms operate, the type of internal organization, innovation and the role of governments and their business practices.

The development of various sectors of the economy are important factors affecting the socioeconomic development. It includes political factors, but also social trends associated with the process of globalization. The latter have a particular impact on the development of tourism. In Poland, there was no possibility of using typical foresight stages of research and scientific tools, before the socioeconomic transformation (1989). The centrally planned economy did not allow for the analyzing of the needs of the market and decisions were taken without public consultation. Changing the system, economic and social reforms helped foresight studies gain popularity and importance in Poland. Up until 2013 there were four completed national foresight programs (“National Foresight Programme – implementation of the results” – a project funded by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, 2011-2015; National Foresight Programme “Poland 2020” – a project funded by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education for 2006-2009; “Technology Foresight for Polish Industry – InSight 2030” launched in 2010 at the Ministry of Economy, “Foresight of human resources in modern economy” financed under the Human Capital Operational Programme) and about 45 regional and sectorial foresight projects (Awedyk, 2015). Unfortunately, none of the completed foresight projects were expected to carry out the research and scenario planning for the development of tourism.

The main objective of this paper is to present the changes in political and socioeconomic conditions after 25 years of transformation and how it provided a new methodology in tourism planning. It shows the possibilities offered by the use of the foresight process in planning the development of tourism in Poland. Since one of the main foresight goals is to identify trends, the paper makes attempts to verify trends that occurred in Poland after 1989 and if they have now and will have in the near future influence on Polish tourism. The detailed objective is to characterize the systemic transformation and its impact on the tourism economy. This is a review paper where literature of the topic, legislation and strategic documents query is used. It also includes comparative analysis.

Globalization vs systemic transformation and its impact on tourism in Poland after 1989

Analyzing the future of tourism comes to the forefront of globalization processes as determinants of changes in the world. It can be assumed that these processes will continuously influence the market processes in the future. Globalization is defined as “making the world a long-term process of integrating a growing number of national economies across borders, through the extension and intensification of interconnections (investments, productions, trades, cooperation), resulting in a global economic system with high correlation and significant repercussions actions/ongoing even in distant countries” (Zorska, 1998). Undoubtedly, this process leads, on one hand, to the convergence of social processes, including lifestyles and on the other hand leads to the unification of economic processes. The diversity of international markets and in particular the different systems of social and cultural values, conditioned by history and tradition, differs in standard of living or economic development of individual countries, as well as specific legal,
technical regulations, etc. force adaptation of the offered product to the specific requirements of the markets of individual countries. The changes of buyers’ needs will depend on the future of globalization.

Globalization and tourism as a socioeconomic phenomenon are linked closely, because tourism has become a powerful tool of globalization (Nawrocka and Opara, 2007). Basic aspects of globalization impact contemporary tourism, primarily (Bosiacki, 2006):

- the impact of globalization to the sector of demand; and
- the impact of globalization to the sector of supply.

The globalization of markets is based on the penetration of consumption patterns in a transnational scale, which creates so-called global consumer culture. Consumers who create this culture in a similar way associate the same value (symbols, brands, attitudes) with a specific location. The symptoms of globalization in the tourism sector are primarily: rise of global competition (an increase in the number of competitors in local markets, including the so-called big players, who are fighting for dominance in the relevant market), tendencies of enterprises to mega concentrate property and capital (rise of enterprise-organized group systems and hotel chains, focusing in various forms and with different ownership structures from a few to a few thousand individual enterprises), increasing cooperation between companies in the world (vertical and horizontal integration, mergers and strategic alliances), the development and use of advanced technologies in the field of information and communications – including internet (it manifests itself, inter alia, in the increase of mechanization and automation of many works carried out by staff at all levels in tourist enterprise, virtualization tour operators offers and building a network organizations). The globalization of the tourism sector is also reflected in the standardization offers of enterprises (Niezgoda and Markiewicz, 2011).

The influence of globalization on tourism in Poland can only be observed after 1989, when events occurred which resulted in economic freedom and a new policy, including the tourism policy of the state. In 1989 there was a fundamental change in political and socioeconomic conditions in Poland. Poland entered the path of transformation as did the first post-communist countries from Central and Eastern Europe. This change mainly included the political and economic systems. The main objective, namely, the introduction of democratic structures and mechanisms had to be achieved through market-oriented transformation of the entire economic system. This concerned both the legal system and opening the economy to foreign markets most of all for the privatization of trade, services and production enterprises (Chojnicki, 1990; Szlachta, 1993, 1994; Gorzelak, 1994, 1995a, b; Chojnicki et al., 1995; Bivand, 1996; Lodkowska-Skoneczna, 1996; Lodkowska-Skoneczna et al., 1996; Parysek, 1998a, b). Market-oriented transformation also focused on tourism as one of the sectors of the economy. The opening of borders and passport system changes allowed tourists to travel freely around the world. However, the development of tourism has not only affected, and will affect, the mechanisms related to the change of the political system, but also the demographic and social changes taking place at that time in Poland.

Changes in the state tourism policy

In socialism the state largely decided about the way of society’s holidays. The socialist industrialization led to the development of large industrial plants, especially in heavy industry, which were obliged to have a company holiday resort. The constitutionally guaranteed right of all citizens to relax gave tourism the quantitative rather than qualitative character and social mechanism to verify the tourism product worked in a very limited scale. The consumer-hiker did not have freedom of choice, and tourism goods manufacturers forced selection techniques for producing a predetermined type of product (Awedyk, 2009).

In the centralized political and economic system, tourism policy stakeholders were not able to actively influence specific legal and organizational solutions for the real need of goods and tourism services for the population due to the monocentric type of social scheme based on a socialist system. After 1989 new solutions were implemented that completely eliminated the previous concept for the development and functioning of Polish tourism. They led to full compatibility
between the real needs of society in terms of tourism consumption and functioning in a new economy market tourism industry (Szubert-Zarzeczny, 1995).

Before 1989, the ruling party’s political program, in which tourism was one of the social achievements, perpetuated the attitudes of many social groups to the widespread use of goods and tourism services. After 1989, political parties, trying to stimulate and transform the economic system did not take into account in their assumptions programming capabilities to ensure universal participation in tourism of Polish society. Therefore, in the period of socioeconomic transformation there were changed expenditures on tourism in the general consumption of the population. Tourism has become a part of the state economic policy and no longer an element of social policy, as it was before 1990.

The process of Polish socioeconomic transformation was also affected severely by external political events, which together with the events in the country had decided on the transformation of the tourism economy, and also changed the character of tourism policy in this period. The collapse of the Soviet Union and adopted ion of the economic policy within the Balcerowicz Plan, introduced by the then Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Finance (1989-1991) Leszek Balcerowicz, led to a sharp increase in the number of arrivals of ex-Soviet citizens to Poland, primarily not for reasons of tourism. Similarly, the reunification of Germany and the establishment of the Visegrad Group (an informal regional form of cooperation between the four countries of Central Europe – Poland, Czech, Slovakia and Hungary connected not only by the neighborhood and similar geopolitical conditions, but above all a common history, traditions, culture and values; the idea behind the creation of the V4 was to intensify cooperation in the field of building democratic state structures and a free market economy in the longer term participation of the European integration process; founded in February 15, 1991) influenced a strong “penetration” of Polish border areas. All of these arrivals were recorded as tourist traffic but in fact were often the target of trade or even smuggling. These arrivals inadvertently led to the application of new solutions in the tourism economy. The relationship between the transformation of the tourism economy and the systemic transformation mainly demonstrated in that the impact of the external environment led to the adoption of specific solutions, which then created its relationship during the transformation in tourist economy. Government policy rarely is conducive to tourism development, so during the transformation period the main task of tourism policy was anticipating changes in general economic policy of the government what in effect guided to changes in tourism (Szubert-Zarzeczny, 1985; Theuns, 1993). It is important to remember the role of the state in tourism before 1989 and the need to change the nature of the impact of tourism policy on the processes taking place in the tourism economy in the changed political and economic conditions.

State interventionism and decentralization of power in tourism economy

During the transformation period, the nature of the post-socialist state intervention was one of the most important elements of the entire process and it influenced the course of the reform. The transfer of economic power to lower levels of government was possible only in condition of the existence of the free market and private property. Since the previous political system had a high degree of centralization, the transformation required the existence of a separate entity that would be able to intervene in the political and economic processes. Such an entity could be only the unit state administration. With regard to the tourism transformation this role was taken by the Office of Physical Culture and Tourism established in 1991.

The initial phase of transformation created the conditions to develop the outline of a future tourism model in Poland. The proposed changes were a reflection of the economic policies introduced in 1990 and they contained some possibility of state intervention in tourism during the transitional period, which was to ensure the synchronization of activities of particular types of the tourism product. The production capacity of particular segments producing this product was differential in time and space. It should be remembered that in tourism there is a strong overlap of various forms of ownership and levels of management. The transformation helped to change the passive character of the socialist state tourism policy by increasing the activity of entities (Szubert-Zarzeczny, 1995). If there are conditions for an active tourism policy, and developed institutional organizations that can provide the necessary activity in this area, it means that the
necessary components and solutions are introduced to the government’s economic policies to support the development of the tourism economy (Szubert-Zarzeczny, 1995). Such conditions did not exist in Poland before transformation.

After 1989, the tourism economy very quickly used the economic freedom and decentralization of power. First introduced were changes in ownership relations, including privatization and restitution of national property. “Small privatization” (started by Balcerowicz plan), gave the greatest effects in relation to the tourism activities of tour agencies and tour operators as well as in the sector of tourism supply, in trade, catering and recreation services. However, the law on privatization from 1991, dealt with large state-owned enterprises which also included state-owned tourist companies, such as “Orbis”, “Sports-Tourist”, provoking strong resistance from the employees of these companies to the privatization methods.

The direction of the tourism transformation was also influenced by political – economic concepts of leading Poland to association with the European Union. The European Agreement of December 1991 created some of the standards governing the cooperation in the field of tourism between Poland and European Union countries. Article 88 of the agreement appointed tasks which include, among others: reorganization of Polish tourism, to lay the foundation of an innovative tourism industry, to create a modern and functional tourism infrastructure, to organize international marketing for promoting selected Polish regions as tourist centers, the reorganization of the central and regional administration, systematic promotion of selected tourist regions and harmonization of legislation with the provisions in force in the tourism economy of EU countries. Also, the aid program (PHARE) had been developed for Poland, which was implemented in tourism within the sub-programs Tourin I, Tourin II and Tourin III. Help for Poland under the PHARE program expressed primarily in consulting with Western European experts in the field of tourism policy, economics, law, etc. The role of tourism policy, including in particular the Office of Physical Culture and Tourism, was based on a significant stimulation of these processes, although the effects of the stimulation were limited initially (in the preparative phase of transformation) to organize different kinds of training and development of expertise by Western and domestic experts on tourism. (Zbieć, 1994).

In the second half of the 1990s and especially after 1999, there has been a fundamental change in the conditions of the functioning of Polish entities concerning politics and tourism economy. This was due to the progress and nature of the market system reforms. In fact there was an exhaustion of simple reserves of tourism development as a quantitative increase in cross-border traffic, which was related to an increase in unregistered trade turnover, positively influencing country’s balance of payments. This has been used in tourism policy as an argument justifying the large role of tourism in the Polish economy. With the development of market relations there took place the equalization of prices between Poland and neighboring countries (especially Germany and the Czech Republic) that limited cross-border trade. As a result, there was a new challenge for tourism policy entities (especially for the national office of tourism) associated with the change of conducting in Polish tourism marketing strategy. It became necessary to precisely recognize conditions, economic and non-economic factors that determine the future development of tourism in Poland. Also of great importance were the economic policies of neighboring countries, carried out in border areas, whose aim was to increase competitiveness and improve trade turnover of German and Czech economic entities operating in these areas (Szubert-Zarzeczny, 2001).

Tourism companies in a market economy

One of the elements of the “market” under socialism was a quasi-tourist market which, although had not held great importance in the whole of the evolving economic relations in a socialist economy, but could very quickly assimilate the majority of changes or market-oriented innovations made before 1989. In fact, tourism was this sector of the economy (socialist), which had a rudimentary form of private property and was operated by a limited market mechanism. To a greater extent, in comparison with other areas, were used, e.g. advertising and tourist information, as well as some elements of the marketing strategy (Golembski, 1980). In addition, the comparison with other areas of services, the regimentation of tourist services was negligible.
In the first period of political transformation in Poland, the functioning of tourist enterprises was not governed by any specific legislation. Applicable in previous years, provisions had been repealed and in the beginning of the 1990s was characterized by a complete legal chaos in the tourism market. The need to issue regulations on the tourism market was caused by the need to adjust Polish law to EU standards. In 1992, numbers of regulations were reviewed in terms of their impact on the development of the tourism economy. The review provided the basis to find that the most urgent area in tourism to regulate were the rules for tourist services, especially in terms of legal protection of consumer interests, and to align these standards of providing services to the European standards and principles. In signing the Association Agreement with the European Union, Poland introduced of European standards of legal consumer interests protection and European standards of tourist services. A watershed year was 1997, when a law was passed on tourist services (The Act of 29 August 1997 on tourist services. Uniform text. U. of 2004, No. 223, item 2,268, No. 273, item in 2,703 and 2,005, No. 175, item 1,462). This law has become a fundamental piece of legislation regulating the operation of the market’s basic tourism enterprises, which are travel agencies and hotel facilities. Moving into Polish law the provisions of the Council Directive of 13 June 1990, in its assumptions, intended to protect customers of travel agents on the package holidays and tours (Council Directive of June 13, 1990 on the package tours, holidays and trips, 90/314/EEC).

**Free passports use and visas abolition**

Until 1989, Polish citizens had no possibility of free passport use. They were issued by the Regional Militia Headquarters on the basis of the relevant permit and after the trip returned back. Since 1990, a passport is a document issued for ten years, by hand and stored in the house. The gradual opening of the borders occurred in the early 1970s. It was necessary to introduce such legislation, which would allow the control of foreign trips by the state authorities. This was necessary in the conditions of the undemocratic political system, non-removable currency deficiencies and an economy that ruled at that time in the country.

Another very important factor in Polish tourist traffic was the abolition of the visa requirement for Polish citizens to other European countries and certain countries in the world. Since May 1, 2004 visas against Polish citizens were completely abolished for entry into the European Union and European Economic Area – regardless of the purpose and duration of stay. Basis for visa-free movement within the European Union layout were contained in Schengen on June 14, 1985. It enacts one of the fundamental freedoms on which the European Union is founded – “freedom of movement.” Currently, the Poles are required visas to 102 countries of the world (Zasady wjazdu obywateli polskich do poszczególnych państw, 2015).

**Convertibility of the zloty and the ability of foreign currency purchase**

The development of outbound tourism in Poland was also influenced by the government’s decision regarding the convertibility of the zloty. Since 1960, the need for a “hard currency” made it difficult to travel to Western Europe, and solidified tourism within the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (within the Comecon bloc). In a time when the purchase of “non-socialist” countries currency was possible, Poles changed geographical directions of travel.

Before 1989 Poles were traveling combining pleasure of visiting another country with earning money. A significant part of trips made by Poles, especially to the countries of “second payment zone” (those countries in which the Polish zloty currency was not convertible), represented trips associated with taking up employment legal or illegal. Legal work was possible in our friend’s countries (Libya or Iraq), illegally in restaurants, construction sites, farms, plantations and factories in Britain, France, Germany or Sweden. A large part of tourists traveling abroad in the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s were engaged in trade. In the era of non-convertibility of Polish zloty, “allocation of 100 or 130 US dollars” and “books of monetary union” such trade was essential to make a trip ever come to fruition. In many cases, trips had become a way to survive the crisis in which more and more the society was plunged during the centrally controlled economy. In any case, the possibility of reaping financial benefits from trips before the revolutionary events of 1980-1981 significantly expanded the geographic
scope of Polish trips (Podemski, 2001). It is worth emphasizing that greater freedom in movement compared to residents of other socialist countries, allowed to satisfy this part of the demand, which could not be met under the deficiencies of goods market. On one hand, tourism was a part of the social area, on the other hand, due to the economic failure of socialism, was a way to get some cash resources (foreign currency gained during the arrivals of foreigners), so necessary to the state.

Opening of the Polish market for foreign travel companies

The share of foreign capital in the Polish economy before 1989 was negligible. Foreign investment did not fit into the framework of the socialist system, propagating Polish self-sufficiency and the idea of a civilization race with the West. In this issue, a breakthrough has been made only with the transformation of the political system. There was created the legal framework for the functioning of the free market, including the scope of its regulation also deals with issues on the Polish market participation of foreign entrepreneurs. The basic importance had the law of December 23, 1989 on economic activity (today not binding, repealed with effect from January 1, 2000 the new Act – Business Activity Law), which introduced the principle of freedom to conduct a business. The provisions of that Act (and its successor, the current) allowed foreign entities to open branches and representative offices in Poland. Foreign businesses participated in the Polish economy and by companies with foreign participation (joint venture) on the basis of the law of the basis of the Law of June 14, 1991 (repealed in 2000), Foreigners could also be partners of commercial companies (based on the provisions of the Commercial Code first, and now – from January 1, 2001 – the Commercial Companies Code). After joining the European Union, citizens of the Member States, subject to the adoption of an identical solution on the Polish citizens by the State, may undertake and pursue economic activity on the same terms as Polish entities.

Enrichment of certain social groups (the financial elites)

Initiated in 1989 the process of transformation in Poland, led not only to major political and socioeconomic changes but also many changes in the structure of society. One of the most important changes is the emergence of new social elites. Of course, the biggest and most spectacular transformations related to the political elite, which fundamentally changed not only the composition and the structure of ruling elite, but also the relationship between the elite and the rest of society. Much smaller changes were observed in other social elites (cultural, academic) which results from the fact that the requirements for candidates and recruitment mechanisms for these elites are fundamentally different than for the ruling elite.

Polish financial elites had begun to form in Poland only recently. Basically, their existence had been noticed for only a few years. The process of creation is a bit different than usual because it is characterized by relatively low levels of inheritance fortunes. Currently, the greatest number of affluent Poles are people who carry out business activities (in the broad sense), founded and operating with new economic and business opportunities existing after the political system changes. As it is known, wealth is the most important factor determining the level and structure of tourist activity (Aleziak, 2001). These people constitute now, and will constitute in the future, a social group which is the most common customer of travel agencies offering sightseeing trips and leisure in countries of other continents.

Social trends on tourism market

The general trend affecting consumer behavior in the market, and thus on the development of various sectors of the economy is the development of societies, which makes citizens want to be wealthier, better educated and more experienced. These characteristics are associated with increasing certainty as to their own needs and aspirations, also in relation to the tourist offer (Niezgoda, 2010). The complexity of the phenomenon of tourism and the broad spectrum of needs underpinning the emergence of tourism demand gives rise to an increasing number of market segments in terms of marketing (Franch et al., 2006) and types of tourists, in a broader social significance.
Another trend typical of the tourist market is individualization which results in tourists looking for new packages of services and types of relaxation. This trend may bring about certain tourists’ aversion to famous venues and resorts. This is because tourists know these venues and will be looking for their own sets of services (“build their own holidays”). Searching for a tourism offer, single-handedly, results in the growing significance of the internet in promoting regions. As an increasing number of individual tourists resort to the internet, their decisions about the destination and the services depend on the offer’s online availability as well as other consumers’ opinions (Niezgoda, 2013). The tourism market is very susceptible to changes brought about by the internet. An observation of buyers’ behavior, including e-readiness, inclines tourist agencies to intensify online activities. Research into the Polish tourist industry has revealed that 99 percent of tourist operators use the internet on a daily basis (Kachniewska et al., 2012).

An important trend resulting from the general processes of globalization is the global standardization, which makes a traditional reference group, such as job or family will lose their importance. A sense of identity is more and more often achieved through consumption or belonging to a community adapted. “Adapting community” means that the consumer reference group will constitute any social group that learns through a variety of media and means of communication (Bieger and Laeser, 2005). Standardization will mean the modern tourist will be increasingly aware of the possibility to meet their own needs and their own requirements resulting from the global service standards (Niezgoda, 2010). It is important to remember about the dialectical nature of globalization. Standardization is characterized by the progressive unification of lifestyles and consumption patterns, and individualization involves a noticeable increase in individual customer requirements. Standardization does not preclude individualization. An example might be the hotel industry, where tourists require a specific standard of rooms (related to globalization), while at the same time expect customized services of catering or additional services to meet their needs (Niezgoda, 2013). A tourist may purchase a standard package of services yet in the final destination he/she may look for a diversified offer, for example an opportunity to purchase local products, take part in a trip organized by a local agency, take up a fashionable sports discipline etc. One could therefore assume that as a result of general globalization, individualization processes are at the same time confronted with the growing significance of world standardization (Niezgoda, 2013).

During research into tourist demand, the buyers’ increasingly different ways to satisfy the needs and requirements were noticed which may trigger off more involvement in search and exchange of information as well as creation of a tourism product. Increase in affluence leads to enhanced individual quality of life. Due to new technologies and the progress of the internet tourists tend to manage their time more independently and more frequently decide to organize their holidays individually. Tourists want to use time “effectively.” This means that when they are on holidays, they want to see and experience as much as possible. People tend to maximize experience per time unit (Niezgoda, 2013). Sometimes, it means seeing or doing more things. On the other hand tourists may prefer to escape and relax enjoying deeper their time during the holiday (a classic example is the slow tourism movement).

Contemporary consumers tend to care more about their health; this is related to environmental behavior. As a result of the growing environmental awareness, a new consumer has emerged, willing to purchase ecological good and services, to change his/her lifestyle, habits and consumption models in order to protect the natural environment. An active internet user, the modern tourist who is highly aware of environmental issues may encourage others to be environmentally friendly and communicate to tourist service providers the need for an offer compliant with the requirements of environmental protection (Niezgoda, 2011).

Another important trend in the future will be the growing importance of seniors’ segment in the tourism market and the consequent increase in the importance of regular customers (Śniadek, 2006; Dann, 2000; Mansvelt, 1997). Tourists 55+ are people with extensive experience and with knowledge of their own needs. Before the political transformation in Poland, the financial situation of the elderly and the above described legal and political limitations hampered and often made trips impossible for those tourists. Today it is a growing
segment, which will result in it becoming even more important in the future. It should also be emphasized that this is not a uniform segment, which in the future will be a challenge for the marketing of tourist services. The above described general social trends affect now and will affect in the future the specific travel behavior.

Trends in Polish outbound tourism

Before forecasting the future of tourism in Poland it is important to analyze the changes in the dynamics of tourism flow. In the years 1993-2013, tourist movements attended by an average 17 million Poles. The highest number of travelers, 19.5 million, was recorded in 1999. This was higher than the minimum in 1994 by six million people (Makowska-Iskierka, 2014). To this threshold value were similar results in 2011 (13.9 million). The largest increase in number of participants in the entire tourist movements was recorded in 1994-1997 and 2011-2013. Lasting from the beginning of the twenty-first century the downward trend intensified in the years 2003-2004 (difference of 1.7 million tourists) and then was halted what coincided with the Polish accession to the European Union. A sudden drop of total tourist trips (a difference of 0.8 million people) occurred in 2010-2011. The most Poles decided for a trip abroad in the years 2007-2009 (six million in 2008). These were primarily migration to the UK and Ireland. In 2010-2011, as domestic trips, those trips recorded a decrease, but in 2013 bounced back to 5.5 million.

In the last two decades in tourist trips participated on average, 53 percent of Poles (aged 15 and over). Maximum covering the 63 percent of the population accounted in 1997 and 1999, with a minimum representing 43 percent recorded in 2011. (Makowska-Iskierka, 2014). In the period 1994-2013, the greatest portion of the population participating in foreign travel, left in 2008 (18.0 percent) and the lowest in 1994 (9.5 percent) and 1998 (10 percent). In these years, Poles were primarily interested in domestic travel which at that time reached their highest ratings.

Conducted in 2014, commissioned by the Ministry of Sport and Tourism (Janczak and Patelak, 2014), accurate analysis regarding Poles’ participation in tourism in 2013 allows to draw the following conclusions:

- Increases in the level of participation in relation to long-term trips (over five days) both domestic and foreign; for short-term trips abroad participation of Poles remains unchanged.
- Trips abroad are still rare and most elite; travel mainly business owners (36 percent), salaried employees and students (about 22 percent), also well-off people with higher education.
- Biggest tourism movement flow falls on the third quarter of the year (42 percent); the second to the popularity is Christmas and New Year period and the period of Winter; the least active for traveling abroad were during the months of April and November.
- The main directions of trips are Germany (close distance, a significant number of Polish migrants live there, commercial cooperation), UK, Italy, Czech Republic, France, Spain; while there was a decrease in trips to Ireland, Lithuania, Bulgaria and Denmark.
- The most common objective of trips abroad in 2013 were leisure, recreation and holidays, they accounted for as much as half of all trips (+6 pts. percent y/y), while the share of VFR travels fell (−2 pp. y/y), also decreased the percentage of business trips to a level of 26.5 percent (from 28 percent in 2012).
- For the purposes of leisure, recreation and holidays Poles usually travel to (in order of popularity), Croatia, Italy, Germany, Spain, Greece, Slovakia, Turkey, the Czech Republic and France. In order to VFR Poles traveled mainly to Germany and the UK (a half of all visits) and to Norway, the Netherlands, France and Ukraine; for business: Germany (one-fourth of all trips), the Netherlands, Italy, France, Norway, UK.
- Poles traveling around the country most often visit cities; for long-term trips almost half of trips were combined with a visit to the city; for short-term – up to 80 percent; next destination by popularity for long-term trips are mountain areas with the same success as rural areas (both 29 percent), short trips take place more often to the countryside (36 percent) than in the mountain areas (22 percent); every fourth long-term trip and one in ten of short trips are journeys to the seaside.
Going abroad, Poles mostly traveled by plane (42 percent of responses), it was the means of transport which gained in popularity significantly (increase by 10 pts. percent compared to 2012) ahead of the car – the second most popular choice; car held 35 percent of the trips (less than a year ago by 4 pts. percent).

Increase in the average spending (2012-2013 – more by 7 percent), incurred while traveling by 12 percent.

Observing the expenses incurred on travel abroad in 2013, can be seen a clear relationship between the amount of expenditure and financial situation of tourists: those setting out their financial situation as good earmark for the trip on average 3,533 zł (883 EUR), but held relatively shortest travel, what else increased, more disparities in expenditures converting them per a day (353 zł/88 EUR); people with average financial status spend for the trip on average 2,206 zł (551 euros) and a day longer of traveling than the wealthiest, which gives 201 zł (50 EUR) per day; the worst-off opt for low-cost trips – 1,629 zł per person (407 euros), but spend most days on the road (13), so its daily cost is even lower – 125 zł (31 EUR).

The percentage of traveling seniors (≥65 years) was in 2004 in Poland 20.7 percent, which on the background of many European countries does not look good; higher rates were gained in Czech Republic (26.2 percent), Slovakia (34.6 percent), Germany (40.8 percent), UK (49.7 percent), France (59.8 percent) and the Netherlands (61.2 percent) (Śniadek, 2007).

In 2013 in tourist trips participated 49 percent of children aged up to 14 years, so 11 pts. percent more than in 2010; it means a return to the trend before 2010 (and even some improvement), when the participation of children in tourist trips were estimated at approx. 42-46 percent.

Children primarily participate in domestic trips – 43 percent, especially in long-term ones: in 2013, 31 percent of children aged up to 14 years participated in trips lasting a minimum of five days, and 20 percent in travels with at least one overnight stay, but not more than four days (three nights); in outbound tourism children’s participation under the age of 14 years was 9.5 percent.

These statistics allow us to conclude that in the future the tourism market in Poland will grow in terms of both quantity and quality (clear segmentation of consumers and diversification of trips destinations). The knowledge of these important changes occurring in recent years in Polish tourists’ behavior and traveling directions can be used in the scenario planning, what is one of the main elements of the foresight process.

Foresight as the opportunity in development of tourism in Poland in present systemic conditions

The phenomena that have affected tourism in Poland are multithreaded due not only to the legal, political and economic (economic transformation) but also social nature. The latter requires forecasts and anticipation of changes in order to make the best prediction of the future. Trends extrapolation makes it possible to write scenarios for the future and what helps best to prepare market operators for competitive activities. Therefore, foresight is an important instrument for such activities.

Foresight considers a future shaped by many complex and uncertain visions. It is assumed that the future is open and not predetermined (Güell and Collado, 2014). Forecasters tend to focus on a limited range of issues for which there is “hard data” in government statistics, and only by implication rely on the “soft” factors. In contrast to this approach, the same “soft” factors can be the foundation and an important element of foresight. That is why foresight uses mostly quality tools. Considering the fact that forecasting future events is associated with conducting research and analysis of data that are imprecise and vague, the choice of qualitative methods in the study of the future of tourism seems to be a good solution.

According to many authors (Martin, 1995; Gavigan and Scapolo, 1999; Güell, 2012; FOREN 2001), applying foresight to territorial solutions can be defined as the systematic, involved data collection and the creation of vision for the future based on current decisions and mobilizing
common action of territorial scope. In this way foresight, as a research approach, takes place in which regional policy, strategic planning and future studies overlap. Foresight does not plan, does not define the current policy nor replaces current decision making. On the contrary, it complements these activities and increases their effectiveness.

It is important to mention, a foresight paradigm that is built around a practical approach to future planning, consists of finding many solutions and opportunities that should be introduced into the environment before it will be forced to do so. This means a different course of action: transition to analyze the “process” of creating possible scenarios for the future, rather than creating a specific “product” in the form of one version of the future events. The challenge of foresight is to see the structure of the future, not its actual content and the more details. In result such actions in consequences primarily are focused on networking and forums available for public debates. At this point, should also be pointed out the differences between forecasting and foresight. Forecasting imagines the future as a linear and unique process based on events from the past; the future is clearly predictable (Güell, 2012); assumes rather passive and descriptive form, studies and implements scientifically designed path of the future; is primarily based on quantitative methods and tools. Foresight predicts the future as a complex and uncertain vision; the future is open and uncertain; is uniquely active – checks how the consequences may lead the individual to change and what options for action will lead to the development of an alternative (desired) future; mostly uses qualitative methods and tools. A significant element distinguishing also the foresight of forecasting is the presence of the experts in the research process, who in the final stages assess achieved results. Above all, they express their views on elaborated scenarios for development of the area of research.

Markidas and Wheelwright (1987), reviewing various forecasting techniques stated that “depending on the methods used, various empirical studies have reached different conclusions” and that “no studies show no clear superiority of one method over another.” He also considered that there is no single method that over time surpassed the others, and the appropriate method largely is dictated by forecasting horizon. This finding is also supported by Witt and Witt (1992, 1995) and Song et al. (2009), reaching exactly the same conclusion from his analysis on research methods used in tourism forecasting.

Analyzing future research methodology, in the context of used surveys techniques it allows three sources of typology that are taken in their implementation to be distinguished:

- forecasting – typically draws on formal models, such as econometric and demographic extrapolation;
- envisioning – draws on science fiction imagery and metaphors, historical analogy and incidents; and
- polling – conducted on media debates and expert knowledge, then used in scenario planning as a fundamental tool of foresight.

Most approaches to futures studies involve all three activities to some degree, even when they appear to emphasize a particular technique. For example, most econometricians and demographers use their own judgment and expectations to fine-tune their extrapolations. Each activity requires special skills and appeals to a different kind of audience. Policymakers appear to prefer the quantified forecasts offered by extrapolation; futures for the general public often include creative visual or verbal imagery, and business and community groups often favor participative polling-based approaches (Cole, 2007). The emphasis across these activities, the mix of techniques used, and the overall approach used in any given futures study reflects a host of issues – for example the topics to be considered; the time scale, the orientation/perspective, philosophy/skills, etc., of the futurist(s); and the anticipated audience.

It seems that foresight can offer tangible benefits in planning tourism in Poland. First, it systematizes discussions on the future prospects of tourism development taking into account a wide range of factors, thus building consistent and credible visions of the future. After the political transformation it can be seen that the global trends and globalization also refer to the Polish reality and have wide impact for the tourism economy, but because of the history they appeared in Poland much later. This is undoubtedly a positive development which not only allows the use of
good experiences and practices of economically developed countries, but also allows the use of already proven research techniques and tools that have worked in Western Europe. Despite the lack of experience and examples, issues related to the future scenarios creation, as well as foresight can provide a new quality in research on the development of the tourism market in Poland. As used in a wide range in foresight research qualitative methods do not need to be easier or less time-consuming than the quantitative ones. They are essential, because they help in identifying different factors than those which can be inspected by quantitative measurement, thus allowing them to be included them in the analysis. As a result, additional information can be obtained in relation to those obtained using conventional quantitative methods. It often happens that the detection of the phenomenon of qualitative methods process generates a quantitative study to determine its size or intensity.

Second, it helps to formulate realistic and innovative tourism strategies that can accept the views of many stakeholders, future not present needs and capabilities, and multi-layered vision of the future, which, particularly in the analysis of the development of tourism must take into account the element of risk, an unpredictable issue. In tourism, many important factors that determine the demand and supply are constantly changing. Sometimes, it turns out, the information that did not fit into in the standards of quantitative measures tests had a key role in the development of tourism. Hence, analyses regarding the future of tourism, are not very popular and rarely are the subject of academic interest. Today, however, modern techniques and methods of making research on the future, takes into account the subjectivity in making decisions, and this is essential in determining the future direction of tourism development. Planners need to learn how to be more sensitive to information that initially may seem insignificant, but really that’s what they called “weak signals,” they can dramatically affect the changes in culture, tradition, society and individual decisions taken. Planning the future, the identification of future trends may have positive anticipation in market changes what should help to avoid the element of surprise and loss, as well as become a determinant of competitiveness for tourism organizations or regions.

Third, in order to exchange and disseminate knowledge through practices of foresight, networks of experts are created among stakeholders and policy makers. In contrast to traditional planning processes, which typically have limited sectorial coverage, through the method of participation (participation in the project of many diverse partners representing different interest groups, as well as different areas of experts and (or) expertise), foresight is gradually building an integrated vision of a possible future. It is therefore an important addition to the established and traditional planning processes by supplementing them with new elements and values, strengthening local agents, and ensuring the legitimacy of territorial strategies.

Not used previously in the research on the development of tourism in Poland, the methodology of foresight can be a very useful tool in the scenario’s planning. It should be noted, however, that the use of qualitative methods in scenario planning is quite widely used in many other fields of science research and strategies in the world, despite this forecasting still has little application in tourism. Tourism through its unique, changing character, globally, but also as far as possible regionally and locally can be appropriately formed. In a time of rapidly occurring changes, there is no possibility that linear projections based on statistical figures, which are now perceived as only probable, had a chance of success. Foresight however, belongs to a group of researches using complex and uncertain methods and tools. As it tries to anticipate the future with regard to numerous factors affecting its social, technological, economic, ecological and political aspects requires extensive research and expertise as well as the experience of participants.

Despite the above-mentioned clear advantages of foresight it may have some disadvantages, as it seems it will create problems in the implementation of its particular assumptions. In the first place, foresight cannot solve or overcome social, economic, environmental and political problems that affect the development of tourism both at national and regional levels. So far, in Poland, the traditional planning based on the belief that the use of expertise, in order to achieve specific goals, will guarantee effective and efficient management. Often these plans (strategies) do not take into account the diversity of local conditions or propensities to new situations that can suddenly turn out to be unpleasant surprises. Prognostics tend to focus on a limited range of issues for which there is “hard” data in government statistics, and only presumably rely on the
“soft” factors. In contrast to this approach, the same “soft” factors may be an important element and the foundation of foresight.

Second, foresight cannot impose a consensus where there are deep disagreements between stakeholders’ directions and development priorities. Disagreement and expectations among the participating partners can take place in case of loss of compliance objectives or vision for the future of the region or sector, but also in the context of building common results, which will then be implemented after the completion of the process. The tourism product is very complex, because its elements are offered by various entities (tourist and hotel businesses, local government, carriers). Success depends on their cooperation and common strategies of action. Unfortunately, very often the tourism market stakeholders have divergent goals and may give rise to conflicts. The concept, which enables the achievement of common objectives as sustainable development, said even in the most important piece of legislation in Poland, the Polish Constitution.

Third, foresight is not a fast means for the pressing problems because it requires lengthy analysis and to create a network of experts that does not bring immediate results. The literature clearly indicates that such projects should focus on the long-term period (national projects, where the far future includes a period of 15-30 years, while at regional level often can be analyzed for 10-20 years).

Finally, foresight requires some rules that may be difficult to implement in developing public institutions whose possibilities are rather small. Often, short-term factors, such as the establishment of the annual budget in territorial units, or the pressure of the elections are the main goal of the activities of public institutions, and this is undoubtedly a barrier to the much more important long-term planning.

Conclusion and discussion

The coming years will bring many changes in tourism and the way free time is spent. Predicting directions of development of tourism, both globally and regionally, has the potential to play an important role in increasing the benefits of tourism and alleviate problems associated with it. Planning the future, the identification of future trends and with the consequence anticipating changes in the market should help avoid the element of surprise and loss, as well as become a determinant of competitiveness for stakeholders. In dealing with uncertainty it is crucial to be creative and have the ability to quickly adapt to changes. The new conditions, requiring new solutions help to keep the rapidly changing economy in business.

Poland is the country in which the change of political conditions led to a fairly dynamic development of the tourism sector, to increase interest in outbound tourism and create the conditions to achieve these goals. There were situations and factors changing the operation’s field of stakeholders in the tourism market. Therefore, it may be an excellent example of the necessity of foresight’s use in order to avoid drastic changes of the business environment and the functioning of tourist regions.

Indicated relations were descriptive with attention to the social dimension of both the tourist movement as well as trends affecting consumer behavior. Of course, for a more detailed analysis of the described above phenomena, it would be worthwhile to consider the extrapolation of trends in terms of volume. However, it is a difficult task, because the statistics of tourist trips are not uniform with respect to different countries, and besides, it largely consists not only holidays (e.g. as described above shopping trips abroad after the opening of the borders in 1989). A major difficulty in collecting quantitative data are also the processes of European integration and the opening of borders, which prevents statistical control of border crossings. On the other hand, it is further proof of the need for a qualitative form of surveys of researchers that could describe the current state and future of the sector. Therefore foresight can be such a tool.

Analyzing the current external and internal factors, global, regional and local trends, tourism industry is able to anticipate and develop possible scenarios for the development of Poles’ tourism. It is one of the essential conditions for a future, a positive functioning of the tourism economy. Important both for tour operators sending tourists abroad, as well as for traders offering holidays in Poland. Unfortunately, at the moment, in Poland, there is shown a complete
lack of activity in preparing for the changes caused by global trends as well as the climate changes. The future scenarios for the development of tourism are now extremely important for mountain regions, where entrepreneurs focused on winter tourism, based on snow have no alternative offer condemning the region to a total defeat in the tourist world. It seems that to overcome institutional barriers, financial and socio-cultural process will be long and difficult. Unfortunately, even tourism regions in Poland could still be attractive for tourists, future scenarios for tourism development based on the needs and opportunities today are not being taken into account in local strategies. It should be emphasized that policies must be consistent at all levels of government of the country (Niezgoda, 2004). It should be aware that Polish society now has a much greater impact on the future than it did in the past. Very important is the ability to recognize signals that currently may seem insignificant, but in the end may become a powerful impulse to create new trends. Appropriate action means that the future is not one of the great unknown, but the result of actions of the government, tour operators and citizens.

The process of political transformation from a system based on a centrally controlled economy to a market economy in the 1980s and 1990s affected many countries in Central and Eastern Europe. Changes in Poland, which was the first in the region, gave a signal to other socialist countries for similar transformations, primarily in Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Bulgaria and Romania. Fundamental shift resulted in significant differences in the existing structure of supply and demand on the tourism market, as well as diversification of motivations for traveling. The current legal and economic regulations, which are widely used in democratic countries, offer new opportunities both in techniques used in decision making and planning, as well as in setting goals that can be achieved. It is important to note, however, tourism development is based on values and attractions it may be very different in particular countries. Therefore, despite the similarity of political changes and tools for tourism development can proceed variously.

Foresight is one of such tools, what results from its main goals: anticipation, vision, participation, action and networking. Foresight foreshes and plans in an organized and long-term way social, economic and technological needs and development. Clarifies leading strategic vision, which is an expression of the needs of society involved in the project. Foresight enables participation, which involves an active interactive methods of engaging and supporting the debate of various partners representing many interest groups. Thanks to the foresight detailed action plans it develops and implements strategic visions which present decisions can transform into the image of the future. It also creates a network to exchange ideas, opinions, experiences and specialist knowledge creating new social communities.

Undoubtedly, the opportunity that is offered now should be seized and new solutions should be used. Before now, in countries of the former socialist bloc most of them did not have the right and the conditions to exist. Foresight is the great offer to try.

References


Further reading


Corresponding author

Matylda Awedyk can be contacted at: awedyk@awf.poznan.pl

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website: www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm
Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
The geopolitics of future tourism development in an expanding EU

Peter Antony Singleton

Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to assert the link between the process of EU accession, the consolidation of democratic processes and the improvement of economic and tourism infrastructure to incoming tourism flows.

Design/methodology/approach – The methodology of this paper involves explanation of an analysis exploring links between governmental systems and the order necessary for economic development and tourism. The argument is supported by the recent history of tourism development in three countries, two within the EU and one outside.

Findings – Accession to the EU (especially in the case of Eastern European countries) constitutes a way to emulate the democratic freedoms and greater economic prosperity of existing EU member states. Tourism is one of the areas of economy that benefits from the stability and growth EU membership can bring. Accession to the EU has had beneficial effects for acceding in terms of political stability and tourism growth.

Originality/value – The opportunities that EU membership can bring to tourism development for example (also strategies to exploit these opportunities) depend to a large degree on the international relations between the EU and its rivals. The extent to which tourism demands ebb and flow is governed by a range of factors, but the issues of conflict and security are game breakers. Understanding the factors and trends involved in the peaceful resolution of conflict (democratic model) or use of force to resolve conflict (military model) is key in the analysis of future tourism opportunities.

Keywords Croatia, Israel, Geopolitics, Greece, Consolidated democracy, EU accession, Tourism growth

Paper type Viewpoint

Introduction

Despite the certainty of threats to security and conflicts between countries and within them, awareness of the underlying geopolitical factors affecting future scenarios for order and security in key areas of Europe is often missing. The consequence of the breakdown of security is a game changer for tourism, as it is for all kinds of economic development. In many areas of the world where armed conflict occurs, it is usually accompanied by economic deficits and by the downturn (albeit this might be temporary) in tourism in particular. This paper explores the connections between security and order and the democratic governmental systems. It explores the link between enhancement of order (the consensual way the EU settles its differences) and benefits to tourism flows. It further asserts that these factors explain the continued expansion of the EU and also explains the conflict with Russia. In particular, the intention is to arrive at a better understanding of how tourism flows will be affected in future (negatively or positively) by the geopolitics of EU expansion. This understanding could be used by governments, tourist boards and other tourism stakeholders to be smarter in their planning, raising the prospect of designing smart (future looking) strategies in relation to tourism growth based on a greater awareness and deeper understanding of the geopolitics around the EU (Figure 1).
The general hypothesis being put forward by this paper is that consolidated democracy in the EU is driving its expansion by offering the opportunity of order coupled with economic (including tourism) benefits to acceding nations. To support this argument, there is a discussion on the nature of the democratic processes and structures that are the basis of EU accession agreements to those countries wishing to join the EU. Finally, examples of Croatia, Greece and Israel will be looked at related to their governmental systems, the levels of political stability and of order achieved and whether there is a correlation to their tourism development. Croatia (first example) is interesting as it was the last country in July 2013 to accede to EU membership, after an extended process of 12 years. During that period, accession agreements made between Croatia and the Commission of the EU laid down the requirements for Croatia to “converge” with other EU member states across a broad spectrum of areas from governance to the economy to regional issues. In that sense, the effects of accession on the Governance and economy of Croatia were already being felt during the 12 years before accession actually happened. Next, the case of Greece is a contrast to Croatia in that Greece acceded to the EU in 1981, so it provides an insight into the longer term effects of EU membership after accession. Finally, Israel is featured as it is outside the EU but has since its birth as a nation been under almost continual geopolitical threat, some might say existential threat. This has resulted in an unstable security situation, at times, resulting in loss of order in regions of Israel and indeed wars of different kinds. In spite of which, tourism, though suffering through periods of conflict, has shown itself to be remarkably resilient.

Geopolitical “tectonic plates”, conflict in Ukraine

The conflict in Ukraine and raised levels of tension along the Eastern EU border can be seen as a clash of geopolitical tectonic plates (the plates being the governmental systems) along which geopolitical storms can occur. One of these storms is occurring now between Ukraine and Russia with the EU, with America also involved in opposing Russia’s actions. This conflict has the potential to spread. The perspective of a geopolitical clash is underpinned by the view (shared by many scholars including notably Richard N. Haass, President of the Council on Foreign Relations in the USA) that the status quo regarding order in the world (present since the end of the Cold War) is now “unravelling”. Haass identifies three reasons for this. First, power is now diffused across many actors, due to diminishing America’s role as the only world superpower. Second, respect for the political and economic role of America has lessened, and third, recent (US lead) military interventions have raised doubts about America’s judgement and the reliability of its threats and promises. As a result, America’s global influence overall has diminished, indeed the
Western World is confused on the whole issue of when and how to militarily intervene. This, argues Haass, gives rise to the geopolitical turbulence we are experiencing in the world now.

The confrontation taking place in Ukraine has its roots in the expansion of the EU and the plans for Ukraine to opt for closer economic ties with the EU, which is perceived as a threat by Russia (and by others), in particular by its governing elite. Many countries that were formerly under Russian control in the days of the Soviet Union are now EU members or are in an accession process leading to membership. Many also have significant Russian-speaking ethnic minorities within their populations, as in the case of Ukraine, situated next to the Russian border, who retain allegiance to Russia. The expansion of the EU has been dramatic due to its success as a political and economic governmental organisation. In combination with NATO, the EU has been a force for peace, order and economic growth in Europe over the past decades. In contrast, Russia is widely seen as a leading example of “oligarchic capitalism” (Dresen, 2015).

EU growth, expansionist or organic?

The motivations for EU expansion and the methods used to achieve it are contentious and centre on whether this growth has been organic, i.e., a response to acceding countries wish to join, or whether this has been a goal of the EU itself to grow its power and influence. The EU has been expanding since its inception in 1951, but more particularly so in the last two decades, and is set to continue to do so in the coming years. In 2004, the largest ever expansion of the EU occurred as ten countries acceded to full membership: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia. Seven of these were part of the former Eastern Bloc (of which, three were from the former Soviet Union and four were members of the Visegrad group), one was part of the former Yugoslavia (together sometimes referred to as the “A8” countries) and the remaining two were Mediterranean islands and former British colonies (Cyprus and Malta). In 2007, Romania and Bulgaria followed. In 2013, Croatia officially acceded after a process of 12 years. Currently, there are six more countries at various stages in the accession process: Albania, Macedonia, Iceland, Montenegro, Serbia and Turkey. Were the populations of acceding countries demanding membership of the EU? If so, what exactly is the definition of what the EU offers that is so desirable? Can we regard the EU as a consolidated democratic system?

Consolidated democracy or democratic deficits in relation to the EU

At this point, it is useful to consider in more detail what the democratic system of the EU is and whether it qualifies as being referred to as a consolidated democratic system. What the EU offers and is built to deliver is enhanced cooperation between member states leading to better trade and economic prosperity for all. The whole system is predicated on the existence of order, security and a system of resolving disputes peacefully and democratically. The EU system of governance has an impressive record on preserving the peace within its borders and stimulating economic growth (there have been no wars between EU members since the formation of the EU in 1951). However, there is a lively debate over the nature of democracy in the EU, which is illuminating to explore. Two aspects are important here: first, what is a consolidated democratic system, and second, does the EU qualify to be described as such. If it does, is there evidence of gains in political stability and economic growth in acceding countries?

For the purposes of addressing the nature of democracy, and the debate around the definition of the term “democratic consolidation”, both Schedler (1998) and Huntington (1991) provide excellent discussions of the subject. Similarly Dahl (1989), Lipset (1994), Lijphart (1984) and Tocqueville (1838) all make major contributions towards a grasp of the requirements for and content of consolidated democracy. It is illuminating to consider several metaphors that describe democratisation as a process. Tocqueville talked of democracy being “an impure river” and introduced the notion that democracies are more than capable of inducing what he termed “soft despotism”. This is an illusion of democratic control concealing “a network of small and complicated rules” rendering the electorate (citizens) powerless.

In contrast to Tocqueville, Schedler (1998) prefers the metaphor of progression or regression to describe the process of democratisation. He also refers to reverse waves, meaning that consolidating democracy is aimed at preventing reverse waves – a return to authoritarianism or dictatorship, or resurgence of communism, for example. Consolidated democracy is therefore...
seen as having permanency, being enduring, possessing resilience and being irreversible, whilst
democracy lacking consolidation is seen as fragile, unstable and vulnerable. In the final analysis,
Schedler (1998) contends that emphasis should be focussed on the longevity of a democracy, its
sustainability and the expectation that it will last into the foreseeable future.

Polyarchies

A detailed and practical approach to the subject of democratic consolidation was taken by
Robert Dahl (1989). He pinpointed what a so-called consolidated democracy consists of. Five
criteria are to be met in the quest for democratic consolidation: effective participation, equal
opportunity to form preferences, voting equality, control of the agenda and inconclusiveness.
He calls politically advanced countries “polyarchies”. Polyarchies have elected officials, free and
fair elections, inclusive suffrage, rights to run for office, freedom of expression, alternative
information and associational autonomy. Critically, polyarchies provide real mandated policy
alternatives, to be voted on by citizens.

Do then the EU institutions (EU Parliament, Commission, Council of Ministers and Courts of Human
Rights) qualify? There is a strong divergence of opinion on this question. Criticism of the EU’s
democratic system is led by Simon Hix (1998). He asserts the EU system lacks democratic
accountability and legitimacy as compared to national governments. Only 50 per cent of EU citizens
think their country’s membership is a good thing (Hix, 1998). Moravcsik (2002), on the other hand,
emphasizes the notion of “salience” in refuting claims to democratic deficit. Salient issues are those
that voters can be relied upon to focus on enough to generate stable preferences. Others are
issues best left in the hands of institutions who retain the delegated power to take decisions on
behalf of the voters. Moravcsik contends that the vast majority of policy areas dominated by EU
institutions are of little concern or interest to voters, so the fact that they might miss direct
democratic control is unimportant, even positive. Trade in the EU or the regulation of markets
(traditionally areas in which EU policy dominates) should not be confused with issues such as taxes,
welfare, defence, healthcare, pensions, education and immigration, all of which are highly salient to
voters and where decisions are taken at (directly elected) national Government level.

To sum this up, whilst the existence of democratic deficits in the EU structure alone (the fact that
EU elections are rarely about EU issues, the fact that key political functions like the EU
Commission President, and ECB President are both appointed by the Council of Ministers)
precludes the system qualifying in Dahl’s terms as a “polyarchy”, the combination of national and
EU democratic representation that an acceding country would enjoy enhances the argument that
membership of the EU will strengthen democratic institutions and serve as guarantee for greater
individual citizens rights, human rights and political representation. These are all aspects which
generally lead to the preservation of order and security by enabling the resolution of disputes
within and between EU members by discussion and voting instead of the use of force. This in turn
provides the environment where inward investment in infrastructure and growth of tourism can
flourish. The next section explores the changes to governance political stability and economic
health, which have taken place in Croatia and Greece during and after their accession.

Croatia, Greece, EU membership, order and tourism growth

Croatia acceded to full membership of the EU on 1 July 2013. Many commentators believe that
the decision to apply for membership to the EU marked a turning point for Croatia in terms of its
political stability. Croatia does provide an insightful example of a country with many interlinked
challenges, not least of which is its recent regional conflict triggered by the breakup of the
Yugoslaavia in the 1990s.

Pusic, Croatia’s Foreign Minister at the time, commented on her country’s accession process
(lasting 12 years and four months) recently: “We used the process to build our own institutions
and stabilise our State” (Pusic, 2013). The long duration of Croatia’s accession process has been
used to bring about a transformation according to Gerald Knaus (Head of the European Stability
Initiative Think Tank). Back in 1995, Croatia was led by Franjo Tudjman, a nationalist authoritarian
leader. By the time of his death in 1999, Croatia was internationally isolated. Its army and secret
services were not under full control, and corruption at the very top of government was rampant.
Commenting on the progress that Croatia has made Gerald Knaus (2011) now states that Croatia’s positive transformation looks “inevitable”. Combinations of factors have contributed to this remarkable turnaround. Ivo Sanader’s (leader of the Croatian Democratic Union Party) election in 2003 proved to be a turning point for the country. Sanader wasted little time in leading Croatia into NATO and applying to join the EU. Croatia’s security services were brought under control, and Croatia begun cooperating fully with the UN’s Yugoslavian War Crimes Tribunal in The Hague. Ironically enough, Sanader was arrested in 2012 on charges of corruption himself, an indication of how far Croatia has come in a relatively short time. His arrest sent a clear message: being in a position of power in Croatia was no longer an exemption from the rule of law and the justice system. Zagreb academic Borka Lugaric (2015) takes the view that the EU accession process has “fixed” the legal system in Croatia and has been instrumental in eradicating Croatia’s “omnipresent corruption”.

EU structural funding

The motive behind EU membership remains not only political stability (democratic consolidation in all its aspects) but also access to the EU’s development funding and the open market. The Economist recently reported that 60 per cent of Croatia’s exports go to the EU and that 11 billion Euros worth of structural funds are earmarked for Croatia in the next decade. EU Membership, however should not be seen as a panacea for economic and tourism growth (or for diminishing of traditional hierarchies), but it has offered Croatia vital opportunities. Despite those opportunities, Croatia’s economy has been in recession for five years now and has an unemployment rate of 20 per cent. Against this trend, tourism has blossomed and grown, taking advantage of enhanced political stability and infrastructure improvements. A mixture of Euro scepticism, pro-European feeling and ignorance still characterises voter opinion on the EU in Croatia. While its EU status divides opinion, when given the opportunity, in January 2012, 66 per cent of Croatians voted in favour of EU membership (Traynor, 2012). That membership does not guarantee prosperity but does offer Croatia the opportunity to compete in an expanded market on a level-playing field. To survive and prosper, countries like Croatia must seize the opportunity and be competitive. Their challenge must be to use the political stability created by membership as a spring board to economic prosperity.

Tourism development in Croatia (2000-2014)

As mentioned, the period of accession for Croatia has been one of impressive growth for its tourism industry. One complicating factor is the economic recession that explains the 2009 dip. However, it is clear though from Eurostat (2015) figures that tourism has been growing faster in Croatia than the EU as a whole. It is also clear that a large majority of foreign guest nights to Croatia come from within the EU itself. Again according to Eurostat figures in 2012, only 11 per cent of foreign guest nights were from outside the EU. In 2011, Croatia experienced tourism growth of 6.1 per cent in foreign guest nights as compared to the EU average of 3.6 per cent (Eurostat, 2015). Obviously, growth at these rates would not be sustainable without investment in tourism infrastructure (new motorway construction, airport facilities and a range of accommodation from camping sites to luxury hotels), and here Croatia has benefited not only from funds that were an integral part of its accession agreement with the EU but also from access to other fundings from EU financial institutions. In 2014, for example, a 25 Million Euro loan was confirmed by the EIB (European Investment Bank) in order to renovate and expand hotel accommodation on the coast of Croatia near Dubrovnik (EIB, 2015). Croatia’s tourism infrastructure was in desperate need of renewal after the economic and security disasters caused by the breakup of the former Yugoslavia, which took place from 1991 till 1995. Membership of the EU has facilitated the necessary levels of investment for that renewal to take place (Figures 2 and 3).

Finally, it should be noted that an article within the Lisbon Treaty specifies that the EU “shall complement the action of the Member States in the tourism sector, in particular by promoting the competitiveness of Union undertakings in that sector” (Eurostat, 2015). This underlines the fact that tourism growth is one of the fundamental joint aims agreed to between the EU and acceding nations.
Greece: democracy vs Greek hierarchies

The example of Greece is insightful as it offers a view of a country which acceded to the EU long before Baltic or Balkan countries did. In addition to this, it offers a view of a country that also has struggled (and struggles still) to liberate itself economically and in terms of political representation from hierarchies and from oligarchs who seek to control media and markets. Greece like Croatia is heavily dependent on tourism but also has more general economic difficulties in terms of recession and high unemployment. Like Croatia, Greece has been afflicted with recession during the last five years and latterly a sovereign debt crisis (which continues to this day). As part of the Eurozone (unlike Croatia) and with far more urgent financial difficulties, Greece has been struggling to meet demands to reform its economy in return for loans from the Troika (IMF, European Commission and ECB). Pavlos Eleftheriades (Associate Professor of Law at the Oxford University) describes what he calls “the ruination of Greece” as the work of oligarchs[1] (Eleftheriadis, 2014). Even though Greece managed last year to run a current account surplus, it was only achieved by cuts to salaries and crippling taxes on the middle class. The reforms necessary to make Greece more open and more competitive as an economy have still not been achieved yet, despite the agreements made with the Troika. These reforms have not been possible, argues Eleftheriades, due to a hand full of wealthy families whose hold over politics and the media prevent any reform that will harm their interests. The levels of poverty caused by the need to cut budgets in Greece have also lead to a polarisation in terms of politics. The far-right Golden Dawn party has grown rapidly, as has the left-wing party Syriza.

Figure 2 Nights spent at tourist accommodation establishments in Croatia and the EU, 2000-2011

![Graph showing nights spent at tourist accommodation establishments in Croatia and the EU, 2000-2011.](image)

Note: From 2012 on: break in time series
Source: Eurostat (2015)

Figure 3 Croatia incoming tourists (2001-2013)

![Graph showing Croatia incoming tourists (2001-2013).](image)

Source: Eurostat (2015)
(now a governing party) who were committed to re-negotiation of Greece’s bailout terms. Eleftheriadis doubts the ability of the EU to use the funds it supplies to Greece as a lever sufficiently to reform Greece and to break the power of its elites. However, a majority of the Greek population and of other countries who are in a similar position to Greece (Cyprus is similar in this respect), see the EU as a force larger than national politics and as a way of breaking the status quo. Membership of the EU is seen by these populations as a route towards better representation of their interests in the body politic, access to investment capital and economic prosperity. Despite the vilification of Germany in Greece for being a proponent of austerity, the Greeks and the governing party Syriza still wish to remain within the EU and notably within the Eurozone. This echoes the situation in Croatia where the majority of the population still opt for EU membership despite obvious economic problems.

Tourism development in Greece (2008-2014)

The story of Greece as a tourist destination predates its EU membership in 1981. However, it must be remembered that as in the case of Croatia (and all acceding member states) Greece has been recipient of “structural funds” from the EU, grants to regional areas with the aim to improve the general economic conditions. With the exception of the dip caused by the 2008 financial crisis, Greece has experienced comparable growth in tourism to that of Croatia (not as high) but is still confronted by wider economic problems which impact its ability to secure growth for the future. Greece has no specific geopolitical threat to deal with apart from its tense relationship with Turkey, which has led to it being embroiled in certain territorial disputes regarding Islands between the Greek and Turkish mainlands. It is, however, in a position to profit from the geopolitical storms occurring in the Middle East, that is, if its tourism marketing strategies allow it to. Its memberships of the EU and of the NATO are important stabilising factors, guaranteeing the order that tourists demand as a pre-requisite. The main challenge for Greece to protect its still-expanding tourism industry is to tackle its wider political malaise. This will involve reforming the key markets in the economy still controlled by “elites”. The recent crisis regarding a new tranche of bailout funding from the Troika has this time hit Greece’s tourism industry. Beyond the raging debate concerning the effects of austerity as an economic strategy, the role of Germany as a power in bailout situations and the undeniable suffering that the recession in Greece has caused its population, the terms of the latest bailout remain similar to original accession agreements in that they centre on issues of convergence. Convergence in economic terms is the pre-requisite for joining both the wider EU and the Eurozone in particular. In Greece’s case, certain basic provisions and reforms to achieve this level of convergence were never met. Continuing negotiations between the Troika and the Government of Greece amount to an insistence on the part of Greece’s creditors to force this long overdue convergence. However, should convergence be reached and a reformed stability restored to Greece’s economy, prospects for its tourism sector will again improve considerably (Figure 4).

Israel: the development of smart[2] tourism strategy despite geopolitical storms

Israel provides an example of a country with a comparable democratic system to those of the Western democratic nations but is situated outside Europe in a zone of conflict. Since the birth of Israel as a state in 1948, it has dealt with an existential threat which has tended to dominate its governmental priorities. The frequency with which Israel has been involved in conflict or has had to deal with violent uprisings with attendant media coverage has harmed its reputation as a safe destination to visit. Despite this fact, however, and in no small part due to the rich tourism product it can offer, but also its smart promotional strategies, tourism has shown itself to be remarkably resilient in recovering in periods when peace was restored after conflict had taken place.

The graph in Figure 5 illustrates how the Israeli tourism industry suffered but then recovered from geopolitical storms and regular conflicts since its creation as a state.

On a strategic level, faced with the prospect from the outset that conflict was not only likely but almost inevitable, stakeholders learned by bitter experience to expect conflict scenarios with the attendant drops in tourism demand. The smart strategies that Israel employed to minimise the dips and recover from them included the following: first and foremost, the industry used dips in tourism arrivals as times to renew the infrastructure of tourism, i.e., hotel accommodation and
road and rail networks; second, it has become adept in using clever marketing to attract new markets from the east of Europe, Russia and the USA to supplement the more traditional tourist visitors from Europe. In 2013 (3.4 million incoming tourists) and 2014 (3.3 million tourists), Israel has underlined its ability to re-build its tourism arrivals.

Conclusions

By understanding the definition of consolidated democracy, it is possible to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the EU governmental institutions and those of individual member states. The goals of the partnership between the EU and countries wishing to accede are formalised in accession agreements, which provide for structural funding from the EU to acceding countries. The accession agreements aim to achieve convergence (within agreed limits) with other members of the EU. The overall goal is specific: to enable the sort of democratic system that not only enhances order but also the rights of the individual. The preservation of order and
enhancement of civil liberties are essential elements in opening up trade, leading to prosperity. These are the elements that countries that are situated on the eastern borders of the EU aspire to achieving themselves. It is that aspiration which holds a threat for Russia.

The EU can point to a successful record as regards to preserving peace between member states, stretching back decades. The fact that the expansion of the EU has continued (and is set to continue in future) is evidence in itself that the EU as a supranational democratic organisation succeeds. However, the EU cannot be seen (and has not performed) as a panacea for general economic growth or for tourism growth. Both Croatia and Greece show impressive tourism growth, built in part on the political stability that being a member of the EU can bring, but both have suffered recessions and struggle to make structural economic reforms. Both also suffer from oligarchs who control markets or media to the detriment of reforms that would bring economic growth and competitiveness. Both suffer too from residual corruption, which despite the cooperation with the EU proves stubbornly difficult to reform. This runs contrary to agreements made with the EU concerning convergence. Despite the difficulties, both have populations who see their future as looking more positive within the EU than outside it and who are still keen to take their place as trading nations in the EU market.

In analysing the potential benefits of consolidated democracy, we must also take into consideration that the increased freedom it allows may not always yield the expected or desired results. Within an organisation such as the EU, which is essentially an international one based on and dedicated to cooperation between member states, its democratic structures also leave room for the growth of nationalism. The very same sort of nationalism prevalent in Russia, its opponent along its eastern border.

Smart tourism strategies for the future

What does all this mean for EU tourism for the future? The example of Israel demonstrates the value of realising that geopolitical storms will deplete tourism, but that there may also be opportunities caused in a region (like the Middle East) where other countries also experience compromised security. Therefore, scenarios (with tourism flows in mind) which anticipate changes based on in-depth geopolitical analysis would enhance prospects for re-building tourism when order is restored. The Israelis are a leading example of this, in that they have needed to develop tourism plans (also wider economic and security plans) based on the likelihood that security is compromised. Because of their geopolitical predicament, they have realised that they have to be smarter in their plans to survive. Therefore, in tourism dips (related to wars or conflicts), they have invested in infrastructure and found new markets. The adaptability and flexibility built into plans and the speed of their execution are hallmarks of smarter tourism strategies.

As far as the EU goes, the evidence presented clearly proves that structural investment combined with the levels of security and societal cohesion that EU democratic structures encourage delivers benefits for tourism development. The expansion of the EU and its governmental model will continue in future but with caveats. It is not given that the EU and in particular the Eurozone can achieve the levels of convergence necessary to deliver those benefits. In this scenario, the model of the EU is undermined and the possibility of regression exists. Instead of converging to access the opportunities the EU offers, there is a chance of divergence. Member states who are not satisfied with economic performance within the EU or Eurozone will seek to reclaim their own national sovereignty. In turn, this process holds the possibility not only of undermining the EU but also of destabilising it.

In a world where order is increasingly threatened and in a Europe where a clash of governmental systems is driving a regional military conflict on its eastern border, a much greater emphasis on geopolitics is required in smart tourism planning for the future. In that future, the EU will continue to strive for levels of convergence that make the EU democratic/economic model work and deliver for its member states. Whether this succeeds for the wider EU and the Eurozone remains to be seen. The extent to which this battle is won or lost by the EU though will certainly have a major impact on future levels of order, trade and tourism growth for its member states.
Notes

1. Oligarchy: a form of government in which all power is vested in a few persons or in a dominant class or clique; government by the few.

2. “Smart” not in an IT context but as defined as tourism strategies that are informed, forward looking and dynamic.

References


Huntington, S.P. (1991), Democratisation in the Late Twentieth Century, University of Oklahoma, Norman and London.


Tocqueville, A. (1838), Democracy in America, Saunders & Ottley, New York, NY.


Further reading


Corresponding author

Peter Antony Singleton can be contacted at: peter.singleton@stenden.com

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website:
www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm
Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
Ethno-nationalism and impediments to cooperation in tourism in a post-settlement Cyprus?

Craig Webster, David Jacobson and Kelsey Shapiro

Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to clarify the position of Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot professionals in the hotel and tourism industry on the island of Cyprus with regards to their expectations regarding the benefit of a political solution to the Cyprus problem on the island.

Design/methodology/approach – The paper uses data from two surveys in both political entities of the island. One survey is a survey of hotel owners, managers of hotels and travel agencies in both political entities on the island. The other is a semi-structured interview with leading professionals in the hospitality and tourism industry in both political entities.

Findings – The surveys indicate that there is an expectation from professionals in both entities that tourism will benefit all following a solution, with large increases in incoming tourism to Cyprus.

Practical implications – The findings indicate that there are substantial expectations that there will be benefits for all following a solution to the Cyprus problem.

Originality/value – This is a first future-oriented paper regarding the expectations of major players in the hotel and tourism industry in both political entities on the island.

Keywords Governance, Politics, Hotels, Futures

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

Cyprus is a politically divided island that consists of two major political entities, the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” and the Republic of Cyprus. The “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” is recognized only by Turkey and is populated by Turkish Cypriots and settlers from mainland Turkey; the Republic of Cyprus is a member country of the European Union and is populated mainly by Greek Cypriots. The two have been separated by UN-administered “Green Line” since the Turkish invasion of 1974. About a third of the island – in the north – is occupied by Turkey. Here, we discuss how tourism professionals envision the prospects of current and future cooperation between the two prevailing ethnic groups on the island that has a history of bloody interactions and has largely been separated from each other since 1974.

The Republic of Cyprus came into being in 1960. It had been under the Ottomans for centuries until 1878, when the British took over administration with Ottoman approval. The island was annexed outright by the British during First World War. Following a complex armed struggle for unity with Greece and full independence as alternative aims, further complicated by differences between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots, the British eventually withdrew leaving the island in the control of the newly independent Republic of Cyprus. The British retained direct political
control over significant British military bases on the island that are still British to this day. The new republic’s population consisted primarily of Greek Cypriots (77 percent of the population of the island) and Turkish Cypriots (18 percent of the population), according to the census (Republic of Cyprus, 1961).

After years of turmoil, in 1974 a coup engineered from Athens ousted the President of the Republic (Makarios) for a short time. Ostensibly to protect the Turkish Cypriot minority, Turkey responded with an invasion euphemistically called a “peace operation,” capturing about a third of the island’s territory. It is this territory that became the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” while the remaining areas (other than the Green Line and the British bases) are controlled by the Republic of Cyprus. The Republic of Cyprus is still the recognized as the authority presiding over the whole island, although de facto this is not the case.

Even before 1974, Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots have had economies and societies that were very much segregated. Since 1974, the Greek Cypriots and the Turkish Cypriots have lived in radically different political systems and with very different economies. However, since the 1974 invasion, there have been continuous attempts by the UN and Western countries to re-unite the island in one way or another. Although one after another attempts have failed to bring both entities into a confederation, federation, or so other long-term remedy, the attempts to get Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots into one legal country persist. One of the elements of a united island will be the tourism industry, a major player on the economy of the island of Cyprus. Here, we look into the data from a survey of tourism professionals to deal with the political issue of cooperation between Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots, albeit in something that outsiders would not necessarily view as political, tourism.

This is an appropriate time to consider the relationship between the two communities on the island, and the implications for tourism, because a new leader has just been elected (April 2015) in the North. Moreover, this new leader, Mustafa Akinci, has a strong record of cooperation with Greek Cypriots during his term as Mayor of Northern Nicosia (Psillides, 2015). The Greek Cypriot Nicos Anastasiades, who became president in 2013, also stood on an electoral platform of settlement with the North, having publicly supported the UN proposal for resolution of the Cyprus problem, the Annan Plan, in 2014. Meetings between the two leaders in May 2015 have generated optimism. Moreover, “with Greek Cypriots only just emerging from their worst economic crisis in decades and Turkey keen for a foreign policy success, the time is also ripe. Optimism has been further boosted by Athens and Ankara displaying a rare desire to improve ties” (Smith, 2015b).

The paper proceeds as follows. First, we deal with the literature on the division of the island and prospects for the Cypriot economy post-settlement, especially in regards to the notion of the health of the tourism industry. Second, we describe the method by which we could gather insight from tourism professionals about how they considered cooperation with the “others” under current circumstances as well as prospects for cooperation with the “others” following a settlement. We then look into the data that illustrate how tourism professionals envision current and future cooperation. We conclude with some considerations about how Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots and their ethno-political thinking play a role in how the future of tourism in a post-settlement Cyprus may play out.

Literature review

There is a vast literature linked with tourism and conflict, and recently two major edited works have been produced (Moufakkir and Kelly, 2010; Wohlmuther and Wintersteiner, 2014). There are other writings that have dealt with the issue of tourism and conflict. Writings focus on specific cases such as Ireland (Anderson and O’Dowd, 1999; Anson, 1999; Boyd, 1999; Leslie, 1999; McDowell, 2008; Zuelow, 2006), the Basque country (Abadie and Gardeazabal, 2003; Plaza, 2002), the Middle East (Brin, 2006; Cohen-Hattab, 2004; Gelbman, 2008; Gelbman and Timothy, 2011; Mansfeld, 1996), or Korea (Seongseop Kim and Prideaux, 2006; Chung and Yu, 2001). But there are other writings that deal with more general/theoretical issues on the topic (Araña and León, 2008; Coshall, 2003; Etxebarria and Gomez Urra, 2002; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996; Law, 2006; Neumayer, 2004). Webster and Ivanov (2014) make a contribution in which
they look into how liberal concepts of economic and social interactions should result in encouragement of economic growth; a virtuous cycle of economic benefit and social encouragement, with economic growth, is created that seems to work in conditions in which the liberal preconditions are met.

Cyprus, too, has been the subject of a significant literature on political division and the implications for tourism. There are many works that deal with tourism development in the “Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus” (Altinay, 2000; Altinay et al., 2002; Altinay and Hussain, 2005), sometimes speculating about the gains a settlement on the island would bring but more frequently explaining the difficult circumstances that the division of the island creates for the Turkish Cypriot political entity on the island. Greek Cypriot analogues to this are rare (but see Ioannides and Apostolopoulos, 1999) and this is no surprise as Turkish Cypriot political and economic isolation from the non-Turkish world is quite acute. There is also a small literature that deals with the division of the island and the entire island’s potential for tourism (Sönmez and Apostolopoulos, 2000) and the potential for tourism to play a leading role in terms of encouraging a positive cycle of cooperation between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots (Scott, 2012; Flynn et al., 2012; Hadjipavlou, 2007; Lisle, 2007; Sharpley, 2001; Webster and Timothy, 2006).

While the bulk of the research on tourism in Cyprus either focuses on the current difficulties in cooperation between the two prevailing entities on the island or laments historical developments that have made cooperation and the development of cooperation difficult, in recent years there is a literature that has developed to discuss the future. For example, Webster et al. (2009) looked into how Greek Cypriots involved in the tourism industry perceive cooperation with Turkish Cypriots, looking at how this could inform future cooperation and tourism development, a perspective similar to that of Musyck et al. (2010), Flynn et al. (2012), Jacobson et al. (2010), and Tourism & Transport Consult International (2004).

Here, we focus mostly on the future and the projections of tourism professionals on both sides of the ethno-political divide in Cyprus, based upon a comprehensive study of tourism professionals on both sides of the divide in Cyprus. We now explain the methodology of the research, including how data were gathered to ascertain prospects for cooperation between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots in a post-settlement Cyprus.

Methodology

Asking questions about the future in tourism is now an established strand in the tourism literature. The leader in the field has been Ian Yeoman (Yeoman and Lederer, 2005; Yeoman, 2008, 2012) but many others have been contributing (Dwyer et al., 2009; Leigh et al., 2013) and this has culminated – in an academic sense – in a new journal, *Journal of Tourism Futures*. The approach taken in this paper is more constrained than that of most futurologists of tourism, who tend to focus on megatrends to identify the broad sweep of change. Our approach is to focus more narrowly on the likelihood of future cooperation. Given the long history of conflict, the relative dearth of cooperation between tourism professionals North and South has not been surprising. That there has been any cooperation at all (see Webster et al., 2009 and Table I) is remarkable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Greek Cypriots</th>
<th>Greek Cypriots</th>
<th>Turkish Cypriots</th>
<th>Turkish Cypriots</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a or refusal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Mehmet et al. (2008)*
To learn about the future of a cooperative relationship between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots, a survey of tourism professionals was carried out. A detailed description of the methods and basic findings from the research can be found in Mehmet et al. (2008).

There were two types of surveys, one of owners or managers of hotels, guest houses and travel agencies, North and South, and the other a Key Informant Survey, really a series of interviews, with specific individuals who were known to have knowledge of the subject. In the North, the total number of respondents to the survey was 70, and in the South, 92.

The survey instrument was a detailed questionnaire on, among other things, the nature of the firm, the number and qualifications of employees, activities – if any – on the “other side,” what they expect to happen in relation to settlement of the Cyprus problem in the future, and how such a settlement would affect cooperation and the tourism business in general. It is on the latter items, the perspectives on the future that we focus in this paper. The underlying methodological argument is that what tourism professionals express in a survey about how they would behave in the future, is a reasonable predictor of the future of the tourism industry.

In the Key Informant Survey open interviews were undertaken with ten representatives of the tourist industry in the North, and with four in the South; in addition, the Cyprus Tourism Organization (in the South) provided a statement.

Results and analysis

Survey of tourism professionals – quantitative

In order to better understand the context of the future projections, the first table we present here is on the extent to which cooperation has existed at all in recent years in Cyprus. As can be seen from Table I a significant minority (nearly 11 percent in the South and 20 percent in the North) of tourism professionals have been involved in some kind of cooperation with the other side. Two main types of cooperation were described: arranging visits to the other side, and liaising with tour guides and tourist agencies on the other side.

Table II describes the perception of tourism professionals on each side as to how a settlement acceptable to both sides would affect the tourism industry, in comparison to a continuation in the absence of a settlement. The vast majority on both sides see an overall gain, with both sides experiencing an improvement as a result of a settlement. The perceptions are somewhat asymmetrical, with the Turkish Cypriots more optimistic than the Greek Cypriots, both about improved performance in the event that there is, and even if there is not, a settlement acceptable to both sides. The Turkish Cypriots also seem to be more optimistic about improvements in tourism leading to gains for both sides; a significant minority of Greek Cypriots see themselves losing out while Turkish Cypriots gain, both from a settlement (10.9 percent) and from continuation of the status quo (27.2 percent). No Turkish Cypriots at all had such perceptions of loss to themselves while the other side gains.

### Table II  Impact of status quo vs future settlement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likely impact</th>
<th>Greek Cypriots</th>
<th>Turkish Cypriots</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuation</td>
<td>Settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
<td>Frequency (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win-win for both sides</td>
<td>11 (12%)</td>
<td>73 (79.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win for GCs and lose for TCs</td>
<td>7 (7.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win for TCs and lose for GCs</td>
<td>25 (27.2%)</td>
<td>10 (10.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose for TCs and lose for GCs</td>
<td>41 (44.6%)</td>
<td>3 (3.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>8 (8.7%)</td>
<td>6 (6.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>92 (100%)</td>
<td>92 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mehmet et al. (2008)
There appears to be a paradox in that despite their greater optimism about tourism gains for both sides from a settlement, the Turkish Cypriots are much more pessimistic about the likelihood of a future settlement at all. Table III shows the levels of optimism among Turkish Cypriots are much lower than those of the Greek Cypriots, in relation to whether there will be a settlement acceptable to both sides in the next ten years. If we weight “not at all” as 0, and “Low” to “Extremely high” from 1 to 4, the weighted average of optimism of the Turkish Cypriot tourism professionals is 0.6, while that for the Greek Cypriots is nearly three times as high, at 1.6.

One explanation for this is that the survey was conducted in the period after the rejection by the Greek Cypriots of the Annan Plan. This was Kofi Annan’s proposal for the reunification of Cyprus. In a referendum undertaken on both sides on the same day, April 24, 2004, it was approved by 65 percent of Turkish Cypriots and rejected by 75 percent of Greek Cypriots, with serious consequences for the future of Cyprus (Sachs, 2004; Vural and Peristianis, 2008). Among these, it is likely that there was a diminution in the Turkish Cypriots’ expectations of support for a settlement from the Greek Cypriots. The Turkish Cypriot tourism professionals still expect great gains from a settlement, but in response to the Greek Cypriot rejection of the Annan Plan, are pessimistic about the possibility of such a settlement.

Important differences between tourism professionals North and South are evident from Tables I to III. Some of these differences – in particular the pessimism among Turkish Cypriots about the prospects for a settlement – are explained by the Greek Cypriot rejection of the Annan Plan. There are other differences, reflected, for example in Table II, that are probably more closely related to the actual conditions facing the tourist industry in the North and South of the island at the time of the survey. The standard and cost of living were lower in the North than in the South (Noë and Watson, 2005) and hence costs to tourists of accommodation and food were also lower in the North. At the same time the level of development of the infrastructure for the supply of tourist services was also lower in the North. These facts at least in part explain the asymmetry of Table II.

Under 8 percent of Greek Cypriot tourism professionals see a continuation of the status quo leading to Greek Cypriot gain and Turkish Cypriot loss; a much greater 27 percent see it leading to Turkish Cypriot gain and Greek Cypriot loss. Both those in the 8 percent and those in 27 percent could have been correct, depending on their particular sectors of the tourist industry; the former could be supplying tourist services dependent on the more sophisticated infrastructure of the South, the latter supplying the more price sensitive mass market. The equivalent figures for the Turkish Cypriot tourism professionals are very different, nearly 26 percent seeing a continuation of the status quo leading to Greek Cypriot gain and Turkish Cypriot loss with none at all seeing it leading to Turkish Cypriot gain and Greek Cypriot loss. Most of the Turkish Cypriots believe both sides will gain from the status quo (but less so than they will gain from settlement), but some of them see the continuation as favouring the South more than the North. Again these latter are likely to see the South as preferable because of their particular tourist sector, for example because of the North’s lower level of development of tourist services.

Why, then, do only a small minority of the Greek Cypriots, but a large majority of the Turkish Cypriots, see the status quo leading to a win-win? The gap – both in the standard of facilities and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table III</th>
<th>Level of optimism about a settlement within ten years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of optimism</td>
<td>Greek Cypriot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None at all</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low level</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely high</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mehmet et al. (2008)
in costs – was already beginning to close. The data reflect a diminution in the North’s cost advantage and a diminution in the South’s infrastructural advantage. Both sides see this and it influences their views about the impact of a continuation of the status quo. Settlement has the effect of offsetting the negatives, and large majorities on both sides see win-win as the result of a settlement for the island’s tourism industry in general.

In relation to an understanding of the industry itself, and its structure in terms of the origins of tourists, their perceptions of the future are remarkably similar. Table IV shows that there is a very similar ranking in terms of what tourism professionals North and South see as the important future sources of an increase in tourists to the island of Cyprus in the event of a settlement. Again, as with Tables I and II, the Turkish Cypriots are more optimistic, but apart from the omission of Israel as a source of increase in tourist numbers, the countries mentioned and how important they are perceived to be are North and South are similar.

Leading players in tourism in Cyprus

Of the ten leaders of the tourism industry in the North, many were at the time of the interviews presidents of their associations (of restaurants, hotels, travel agencies, airlines, etc.). They all supported an overall settlement but some expressed the view – supporting our interpretation of the findings in Table III – that “Greek Cypriots are not ready to share power and the market with Turkish Cypriots” (Mehmet et al., 2008, p. 8). Their argument goes further, however, in that they consider both political power and market power. In relation to the latter, many expressed the view that tourism companies in the North operate more efficiently and have lower costs than those in the South. This, they believe, is another reason for reluctance among Greek Cypriots to support a settlement.

The views of Turkish Cypriot tourism industry leaders are in some ways confirmed by those of the Greek Cypriot tourism industry leaders. The General Secretary of the Association of Restaurant Owners in the south, for example, expressed the view that the relative opening up of crossing points between the two sides had resulted in a decline in business for restaurants in the South as people went North; the number of Turkish Cypriot visitors to the South was insufficient to offset this. Other leaders, for example of the hotel associations and the car-rental associations, seem to agree that with the argument that there is unfair competition from the North. They all support an overall settlement, but with many caveats in relation to the details. There does indeed seem to be more hesitation about a settlement among leaders of tourism in the South than in the North.

Conclusion

The recent revival of negotiations between the elected leaders of Cyprus, North and South, augurs well for the tourism industry. The survey data, and interviews with tourism professionals and representatives, all show overall that there is an expectation on both sides of a win-win for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table IV</th>
<th>Increase in tourism flows from countries given a solution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greek Cypriots %a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>73.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandinavia</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab states</td>
<td>68.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *This is the percent of respondents expecting an increase in tourists from that country

Source: Mehmet et al. (2008)
tourism in the event of a settlement acceptable to both sides. This expectation is likely to be realised in the event of a settlement. As discussed above, there are differences between the tourist sectors North and South. These differences may in part explain the different attitudes of tourism professionals North and South. However, the differences are also likely to enhance the attractiveness of Cyprus as a tourist destination in the event of a settlement. Yorucu and Mehmet (2011) go further, focusing on specific countries likely to remain among the important origins of tourists to Cyprus, namely, Turkey, Greece and the UK. They conclude that Turkish and Greek tourists have income elastic demand for Cyprus as a tourist destination. Recent economic problems in Greece will therefore reduce Greek tourist response to a settlement in Cyprus but Turkey will become a more important origin for tourism North and South. UK tourists, being more price sensitive, will become less important for tourism in the North. Yorucu and Mehmet (2011) suggest. As a policy recommendation they suggest for the North, but this could be echoed for some tourism providers in the South as well, a focus on more high-income, special interest tourism products, reducing the dependence on low-price, mass market tourism products.

This type of focus on the differences between the North and South and the implications for tourism, supports our interpretation above of the results of the survey of tourism professionals. A settlement of the Cyprus problem, or even a degree of integration of the tourist industries of the two sides, is likely to increase both competition and cooperation between North and South. This will result in an improvement both of the tourism infrastructure to facilitate all-island tourism, and keep prices at internationally competitive levels. If so, this does indeed signal a win-win result of a settlement for tourism North and South.

What is the likelihood of a settlement of the Cyprus problem? More scholarly attention has been paid to this issue than can even be superficially addressed in this paper. Even on so specific an issue as the likely impact on a settlement of the discovery of off-shore natural gas, a recent book (Ker-Lindsay, 2015) contains a variety of views (see Faustmann, 2015; Gürel and Tzimitras, 2015). From the results of our research, the reservations seem to be primarily among Greek Cypriots; this was reflected in the response to the 2004 referendum on the Annan Plan. Some economic explanations for this have been offered above. However, an immediate political factor was that the Greek Cypriot president at the time was Tassos Papadopoulos, and he ultimately opposed the plan – publicly on television – which surely influenced the outcome. The current president, Nicos Anastasiades, was a prominent supporter of the Annan Plan and in the aftermath went so far as to object to the public media’s coverage of the referendum, claiming that it was influential in bringing about the rejection in the South (Kulish, 2013; Taki, 2009). He will clearly put a great deal of effort into coming to some kind of agreement over a settlement with his counterpart in the North, Mustafa Akinci. In Akinci he will find a more than willing partner: “the election of Akinci may be the game-changer so desperately needed to break the deadlock” (Smith, 2015b).

What the research presented here shows is that if the reservations in the South over a settlement, both in terms of the political governance issue, and in terms of the business implications for the tourism sector can be overcome, a more strategically rational future for the sector across the island is likely. It should be emphasized, finally, that among the changes since the survey was conducted, the economic crisis in the South and the discovery of natural gas in the Mediterranean in Cypriot waters may well have made a difference to the responses. As well-known political commentator Jonathan Steele has put it, “with recession and the discovery of gas reserves off the Cyprus coast, deadlock with the north is becoming far less convenient” (Steele, 2013). There is reason for the first time in years to be optimistic about the future of tourism in Cyprus, and of Cyprus in general.

References


Further reading


Corresponding author

Craig Webster can be contacted at: cwebster3@bsu.edu

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website: www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
Keeping it pure – a pedagogical case study of teaching soft systems methodology in scenario and policy analysis

Ian Yeoman, Una McMahon-Beattie and Carol Wheatley

Abstract

Purpose – Soft systems methodology (SSM) is well documented in the academic and management literature. Over the last 40 years, the methodology has come to be adapted depending on the tool users’ skills and experience in order to fit the problem. The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate good teaching and learning practice from a pedagogical perspective.

Design/methodology/approach – Dr Ian Yeoman of Victoria University of Wellington provides a personal reflection of how the methodology is used in the teaching and learning of TOUR301 Tourism Policy and Planning as a policy and scenario analysis method.

Findings – The paper articulates the seven stages of SSM from problem situation unstructured, through to Rich Pictures, vision and guiding principles, policy solutions, comparisons, feasibility and implementation stages. The paper uses a series of teaching tasks to breakdown the complexity of the methodology thus guiding students and teachers in how to deploy the methodology in the classroom.

Originality/value – The value of the paper demonstrates the reflective practice of SSM in action as an exemplar of good practice. The paper clearly articulates the stages of the methodology so students and teachers can adopt this approach in classroom environments following a scaffolding learning approach. The use of teaching tasks throughout the paper helps bring clarity and order thus enabling the teacher to effectively teach the subject and the students to learn. The most significant contribution of this paper is the articulation of good teaching practice in policy and scenario analysis which articulated through four learning lessons: facilitating a learning environment; the impact of visual thinking; political theory; the importance of incremental learning; and problem-based learning and international students.

Keywords Tourism, Policy, Pedagogy, Scenario analysis, Futures, Soft systems methodology

Introduction

Soft systems methodology (SSM) (Checkland, 1981) is well documented in the academic and management literature ever since the birth of the process by Professor Peter Checkland in 1981 in the ground breaking book Systems Thinking: Systems Practice. The process or methodology was developed as a problem-solving strategy for those faced with resolving highly complex and inter-related problem situations. Over the years, the methodology has come to be adapted depending on the tool users’ skills and experience in order to fit the problem thus, SSM, has become known as a problem framing device or recipe in which the principles are followed and adapted in order to achieve an outcome (Mingers, 2000; Yeoman, 2004a, b). Peter Checkland acknowledges this development is a move away from the step by step approach to more of a
flexible rendition published in *Soft Systems in Action* (Checkland and Scholes, 1990). Today, SSM has been widely disseminated and applied in many geographical contexts and academic disciplines (Mingers, 2000). This paper is fundamentally a personal perspective of how Dr Ian Yeoman uses SSM as a scenario analysis tool in the teaching of TOUR301 Tourism Policy and Planning (which will be referred to as TOUR301) at Victoria University of Wellington. My motivation for the paper comes out of students wanting clearer examples and direction of how I have adapted the methodology for teaching and why.

This is my personal story. I am a graduate of Sheffield City Polytechnic with a BSc (HONS) catering systems. The core of the degree was a systems thinking approach to student learning of which SSM was a core dimension. Too be honest, I really never understood the process. The methodology at the time was too conceptual and those that taught the courses delivered the subject in a rather abstract and mechanised way keeping to the principles and rigidity of the methodology of the time (Mingers, 2000). Whereas today, SSMembellishes the adaptive and reflective process as a problem structuring methodology that guides students understanding of a problem situation in order to make sense of the problem, generate solutions, evaluate options and implementation (Mingers, 2000; Yeoman, 2004a, b). Basically, using the process to fit the problem and learning situation [...] and keeping it simple.

TOUR301

TOUR301 is a third year course as part of the Bachelor of Tourism Management degree. The course aims to help students develop the skills and knowledge necessary to understand and critically analyse tourism public policy, planning and processes within New Zealand and a wider context. The theoretical and applied emphasis is on developed countries with advanced democracies, thus allowing the student to observe and understand examples of best practice and good governance. The course consists of lectures and tutorials that are delivered in a logical sequence in order that the student can grasp the basics of policy and planning in context. The central theme running through the course, from a pedagogical perspective it is about developing student’s skills in applying policy and planning frameworks, hence the paper uses scenario planning and SSM as envisioning and analysis tools. Given the location of Victoria University of Wellington as New Zealand’s capital city, a number of guest speakers from government departments, industry associations and local government discuss the key issues and challenges in tourism policy and planning. TOUR301 objectives and graduate attributes are listed in Table I.

The assessment focuses on students developing strategic plans from a public policy perspective. This involves considering the elements of trends, political theory, stakeholder analysis, risk management, implementation, value systems and measurement. Industry leaders and stakeholders participate throughout the paper through a series of lectures called “What future could it be?” Fundamentally, outlining their vision(s) of the future, identifying risks, stakeholder values and strategic actions. For the purposes of this paper, I (Ian Yeoman) demonstrate how I teach SSM as a scenario analysis tool for case study learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table I</th>
<th>Objectives and attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course objectives</strong></td>
<td><strong>Graduate attributes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Provide a systemic examination of tourism planning and policy making within a range of contexts and strategies drawing upon examples from New Zealand and the wider world</td>
<td>Critical thinking: through critical thinking, develop the ability to systemically analyse policy relationships. Communication: conveyance and synergy of complex issues through written and oral mediums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Apply theoretical concepts to practical applications through an in-depth examination of tourism planning development and policy making</td>
<td>Critical thinking: simulation of real time problems through case study examination in a pressurised/limited time frame Leadership: role play in the context of policy and planning through management case studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Assess policies and planning strategies using multiple futures environments and policy analysis tools</td>
<td>Critical thinking: using reflective and creative thinking styles, evaluation of multiple futures using comparative commentary Communication: communicate complex ideas coherently, appropriately and rationally</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is SSM?

SSM (Checkland, 1981; Checkland and Scholes, 1990) is a methodology for dealing with complex, unstructured problematic situations developed by Professor Peter Checkland at Lancaster University. SSM evolved in response to the failure of systems analysis to address messy and complex problems, those problems about human activity. Systems analysis was a paradigm of hard systems where a model has precise objectives and can be expressed in quantitative terms allowing the development of mathematical models. According to Kirk (1995, p. 14):

> These models can be used to predict the response of the system to changes in the environment. The model produces a convergent solutions to any change. The model can be expressed in the form of a mathematical equation with a precise measure of outputs – a deterministic model. Where there is more uncertainty, the relationships may be expressed in the terms of probability of output as a response to a change in inputs – stochastic models. Also, this can be extended to include non-continuous relationships through the use of chaos theory.

Checkland arrives at Lancaster University in 1969 in the newly formed Department of Systems Engineering, clearly knowing what he wanted to achieve:

> His inaugural lecture foreshadows the major themes of soft systems thinking. He saw the task to take conventional, hard, systems engineering and through practical engagements, develop it to be able deal with the humanness of human beings and, in particular highlighted the importance of irrationality, creativity and values of which went unrecognized with systems engineering (Mingers, 2000, p. 738).

Checkland’s approach involves delving into the human activity of problems and decision making rather than a hard systems or classic operations research approach. SSM thus explores the social and political dimensions of the problems remembering that:

> [...] every human problem situation is the product of a history, one which will dictate perceptions, judgements and standards (Hicks, 1994, p. 228).

SSM is often used by consultants as a means to structure problems, but understanding this intervention is about human behaviour and actions. Humans are not mechanical; their behaviour is shaped by risk, motivations and attitudes. As a problem structuring methodology (Yeoman, 2004a, b) and intervention process, SSM involves the careful observation of the problem situation, the recording of those observations, the gathering of facts and opinions usually in a qualitative manner. Here, users are gathering human activity systems as brief descriptions and expressed in the form of a cartoon style diagram. This cartoon diagram is enriched with further facts and opinions, thus becoming “rich” and known as a Rich Picture. Opinions of stakeholders are of particular importance in understanding the political behavioural defensive and supportive messages. Solutions or options are modelled to see how they would change the Rich Picture and for reaction from stakeholders. An appropriate solution is selected for implementation that considers culture and feasibility and concluding with actions to improve the problem situation. Figure 1 represents the adaptive model process of SSM as used in TOUR301.

As Hicks (1994) points out SSM is intended to be a flexible and evolving problem solving methodology that is adapted and modified based upon the tool users’ experience and the problem situation setting. Although Figure 1 represents the classic seven stages of SSM, projects do not necessarily start at Stage 1, problem situation unstructured, but works maybe carried out concurrently. Tool users may return to earlier stages and repeat various steps. As Mingers (2000, p. 740) notes:

> Checkland found that they rarely used it following the rigidity of the seven-stage methodology and so a more generalized and flexible representation of the process was developed.

Using SSM as scenario analysis tool in the context of policy and planning

Scenario planning is a research technique that has evolved into business sectors from the early 1960s subsequently acquiring increasing academic provenance and practical success by assisting businesses to prepare not simply for one “official future” but a range of possible futures. In the postmodern era which is characterised by uncertainty and contingency, increasingly scenario thinking and planning are being used in the public and private sectors (Yeoman, 2004a, b).
Facilitating strategic conversations of diverse stakeholders and embracing the complexity of their multiple perspectives, scenario planning promotes a broader action focussed perspective. I have authored a number of papers and studies that have followed Shell’s (van der Heijden et al., 2002) approach to scenario planning which follows a multiple futures perspective in which four pictures or scenarios of the future are constructed in order to enable stakeholders or participants to think about future events or circumstances. In the tourism industry, studies have included country studies such as New Zealand (Yeoman and McMahon-Beattie, 2014) and Scotland (Yeoman, 2004a, b) or specific sectors such as ecotourism (Yeoman et al., 2014) and festivals (Robertson and Yeoman, 2014) or specific circumstances including oil (Yeoman et al., 2006) or foot and mouth disease (Yeoman et al., 2005). Scenario planning is a process of construction where the future is presented as pictures, states or stories. Whereas scenario analysis is how your company, country or organisation would respond to that future scenario. SSM is used in TOUR301 in the context of scenario analysis.

From a tourism perspective, policy making is characterised as a dynamic socially constructed activity that involves a wide range of agents and organisations with a wide variety of interests and commitment to tourism (Dredge and Jenkins, 2006). A tourism policy perspective from a systems approach recognises that interactions occur between actors and the institutional and environmental frameworks, thus acknowledging that policy development is both internal and external in which stakeholders and actors do not exist in isolation but impact on each other. Adopting a systems approach in tourism planning, and an understanding of these relationships produces a holistic view.

SSM, policy making and scenario analysis overlap. The SSM process (Figure 1) is very similar to the classic policy cycle (Figure 2). The policy process is a complex, multi-layered process involving many institutions and actors, thus it is a process that is mediated, and appropriate actions and interventions identified (Dredge and Jenkins, 2006). Therefore, the policy process mirrors the attributes of the SSM as a human activity system in capturing political actions and values that Checkland (1981) portrays. The policy cycle, like SSM is grounded in engagement with stakeholders and communities of interest. Both deal with issues, position a viewpoint, capture stakeholder values, actions and beliefs, generate solutions, evaluate solutions and deploy implementation and change management programmes.

Thus SSM and the policy cycle:

- is a process or series of stages or decision points that shape the nature and outcomes of succeeding stages;
- the formulation is geared towards actions and decision making;
identifies issues and ways to manage them; and

is a socio-political construction shaped around values and beliefs.

Scenario analysis and policy analysis is determining which of various alternative policies will achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between policies and goals. SSM uses conceptual models as policy options and through examining the degree of change that conceptual models bring to a Rich Picture an evaluation can be made of a policy intervention. Different conceptual models can be viewed as scenarios in order to judge difference. These conceptual frameworks are often founded on political theory perspectives, that is, capitalism, neo-liberalism or social democracy in the teaching of TOUR301. Checkland uses the term weltanschauung, which is generally translated to mean viewpoint, thus weltanschauung is replaced with political position in the shaping of solutions, policy options or conceptual models.

Figure 1 is an adaptation of SSM with the following changes:

- Stage 3: the root definition is renamed vision and guiding principle(s).
- Stage 4: the conceptual model is renamed policy solution(s).
- Stage 5a: formal systems model is not used.
- Stage 5b: other systems’ thinking is not used.

SSM intervention

In order to illustrate the process of SSM in the teaching of TOUR301 a case study “New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise?” is deployed (see the Appendix). As noted previously, SSM is like a flexible process that has been adapted and is presented in the way I use the process. I remind my students that SSM is like baking a chocolate cake, we use a recipe as a guide but we change and adapt that recipe. We all have different recipes for chocolate cakes, some gluten free, others with no eggs or with premium chocolate. From a theoretical perspective, SSM is associated with tool use theory where the tool is adapted and altered by the tool user (Yeoman, 2004a, b). Hence the presentation of SSM in this paper is based upon feedback over the years from students and my personal learning.
Stage 1: the problem situation unstructured

The problem situation unstructured is the beginning of the process or the entering stage of the problem situation in which students as consultants would be negotiating the problem, setting boundaries and forming relationships. Here, it is understanding the project (or assignment brief), evaluating political power, identifying who is the problem owner and social aspects, introductions to stakeholders and actors, gathering forms of data and undertaking secondary research. At this stage, I say to students “what do you think the problem is” and “formulating terms of reference”. “New Zealand: Is it an Eco Paradise?” is a case study of the a situation of tourism in New Zealand which addresses the question “Is New Zealand an ecotourism destination?”. The question, from a SSM perspective assumes a degree of ambiguity or a messy problem. The teaching task at this stage describes the project brief, tasks and outcomes. At the end of Stage 1, the students should be familiar with New Zealand tourism, have undertaken a literature review of its present state and identified the key stakeholders’ actors (Table II).

Stage 2: the problem situation expressed as a Rich Picture

Once necessary data have been gathered to identify the key facts, issues and stakeholders; the situation is constructed using a carton style diagram called a Rich Picture. A Rich Picture according to Hicks (1994) is used because:

- a picture can show far more information in the same place;
- it shows patterns, arrangements, connections and relationships;
- it provides a holistic overview;
- less likely to overlook vital links and interactions which may have given rise to unexpected or intentional consequences;
- it permits a feel for the problem and issues; and
- it provides a representation that can be instantly shared with others.

Rich Pictures were developed as a means of presenting complex situations or messy situations. The idea of using Rich Pictures is common in several problem solving or creative thinking methods because our intuitive consciousness communicates more easily with impressions and symbols rather than words (Open University, 2014). Cartoon style drawings evoke and record insight into a situation thus providing a holistic and unstructured (or structured) representation.

Table II  Teaching task: the policy brief

You (students) have been employed by the New Zealand Ministry of Economic Development to evaluate the countries national brand and tourism strategy. There have been recent stories in the international press about how stakeholders are concerned regarding the country’s 100% Pure New Zealand image. This has become a political issue with questions about the strategy direction of tourism being raised in Parliament by the political opposition. The Rt. Honourable John Key as Prime Minister and Minister of Tourism has commissioned this study as a response to the issues seeking an evaluation of the present state and policy options for the future. Consultants (student groups) will use SSM as their investigative methodology.

Questions

Who are the problem owners?
Who are the key stakeholders in New Zealand tourism?
What are the issues?
What are the tasks to be completed?

Sources of information and stakeholders for investigation include

- Auckland Tourism Events and Economic Development (www.aucklandnz.com/ateed)
- Department of Conservation (www.doc.govt.nz/)
- New Zealand Airports Association (www.nzairports.co.nz/)
- Regional Tourism Organisations of New Zealand (www.rtonz.org.nz/main.html)
- Statistics New Zealand (Tourism) (www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/industry_sectors/Tourism.aspx)
- Tourism 2025 (http://tourism2025.org.nz/)
- Tourism Export Council of New Zealand (www.tourissexportcouncil.org.nz/)
- Tourism Industry Association of New Zealand (www.tianz.org.nz/)
- Tourism New Zealand (Corporate) (www.tourismnewzealand.com/)
- Tourism New Zealand (Visitor) (www.newzealand.com/)
They are an attempt to encapsulate the real situation in a summary format that is accessible and understood by others. A Rich Picture does not have to be a work of art as long as it makes sense.

The symbols in Figure 3 are a useful reference for the students in order to help them get started (Table III).

How do you know when you have finished a Rich Picture? The picture will never be completely finished as representing all of the information that has been gathered is not an infinite activity. Students see different things in different situations and will bring different interpretations from the case study. Thus it makes it difficult to say “when is the end”. Rich Pictures are revisited at the comparison Stage 5 when Rich Pictures and policy solutions are redrawn. Any inadequacies resulting in a misinterpretation will surface, but this is why SSM is a process of iteration rather a defined recipe.

From Figure 4, the Rich Picture could represent the following key issues from the case study “New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise?”:

- The economic and political importance of tourism in New Zealand economy, whether it is jobs or John Key as Minister of Tourism leading to the development of a 2,025 national framework.

- “100% Pure New Zealand” campaign is considered to be a “natural extension and elegant expression of the New Zealand’s tourism product. The brand is the world’s longest running campaign and most successful. Is the brand 100% Pure true given negative media stories, polluted rivers and endangered species?

- The main reason for visitation are the natural attractions and environment, this has been the case historically and is today.

- New Zealand, tourism is a key contributor to the country’s economy representing 3.7 per cent of GDP and 4.9 per cent of jobs.

- The decline of visitors from traditional markets such as the UK and Europe.

- Climate change is changing tourism products and experiences.

- The emergence of new markets and tourists from India and China.

- The value of the New Zealand dollar, geographical location, price of oil and increased competition from other destinations make the economic environment challenging.

**Figure 3** Some symbols for the use in Rich Pictures

- Person
- Under a cloud
- Act of God
- Commentary bubble
- Close relationship
- Happy
- Forbidden
- Source of concern
- Idea
- Money
Table III  Teaching task: getting started with Rich Pictures

I have learned that students can deal with writing reports and are comfortable with rational approaches to problem solving. SSM is different, it is an abstract. At the core of the SSM process is the use of Rich Pictures. A cartoon style diagram which asks the students to draw the problem rather than write about it. So it is different. The challenge is getting students started and guiding them through the process of constructing a Rich Picture. For this, students need the following materials:

- Soft pencils
- Rubbers
- Pencil sharpener
- A3 paper
- Colour pencils

In order to prepare a tutorial in which the students represent the case study in the form of a Rich Picture they should in advance:

- Identify 10 core issues (whether positive or negative) from the case study, making notes of the page and paragraph number from the case study.

For the tutorial activity:

- Let the students work as individuals. Use an A3 blank piece of paper; place the 10 core issues onto the paper in the form of cartoon symbols (see symbols from Figure 3).
- Subsequently, for each paragraph in the case study identify further issues and add to the Rich Picture. Thus the students are enriching the Rich Picture.
- Ask the students to connect cartoon symbols with flow arrows.
- If the students are having difficulty using cartoon symbols they may use bubble clouds with commentary to represent issues, aspects or situations.

At this stage it is also advisable to ask students to share and comment on their Rich Picture.

Students often comment that “I am not Picasso or Michelangelo” therefore “how do you assess my Rich Picture?”. My reply is often “that is right, I am not assessing your artistic ability but how you have portrayed and identified the key issues from the case study”. One way to do this is the use of picture key. In order to do this, I advise students to:

- Once you are happy with your Rich Picture, identify the top ten issues and number these issues 1 through to 10 on the Rich Picture.
- Construct a table at the side of the Rich Picture that corresponds to the numbers you have identified and then rank the issues in order of importance, the page and paragraph number from the case study, an explanation of the issue and why it is an issue.

My doing the above, the students critically appraise and communicate the essence of the problem.

To bring the Rich Picture to a conclusion, I use the question “summarise in not more than 40 words “what the central issue or problem in the case study is?””

---

**Figure 4** Rich Picture for “New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise”

---
Checkland (1981) argues that Rich Pictures identify a number of key issues of concern, whereas I define issues as positive or negative, otherwise the Rich Pictures just draws on negative issues resulting in an uneven balance. In order to bring this section to a close and provide students with summative statement of the situation, I get the students identify the central issue which is a combination of issues they have already listed in no more than 40 words. From “New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise?” the central statement could be:

A changing macro environment will bring about change to the future of New Zealand tourism whether this is climate change, shifting markets or destination brand. Thus, New Zealand tourism needs to decide what it wants to be and how it can achieve that future?

Stage 3: vision and guiding principle(s)

At this stage, the root definition is renamed vision and guided principle(s). A root definition is a crucial stage of SSM, as it is a concise verbal description of the system that students are trying to model when compared to the real world problem situation resulting in change. The real world situation is the Rich Picture. Root definitions need to be worded carefully because the conceptual model that is built at the next stage reflects the root definition. Hicks (1994, p. 244) believes that the following elements should be found explicitly in well-formed root definitions.

Transformation process – the means by which the defined inputs to our system are transformed into its outputs.

Ownership of the system – some agency that has prime concern for the system and which has the ultimate power to cause the system to cease to exist.

Customers – the people within or outside the system who will be the beneficiaries or victims of the effects of the systems activities.

Environment constraints – features of the systems environment (including wider systems of which our system is a component) which have to taken as given.

Worldview (weltanschaung) – the standpoint from which we have chosen to view the system. Because of its nature is not usually explicitly stated in the Root Definition.

For the teaching of TOUR301, the root definition becomes the vision and guiding principle for a policy direction or strategy because of simplicity. Students find it difficult to grasp the concept of weltanschaung. But using the stage as the foundation (hence root definition) of a policy solution allows the students to build the conceptual model or policy solution at the next stage.

Visioning suggests the active occupation of looking ahead rather than merely looking at or analysing something. It is a state which we want to be, a goal, a direction. A vision is something we aspire to that will drive us to seek something new. Thus a vision is a picture of the future of where "I" want to be or a picture of the future of what "I" want us to be or a picture of the future of where we should be (Yeoman et al., 2014). Whereas, a guiding principle is how you behave in order to achieve a vision. Guiding principles are based on the notion of a principle of law or rule that has to be, or usually is to be followed, or can be desirably followed, or is an inevitable consequence of something, such as the laws observed in nature or the way that a system is constructed. The principles of such a system are understood by its users as the essential characteristics of the system, or reflecting system’s designed purpose, and the effective operation or use of which would be impossible if any one of the principles was to be ignored (Kakabadse, 2005). Thus guided principles are the principles or precepts that guide an organisation throughout its life in all circumstances, irrespective of changes in its goals, strategies, type of work or the top management. In the case of teaching TOUR301, these are the philosophies that underpin political behaviour, for example, socialism, capitalism or environmentalism. If socialism is accepted, the guiding principles relates to the development of a social and economic systems characterised by the social ownership of the means of production and co-operative management of the economy (Heywood, 2013) (Table IV).

Stage 4: policy solution(s)

This stage of SSM is reworded from conceptual models to policy solutions. According to Checkland (1981) building a conceptual framework in SSM is to construct a model of a potential solution.
Hicks (1994) establishes the root definition as a mechanism to guide the construction of a solution, a direction in which to build a conceptual model. Here, we treat the root definition as a vision of a potential solution to address the issues in the Rich Picture. An example for the case study “New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise?” is:

**Vision:** to be New Zealand’s First and Everlasting Industry

Vision explained: to be New Zealand’s first industry in the terms of economic, career choice and aspiration whereas everlasting preludes to those that have responsibility for tourism today act as guardians for future generations

**Guiding principles:** for the common good through balancing for the future

It is suggested students construct two opposing visions and guiding principles based upon opposite or different political ideologies, thus allowing the students to learn different policy perspectives.

His conceptual model is represented as a bubble diagram (see Figure 5) which are decisions of a policy option constructed around the root definition that address the issues in the Rich Picture. Hicks (1994) believes that a conceptual model describes activities of human activity systems, and so activities are the entities which form the components of the conceptual framework. The root definition determines the activities of the conceptual framework, hence the renaming as vision and guiding principle.

Pearce (2012) broadly states that conceptual frameworks identify and bind knowledge and form a framework to help researchers understand a particular phenomenon and thus make explanatory claims. Essentially, conceptual frameworks are concepts explained in diagrammatical form and indicating relationships through connections. In TOUR301, the
conceptual frameworks are policies. These are the decisions that address the issues in the Rich Picture. In Figure 5, policy solution that contributes towards the vision underpinned by the guiding principle and consists of five decisions. These decisions consist of policy instruments (Dredge and Jenkins, 2006). Policy instruments are the means by which governments agencies achieve their end goals. These agencies confront problems using a range of instruments, programs, tools, approaches and techniques. All instruments have strengths and weaknesses. The choice of instrument(s) depends on the type of problem, availability of resources, political commitment, government priorities and level of government to name but a few. These instruments are also based upon political value systems. For example, a socialist system advocates state intervention into the production system of tourism using legislation to control the means of production, whereas neo-liberalism advocates the private sector and thus a legislative framework of light regulation to encourage profit and business.

In Table V, Dredge and Jenkins (2006, p. 161) group policy instruments into the following categories.

As TOUR301 adopts a political perspective, the level of government involvement in tourism is considered. For example, a socialist ideology is about government control of the system and bureaucratic structures whereas a neo-liberal ideology connects to market forces. Dredge and Jenkins (2006) conceptualise policy instruments based upon a continuum of government control. A neo-liberal use of voluntary instruments are characterised by low levels of government involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of policy instrument</th>
<th>Examples in tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advocacy: using information and education to manipulate behaviour</td>
<td>Strategic tourism plans (with no statutory base)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ectourism guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accreditation schemes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Demonstration projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of international investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourist levies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Departure taxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accommodation levies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User pay charges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Licenses and permits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Differential charges for tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developer contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tax rebates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Investment incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tax rebates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loan guarantees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tax relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct and indirect subsidies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Penalties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Declaration of free trade and investment zones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Infrastructure provision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resort development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provision and management of attractions and services, such as hotels and museums.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpretation facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing and promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Land use regulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Building regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public health and occupational health and safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fire and safety regulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign investment regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money: using financial incentives, spending and taxing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government action: delivering services directly or indirectly facilitating their delivery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law: legislation, regulation and compulsory provisions to achieve compliance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and low dependency of government resources whereas a socialist policy instrument requires high levels of government involvement, control and resources (see Figure 6 for examples) (Table VI).

**Stage 5: comparison of Rich Pictures and policy solution(s)**

The purpose of stage five is to evaluate the impact of the conceptual model or policy solution impact on the Rich Picture or problem situation. Evaluation is defined as the disciplined and critical assessment of the consequences of government policy and actions (Dredge and Jenkins, 2006). This evolves the evaluation of the issues and problem using a range of quantitative and/or qualitative methods. The process requires policy analysts to have both creative and analytic skills. Stage 5, does not evaluate against risk or stakeholder values as the evaluation is based on the “best business case” rather political risk or stakeholder values. In Stage 6, cultural feasibility considers these elements.

Students are evaluating the degree of change the policy and decisions have on the issues identified in the Rich Picture. As a consequence of selecting and implementing the policy solution do the issues in the Rich Picture disappear totally, partially or not at all? Evaluation of policy, is not an objective process but subjective given the human activity systems of tourism and decision making (Yeoman, 2012a). I do not tend to use staging 5a and 5b (Checkland, 1981) in my teaching because of the issue of time constraints (Table VII).

**Stage 6: systemically desirable and culturally feasible**

Power and politics are a central feature of stakeholders and the successful implementation of the tourism policy. Stage 6 is of primary importance in order to initiate a debate with stakeholders and actors to generate an understanding about possible changes that might occur within the problem situation, fundamentally identifying the risks associated with the conceptual model in Stage 5. Systemically refers to something that is spread throughout, system-wide, affecting a group or system such as a stakeholders, economy or society. Here, it is important to understand the implications of the conceptual model or policy solution.

**Table VI**  **Teaching task: policy solution(s)**

Hicks (1994) establishes that the conceptual model describes the activities of human activity systems, and so activities are the entities which form the components of the conceptual framework. In TOUR301 the conceptual model is the policy solution which is built up at Stage 3 consisting of the vision and guiding principle. Those elements are supplemented with five key decisions

**Tutorial activity**

Using a A4 sheet of paper, ask the students to draw a circle in the centre where they will write vision and guiding principle established in stage three. Ask the students then to draw five circles to surround the central circle. Each one of these circles represents a decision. Decisions are selected based upon the political ideology and the context of the problem (see Figure 6)

Decisions are selected from a range of options listed in Table V. It is suggested students construct two opposing conceptual models based upon opposite or different political ideologies, thus allowing the students to learn different policy perspectives
All policies have a political flavour and they match or clash with stakeholder’s value and belief systems. The more the policy matches stakeholders values, the greater the degree of support but if the policy clashes with stakeholders values, those stakeholders will act as an opposition to the implementation of the policy. Lubell (2003) proposed a system of stakeholder evaluation through understanding the correlation between beliefs and policy effectiveness, fundamentally all the virtues that Checkland (1981) argues in Stage 6 of SSM. At the centre of feasibility are the political values and beliefs of stakeholders. For example, The Tourism Industry Association of New Zealand (www.tianz.org.nz) is membership organisation of tourism businesses, therefore its value and belief system is shaped by capitalist systems of producing goods and services for profit thus policy focusses on entrepreneurship, laissez faire, creating a competitive environment and reducing bureaucracy (Wallace and Riley, 2015). Culturally feasibility also includes “destination values”, for example, the debate about Gambling (Yeoman, 2012b) in many countries is of importance. In New Zealand, casinos are allowed in Auckland, Dunedin, Christchurch, Hamilton and Queenstown whereas in Wellington the local authority rejected the idea of casino development in the city after consultation with the residents (Doorne, 1998). Sex tourism, lap-dancing and prostitution are contentious issues in many parts of the world but in New Zealand, prostitution is decriminalised. Whereas in most of the USA (except Nevada), prostitution is illegal on moral and criminal grounds.

Different countries have different values and belief systems. In Saudi Arabia, the consumption and selling of alcohol is illegal and enforced with strict penalties based upon an Islamic value and belief system, whereas in Qatar although a Muslim country, alcohol consumption is accessible in luxurious hotels.

Desirability represents the value proposition of the policy solution. Does the policy enhance or create value for the tourism industry? What is the central benefit of the proposed policy to the tourism industry? Is the policy worth it? (Table VIII).

**Stage 7: implementation**

A key activity of any democratically elected government is to deliver on its promise, hence why the implementation stage is important in the policy cycle. Implementation is the process in which policy ideas and plans are translated into practice. The challenge for policy makers is to develop effective implementation methods for the delivery of policy (Dredge and Jenkins, 2006). The role

| Table VII Teaching task: comparing conceptual model (policy solution) with Rich Picture |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Students are evaluating the degree of change the policy solution has on the issues identified in the Rich Picture. As a consequence of selecting and implementing the policy solution do the issues in the rich disappear totally, partially or not all? |
| **Tutorial activity** |
| Students should have completed two policy solutions in order that they can compare and contrast solutions. This means students are evaluating for recommendation |
| Ask the students to construct an evaluation matrix for each policy solution listing impact against issues. Score each decision/issue using with |
| Issue totally eliminated – 2 |
| Issue partially eliminated – 1 |
| No impact or not applicable – 0 |
| **Eco Paradise Decision 1: strengthen Resource Management Act in order to balance environment with economics** |
| Decision 2: penalise bad environmental practice |
| Decision 3, etc. |
| Score |
| **Issue 1: brand reputation is tarnished** |
| Partially eliminated. Strengthens brand communication (1) |
| Totally eliminated. Strengthens brand communication (2) |
| 3 |
| **Issue 2: growing market from Asia** |
| Partially eliminated. Addresses a potential issue of over development (1) |
| Not applicable (0) |
| 1 |
| **Issue 3, etc.** |
| The policy solution with the highest score is perceived as the most effective and therefore recommended to be put forward at Stage 6. |
| However, other evaluation criteria can be used, that is, identifying the most effective decision, ranking decisions in order of importance, etc. |
| This recommendation can be communicated in the following manner |
| “[…] policy solution […] is recommended as the impact is […]” (in not more than 40 words) |
of implementation is about managing the change process in order that the policy is effectively implemented. This includes mechanisms of review. The core features of implementation include the following:

- Change management: in order to implement policy, change management requires the transitioning of individual, teams and organisations to that policy future. One of the core dimensions of the change management is understanding stakeholders and actors behavioural position as identified in Stage 6 and deploying appropriate strategies in order to minimise resistance to change.

- Project management and scheduling: the role of policy makers and planners is to carefully plan, organise and control the implementation process ensuring that policy is effectively implemented. In order to achieve this, project management requires the co-ordination of resources through use of GNATT charts, financial plans, critical path analysis, goals and targets, etc.

- Co-ordination: governments rarely act without repercussion for other governments and non-government departments. The interconnections of policy is mainstream of government, especially tourism. In New Zealand, direct tourism strategy is limited to marketing through Tourism New Zealand (Yeoman et al., 2014) but interconnectedness is evident through other government ministries, departments and Crown agencies. For example, conservation is the responsibility of the Department of Conservation as the department is such a big player in tourism whether it is the Great Walks of New Zealand (www.doc.govt.nz/parks-and-recreation/things-to-do/walking-and-tramping/great-walks/) or the concessions paid by tourism businesses to operate in national parks (www.doc.govt.nz/get-involved/apply-for-permits/businesses/). Co-ordination is an important role within tourism policy implementation given the complexity and interrelationships of policy decisions. Often, policy solutions may seem appropriate in one government ministry but be in conflict in another. Co-ordination ensures government policies work in harmony with each other.

- Review: policy solutions usually have goals and targets as part of an implementation plan. These goals represent criteria for success. An implementation plan incorporates mechanisms for the review of policy at a future date in order to evaluate success (Table IX).

### Table VIII: Teaching task: systemically desirable and culturally feasible

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>Core values and beliefs</th>
<th>Interest in the issue</th>
<th>Influence/power</th>
<th>Positional behaviour</th>
<th>Impact of the issue on “them”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John Key – Prime Minister</td>
<td>Capitalist economic growth</td>
<td>Minister of Tourism</td>
<td>Extensive</td>
<td>Manipulation and power</td>
<td>Political issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accor Hotels</td>
<td>Shareholder value of profit and sustainable growth</td>
<td>Largest hotel provider in New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
<td>Advocacy</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Defence Association (<a href="http://www.eds.org.nz">www.eds.org.nz</a>), etc.</td>
<td>Protecting New Zealand’s environment through advocacy</td>
<td>Organisational value to campaign for a better environment</td>
<td>Scientific expertise</td>
<td>Disruptive, scientific evidence, advocacy, lobbying</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The risk estimate matrix is also a useful tool to identify likelihood, impact and consequences of the conceptual model or policy solution. See: www.brighthubpm.com/risk-management/88566-tool-for-assessing-project-risk/

Using this question, “what is the most desirable aspect of the adopting the conceptual model or policy solution for the tourism industry?” identify the most desirable feature of the policy solution.

Finally, if the policy solution is deemed not acceptable, revisit Stage 5 and select an alternative conceptual model. Iteration is a central feature of...
Concluding lessons

This paper “Keeping it Pure – A Pedagogical Case Study of Teaching Soft Systems Methodology in Scenario and Policy Analysis” contribution to tourism futures lies in documenting how I (Ian Yeoman) teach scenario analysis through TOUR301. Thus making it explicit the how’s, why’s, when’s and what’s of teaching the future. The how’s reflect the nature of the paper in how my teaching occurs, the why’s are a reflection of Yeoman’s teaching philosophy, the when’s reflect the scheduling and adaption of the SSM processes. My way and the what’s reflect the teaching content and exercises elaborated in this paper. TOUR301 is regarded as a highly quality tourism course according to Victoria University student survey’s with the course being rated 1.4 with 1 being excellent and 5 being poor for the survey question “overall, I would rate the quality of this course as [...]” Over the last five years, I have incrementally improved the course based upon student feedback and pedological developments. Therefore, in order to conclude, I reflect upon the teaching and learning of TOUR301 through five learning lessons for others who may seek to adopt, apply or listen.

Lesson 1: facilitating a learning environment

TOUR301 is a representation of my teaching philosophy of “authenticity – problem-based learning – negotiation”. Providing students with a real problem, thus authentic. A problem that is unclear in several dimensions so students have to negotiate their understanding of the problem situation. A problem-based learning approach which requires students to identify a problem, analyse the situation, generating options and evaluation through to implementing a solution. My approach to teaching TOUR301 defines the teacher as a facilitator providing the students with a structure through SSM as the framework. Through facilitation, my approach is that of a supporter, director, providing guidelines and creating dialogue for learning. As documented in this paper, the framework of SSM allows the students to construct their own learning through negotiation and problem solving. As a facilitator I engage with students rather than lecturing to students. Facilitation is about guiding, setting direction and providing feedback. Students take their own responsibility for learning and working with others in order to achieve an outcome. I recognise the importance of a simulating environment of reality in which students self-learn through problem solving, knowledge sharing, social networks and interactions which allows reflection and action-based learning as far as possible. SSM allows students a degree of abstraction through Rich Pictures and experimentation through conceptual models (policy solutions). SSM deals with ambiguous problems which allows the students to negotiate their understanding of the problem. This includes negotiation with students, as they often work in small groups in tutorials. I act as a “clarifier” where problem situations are not understood or need clarification.

Lesson 2: the impact of visual thinking

The medium of SSM and my approach to learning is visual thinking through use of Rich Pictures and conceptual models (policy solutions) to facilitate students understanding. The use of pictures refers to Haber’s (1970) research about radiant thinking in which individuals have a recognition accuracy of images of between 85 and 98 per cent, hence the well-known quote “a picture is worth a thousand words”. The theory behind Checkland (1981) as Avison et al. (1992) documents the use of SSM as a learning tool is powerful enabling students to quickly understand problems, see connectivity and the whole picture.

Table IX  Teaching task: implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tutorial activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify who is responsible for the implementation stage that is, government department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select an implementation committee with responsibility for implementation inclusive of stakeholders and government departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw up terms of reference for the implementation committee of not more than six bullet points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify three criteria for success of the policy solutions in the form of goals which are S (Specific), M (Measurable), A (Attainable), R (Realistic), T (Time Related). See: <a href="http://www.ci.azusa.ca.us/DocumentCenter/View/29524">www.ci.azusa.ca.us/DocumentCenter/View/29524</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In not more than 50 words that describes the fundamental benefit of the policy solution. Here, students are advocating the policy solution and why it should be implemented. Communication is a core strategy in minimising resistance to change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students said in feedback (Victoria University of Wellington, 2015):

- Interest in the subject due to creativity of pictures
- Drawing rich pictures helped develop deeper understanding
- Mind maps and diagrams was a very simulating way to learn. Encouraged participation, helped to understand the course.
- Rich pictures, pure magic.

Thus, being visual allows students to engage with the problem in a holistic manner, allowing them to see connections instantly. However, it is noted some students do not like Rich Pictures as they say “they cannot draw” (Victoria University of Wellington, 2015). To overcome this barrier, it is a matter of supporting students in getting started, as explained in the paper. Pictures and cartoons are supported by bubble clouds with commentary.

**Lesson 3: political theory**

One of common issues for students is that as tourism students they are not exposed to political theory or “they are not politics students” (Victoria University of Wellington, 2015) In student feedback about “which topics would you have liked to have spent more time on”, comments included:

- Different political theories
- Political ideology

If I wanted to study politics, I would have taken a bloody degree in the topic.

We have learned a lot and the course is really structured well from a learning perspective, but I felt I didn’t understand or couldn’t apply political ideologies which is at the centre of the policy solutions stage.

The issue of political ideology is at the centre of TOUR301. I undertake two lectures on different political philosophy’s, supportive readings and builds in feedback mechanisms for students in which they test policy solutions. The criticism is about the balance between declarative and procedural learning. My teaching philosophy of authentic and problem-based learning is biased towards procedural knowledge, how to do something rather than factual understanding of politics. I accept this point and has continuously incrementally improved the course year on year.

**Lesson 4: the importance of incremental learning**

As the use of SSM was a new skill and approach to learning for tourism students, the teaching and learning of SSM adopted the principles of scaffolding which originates in Lev Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and his concept of zone of proximal development (Raymond, 2000, p. 176).

The zone of proximal development is the distance between what children can do themselves and the next learning that they can be helped to achieve with competent assistance.

Scaffolds in TOUR301 are deployed to help student’s breakdown the complexity and daunting tasks of the process. Here I articulate precisely the activities students must undertake and complete each week before moving forward through the various stages of the SSM process. For example, I recommend students complete a rich picture which clearly defines the problem situation, explicitly communicates the features of the rich picture to others through a key system, etc. Through making the stages of the SSM process explicit or suggesting hints, the students can sense achievement in the learning process. TOUR301 is taught over four weeks in the classroom using a case study (see the Appendix). Each week students prepare for tutorials with a clear understanding that previous tutorial tasks have to be completed before undertaking the next activities, thus interlinking tutorial activity in a continuum.

**Lesson 5: problem-based learning and international students**

A minority of international students struggle with a problem-based learning approach (Huang, 2007), in particular Chinese students prefer passive teaching methods such as lectures and demonstration and a Confucian-derived preference of rote learning. Chinese students maybe more concrete and pragmatic in evaluating ideas than Western students, and suffer from a lack of creativity as well as...
being less likely to explore new directions to which they are unaccustomed. Problem-based learning is an approach to learning that enables students to understand their own situations and frameworks so that they are able to perceive how to they learn. As TOUR301 is a level three paper, in which learning is focussed on critical thinking. Students will have accumulated knowledge about tourism (level 1) and applied management (level 2) through the structure of the Bachelor of Tourism Management degree. Therefore a problem-based approach to learning is appropriate for level 3 courses. In order to support students confidence in using a problem-based learning, a number of pedological actions where initiated. First, since 2013, a draft report was included in the tutorial and workshop schedule in which all student groups received feedback from me before submission of assignments for grading. Second, in the first six weeks of the course, emphasis is placed on declarative knowledge in order that students can construct a political understanding of tourism policy. Third, with the support of student learning (www.victoria.ac.nz/st_services/slss/) individual students not coping with a problem-based approach to learning attend additional workshops in the topic and are assigned a learning counsellor.

References
Pearce, D. (2012), Frameworks for Tourism Research, Cabi, Wallingford, CT.


Further reading


Appendix. New Zealand: is it an Eco Paradise?

New Zealand tourism: an Eco Paradise

New Zealand could be an Eco Paradise some would say. Its “natural unspoiled beauty” has been the main reason for visiting the country since the latter half of the nineteenth century. The very first significant attractions were hot springs and the magnificent pink and white terraces – later destroyed in 1886 by a volcanic eruption – around Rotorua. By the 1890s, tourists enjoyed spas and thermal areas around the country, went tramping in the Milford Sounds, Mt Cook and Tasman Glaciers, visited Waitomo glow worm caves, were taken by steamer on the Whanganui river and engaged in sporting activities including hunting and fishing. Today, in general, tourists consider that the main highlights of their visits to New Zealand are its beautiful landscapes, its people, or visiting family. Indeed, a survey conducted in 2008 demonstrated that natural attractions are the main reason why international tourists visit the country. It is not surprising that “100% Pure New Zealand” has become this country’s destination brand built on previous campaigns as “Scenic Wonderland”.

In economic terms

In New Zealand, tourism is a key contributor the country’s economy and employment. In 2013, tourism generated 3.7 per cent of direct contribution to New Zealand’s GDP, amounting to $7.3 billion, while indirect value added of industries supporting tourism generated an additional $9.8 billion to tourism. In addition, a total of 110,800 full-time equivalent employees have been employed within the tourism industry, accounting for 4.9 per cent of New Zealand’s total...
employment. Tourism is one of New Zealand’s top export earners, contributing 5.7 per cent of the country’s total exports on goods and services. These statistics illustrates the key role tourism plays within the wider New Zealand’s economy. However, in light of global economic turbulence, environmental issues, emerging markets and changing consumer attitudes, managing sustainability is critical to the continual growth of the industry.

100% Pure New Zealand

Considered by some as one component of a broader national branding strategy to project the country as a unique and innovative place to visit, live and invest in, the “100% Pure New Zealand” campaign is considered to be a natural extension and elegant expression for the clean and green space that New Zealand had long occupied in the minds of global consumers. Thus it helps construct a national image aligned with New Zealand resources, consumer demands and expectations, and that is also adaptable to target-specific segments of the diverse global market. Portraying New Zealand as a young, beautiful and clean country, the idea of “purity” can be mainly applied not only to the natural environment, represented as pristine, undiluted and de-humanised, but also to other elements such as Māori culture and hospitality, and locally produced food and wine.

New Zealand today

So, is New Zealand An Eco Paradise? This is Alberto’s story on this day, 14 November 2014, aged 34. Alberto is a third generation Italian who lives in Auckland, New Zealand and is a tourism professor. This is how he sees the present state of tourism in New Zealand.

The landscape, the environment and climate change are the key issues of the day. Reading the newspapers reminds us about resource shortages. In Australia, it is water. In Africa, it is food, and in Asia it is floods. The world cannot agree on what to do. Kyoto is no more, America does not trust Africa and will not share solutions with China. Over a billion people in the world took an international holiday in 2015 this is due in the main through population growth and the expanding middle classes of Asia. I love New Zealand for its natural landscapes and authentic views. New Zealand was the first country in the world to have a Ministry of Tourism (called the Ministry of Tourism and Resorts in those days). It was Harry Wigley, who developed ski equipped aircraft for the glaciers in 1995 and it was AJ Hackett who brought bungy jumping to Queenstown in the 1980s. Today, I see a tourism industry which is everyone’s business which offers a diversity of products and experiences. But the main reason for tourism travel today to New Zealand, is still the same as it was in the nineteenth century, the landscapes. At that time, the first tourists were well to do members of society, mainly from the Empire but it was Thorpe Talbot’s guide book for travellers to New Zealand published in 1872 on “Lakes and Hot Springs” which saw the beginnings of “package holidays” (McClure, 2004). They travelled on steam ships, which took four to seven weeks as compared to six months by sailing ships. Today, its 24 hours on an aeroplane.

Then as today, tourism was (and is):

Department of Tourist and Health Resorts soon discovered the diverse, fragmented nature of the tourist industry as it took on a range of activities from employing masseurs to running steamers and importing deer. It’s major focus, however was on international tourists and their foreign currency, and on the few resorts they favoured (McClure, 2004, p. 2).

Government’s intervention into tourism was characterised by the Thermal-Springs Act Districts Act of 1881 allowing the government to define and proclaim thermal districts. The aim of the act was not to preserve but to develop. As a consequence, the government obtained 4,000-5,000 acres of Lake Rotorua. Rotorua was proclaimed a township and the majority of government officials on its board (it was nationalised), developed it like a European resort with golf, casino’s, Bath Pavilion, beach promenades and proclaimed a health resort where one “could take the waters”.

Today, tourism faces many challenges. Its share of global tourism arrivals is 0.03 per cent, and on a world stage this country is a small player compared to those like India and China. Tourism is a significant contributor to New Zealand’s export income. The country’s tourism brand, “100% Pure New Zealand”, is recognised as one of the world’s leading tourism brands and has served to influence other countries’ tourism and national branding.
Most recently, Ms McPherson (Yeoman et al., 2014) Deputy Secretary at the Ministry of Economic Development and New Zealand’s highest-ranking tourism public servant has stated that tourism was at a flip point due to the turmoil of uncertainties whether this was the global financial crisis, changing markets, currency fluctuations or terrorism.

In a similar vein New Zealand’s Finance Minister, the Hon Mr Bill English, warned that:

Traditional markets such as the US and UK can no longer be relied on for inbound tourism as over the next 10 to 15 years we will continue to see further concerns over government debt levels, including the possibility of another financial crisis unfolding in Europe (Rutherford, 2011).

As the Hon Bill English (Rutherford, 2011) further noted, this country has seen the reduced competitiveness of its dollar over the previous seven years with the New Zealand dollar giving strength against the major currencies. Indeed, the country saw solid growth in tourism up until 2004, but since then its average real effective exchange rate stabilised at quite a high level with a corresponding drop in visitor expenditures. Traditional markets such the UK and the USA have been and are diminishing in value, while Asian markets have been and are increasing, with many Asian visitors prepared to spend more. New Zealand is a long haul destination, with significant demands on energy/fuel for international travel. As the world is entering a period of peak oil, defined as the point in time when the maximum rate of global petroleum extraction is reached and after which the rate of production enters terminal decline. There is some stagnation, with New Zealand’s tourism industry growing less quickly than some its international competitors in particular visitor arrivals, length of stay and expenditure are static or falling.

In the longer term, key demographic changes in traditional markets such as the UK, Japan and Germany could see significant changes in wealth per capita, which is one of the key drivers of propensity to travel. Significant changes in the application of technologies, the emergence of new consumer markets, New Zealand’s forecasted fiscal deficits and climate change systems, and media and communications networks, has become increasingly sensitive to many factors, including economic downturn.

Given the political and economic importance of tourism with the Rt. Honourable John Key, both the Prime Minister and Minister of Tourism, the government and industry in partnership responded to these challenges, overseeing the development of a national framework (http://tourism2025.org.nz/) based upon five themes. Namely, productivity growth, enhancing the visitor experience, informed research, grow air connections and focus on niche consumers. The response, on one hand, has been an industry on a voluntary basis where stakeholders have come together in a united voice to say “this is how we can contribute”. At the same time, the New Zealand government has increased Tourism New Zealand budget from NZ$83.8 to NZ$113.4 m, for the financial years 2014 and 2015, increasing to NZ$115.8 m in 2016 and 2017. This additional funding will allow Tourism New Zealand to remain in core markets, but develop a strategy and presence in emerging markets. This approach to the future, some would say is based upon a neo-liberal or mechanist perspective of business and economic.

But there are still environmental problems which bug me.

If New Zealand is an ecotourism destination as Tourism New Zealand says, then why does it have problems such as:

- Increasingly polluted lakes and rivers, with 43 per cent of monitored lakes in New Zealand now classed as polluted with an estimated 18,000-34,000 people annually catching waterborne diseases.
- More than 60 per cent of native freshwater fish as well as the only freshwater crayfish and mussel species are now threatened with extinction.
- Seven of New Zealand’s ten official “indicator species” for measuring biodiversity status are threatened. The Kokako, for example, has suffered a 90 per cent contraction in its range since the 1970s.
- Iconic species such as Maui’s dolphins and New Zealand sea lions are listed as “nationally critical”. Only an estimated 55 Maui’s over the age of one year old remain and New Zealand sea lion pup numbers have halved over the past 12 years at their main breeding area in the Auckland Islands.
Almost two-thirds of New Zealand’s seabird species are listed as threatened with extinction. The main threats to seabirds are predation by introduced mammals, fishing methods and human disturbance.

New Zealand’s gross emissions have risen by 20 per cent since 1992, due to increased pollution from energy, transport, agriculture and industry sectors. Even with our weakened Emissions Trading Scheme, emissions are projected to continue to rise.

I think, “100% Pure New Zealand” is a brand with problems because of the country’s environmental issues. These issues where highlighted in a report, Beyond Rio, by the global conversation organisation World Wildlife Fund (Howe, 2012) stating that: “Aotearoa, the land of the long white cloud, is now a land of polluted rivers and lakes, rising greenhouse gas emissions, pressured marine ecosystems and disappearing bird and mammal species”.

But maybe I am just worried about nothing. Maybe it’s just the press trying to portray a bad story.

I recently read the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report (Blankie and Chiesa, 2014, p. 37) and found:

The importance of the natural environment for providing an attractive location for tourism cannot be overstated, and it is clear that policies and factors enhancing environmental sustainability are crucial for ensuring that a country will continue to be an attractive destination going into the future. In this pillar we measure the stringency of the government’s environmental regulations in each country as well as the extent to which they are actually enforced. Given the environmental impacts that tourism itself can sometimes bring about, we also take into account the extent to which governments prioritize the sustainable development of the travel and tourism industry in their respective economies. In addition to policy inputs, this pillar includes some of the related environmental outputs, including carbon dioxide emissions and the percentage of endangered species in the country.

I know, The World Economic Forum’s Travel and Tourism Global Economic Competitiveness report positions Sweden, Switzerland and Finland as the top three destinations for environmental sustainability, as these countries are characterised by environmental legislation that is both stringent and well-enforced. I see New Zealand is ranked 22nd in the world out of 140 countries. Areas of concern or poor performance are carbon dioxide emission (104/140) and threatened species (139/140). The country continues to benefit from its rich natural resources, with a number of World Heritage natural sites and a pristine natural environment protected by strong and well-enforced environmental legislation (9/140). Overall, the industries strategy and commitment to sustainability is world leading (2/140). The quality of natural environment scores 3/140 and commitment to protect the marine environment 3/140. Hence the World Economic Forum paints a balanced viewpoint regarding New Zealand commitment and position on the environment from a country and tourism perspective.

So, what are the issues, problems and directions forward for New Zealand tourism?

Alberto

About the authors

Dr Ian Yeoman is an Associate Professor of Tourism Futures at the Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand and an Visiting Professor at the European Tourism Futures Institute, The Netherlands. He is recognised as a Leading Authority on tourism futures, an Author of 17 books and over 100 research papers. Ian Yeoman is the corresponding author and can be contacted at: ian.yeoman@vuw.ac.nz

Professor Una McMahon-Beattie of Head of the Hospitality and Tourism Management Department at the Ulster University, UK. She has contributed and co-authored a wide range of papers in consumer behaviour, tourism futures and revenue management.

Carol Wheatley is an MBA Graduate of the Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand and is working on a number of tourism futures projects.

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website: www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm
Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
Inciting tourist accommodation managers to make their establishments accessible to people with disabilities

Virginie Capitaine

Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to report on the research carried out in Québec as part of a master’s degree for the IÉSEG School of Management on behalf of Kéroul, an organization whose mission is to make tourism and culture accessible to people with disabilities. Established over 30 years ago and active largely in Québec, Kéroul has observed a lingering reluctance on the part of tourism industry operators to meeting the needs of disabled visitors. In the research, we set out to answer the following question: how can Kéroul encourage tourism establishments to develop accessibility? In light of the hotel industry’s key role in tourism, exploratory research was conducted with 30 Québec hotel managers through extensive individual interviews.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The exploratory research took the form of in-depth interviews with hotel managers. The sample was selected after conferencing with Kéroul and a Québec hotel association. As a first step, a jointly written letter was sent to managers who were association members, inviting them to be interviewed.

**Findings** – Some respondents showed an interest in accessibility, seen as a means of attracting group bookings; others confirmed that accessible rooms rented well to guests from all categories. Nonetheless, most were skeptical about the economic value of the disabled market. They were also poorly informed about this type of clientele, the concept of accessibility and the facilities “barrier-free” tourism requires.

**Originality/value** – Until now, the literature on accessible tourism has generally accentuated the needs of disabled consumers and analyzed their behavior with regard to tourism. Arguments to demonstrate the market potential of tourists with disabilities have ensued. The need to meet this demand was expressed while highlighting the low degree of consideration given to the disabled market by tourism professionals at present. However, few publications treat accessibility as a viable business opportunity. The study reveals the concerns and views of tourism industry professionals vis-à-vis accessibility and is all the more relevant, given the current context in Québec.

**Keywords** Tourism, Accessibility, Disability, Hospitality, Accessible tourism, Sustainability in tourism

Paper type Viewpoint

1. **Introduction**

Until now, the literature on accessible tourism has generally accentuated the needs of disabled consumers and analyzed their behavior with regard to tourism. Arguments to demonstrate the market potential of tourists with disabilities have ensued. The need to meet this demand was expressed while highlighting the low degree of consideration given to the disabled market by tourism professionals at present. This study reveals the concerns and views of tourism industry professionals vis-à-vis accessibility and tries to understand the disaffection of this industry with regard to accessibility. It aims at giving a number of possible drivers for the development of accessible tourist accommodation.
2. Purpose

The population of people with disabilities today is more than one billion worldwide (World Health Organisation, 2011), and between 2000 and 2050, the percentage of people aged 60 years or over will double, knowing that there is a well-established link between disability-related needs and aging (World Health Organisation, 2007). Given these observations, several authors have already expressed the need to respond to this demand as soon as possible (ex: Darcy, 2010; Kéroul, 2011). Moreover, if today’s “baby-boomers” have a significant purchasing power and show a need to stay active, demanding products, and services that are adapted to their needs (Donovan, 2013), it has also been underlined in the literature that tomorrow’s seniors will travel more than ever (Pochet and Schéou, 2003).

A number of destinations have already observed growth in this market: in the UK, a recent VisitEngland study has shown the value of accessible tourism to have increased by 33 percent in four years, or three times the growth of the domestic tourism market (Calladine, 2014). So both now and in the future, the market for tourists with disabilities or reduced mobility would appear to be key. However, according to Darcy (2010), Pagán (2012), and Bizjak et al. (2011), tourism establishment owners and managers turn away from these customers, and only few authors have tried to explain this phenomenon. Some wrote about professionals being afraid of this market: afraid of making mistakes with these customers (Office for Disability Issues, 2012), or afraid of having to deal with too many people with disabilities and not being able to handle the situation (Philipps, 2002). These fears seem to be fed by three main factors: widespread communication about legal compliance but only few messages linking accessibility with business opportunities (Office for Disability Issues, 2012); a general concern regarding accessibility’s possible related costs (Darcy, 2010); and current research practices that do not link diversity or sustainability principles with enhanced shareholder value (Donovan, 2013). Darcy (2010) puts forward the fact that hotel customers would not like to rent accessible rooms, which can refrain managers from investing in them. Wang (1992) goes even further and describes a general resistance to fully include people with disabilities within the society.

In fact, the legal framework is insufficient to drive the development of accessible tourism. In Québec, legislation enacted in 2001 requires all new and renovated hotels to make 10 percent of their rooms accessible to people with reduced mobility. However, tardy application of the law combined with a blatant lack of sanctions have led to breaches (Trudel, 2012). In the fall of 2014, an investigation into 60 Montréal hotels conducted by popular Québec television show La Facture concluded that none respected the law. This situation is far from being unique if we are to believe Donovan (2013), who stipulates that for companies in general, even the risk of litigation fails to raise much concern about compliance with disability laws and regulations.

Kéroul, a nonprofit Québec-based organization dedicated to making tourism and culture accessible to people with restricted physical ability, is testament to the problem. Our research was conducted as part of a master’s degree at the IESEG School of Management (Lille and Paris, France) with a view to helping Kéroul address the issue.

Kéroul is the sole body mandated by the Québec government to assess and certify accessibility in the tourism industry, including accommodation establishments. Indeed, accommodation plays a key role in the industry, considering that the World Tourism Organization (2000) qualifies visitors as “tourists” if they spend more than one night in a given location. By the same token, the scarcity of accessible accommodation essentially makes it impossible for people who need adapted rooms to become tourists. After 35 years of working with the public and private sectors to develop accessible tourism in Québec, Kéroul estimates that only 5.2 percent of tourist accommodation there is fully or partially accessible[1]. The organization bears witness to the fact that despite legal progress, tax incentives and the many arguments proving the potential of this clientele, accessible tourist accommodation remains significantly underdeveloped. To better understand the situation and detect issues underestimated or even overlooked by Kéroul – issues that are highly likely to be encountered in and outside of Québec – we consulted a number of tourist accommodation managers in the province. Our study lays the groundwork for reflection on the concrete actions Kéroul could take both at present and in the future.
3. Approach

Our exploratory research took the form of in-depth interviews with hotel managers. The sample was selected through traditional access, after conferring with Kéroul and a Québec hotel association[2]. As a first step, a jointly written letter was sent to the 600 managers who were association members, inviting them to be interviewed. Only 36 of them responded to that request. Considering this low participation rate and the immensity of the province of Québec, we decided not to conduct face-to-face interviews but telephone interviews. In fact, interviewing on the phone at a time chosen by every participant would make each of him or her more likely to complete the interview, while saving the interviewers a great amount of time spent on the road.

Finally, we interviewed a total of 30 managers, the majority of whom were directors, general managers, and owners, as shown in Table I.

The average interview lasted 40 minutes and began with the following explanation of our objectives:

- to better understand the relationship between hoteliers and disabled guests with a view to facilitating the work of the former, improving service delivery and further developing accessibility in hotels;
- to better understand the challenges faced by hoteliers in terms of offering adapted facilities; and
- to underline facts that are likely to have an impact on the managers’ will to develop accessibility.

Our interview consisted of both open-ended and closed-ended questions and addressed three main topics: the accessibility of the hotel concerned, its clientele and the difficulties in making the establishment accessible. We chose to use a mixed methods design to place the responses into the context of each concerned establishment. We could then compare facts and statements, enhancing the meaning of the participants’ affirmations. For example, it allowed us to underline that 20 percent of interviewees talked about their establishment as “accessible” whereas closed-ended questions proved them wrong.

Extending that thought, we came to the conclusion that drawing a picture of the concerned establishments was more relevant than analyzing the socio-demographics of the interviewees. The overall establishments picture was composed of a homogeneous sample in terms of geographic distribution and size, as illustrated in Figures 1 and 2.

Once all interviews were completed, we transcribed them and structured our analysis thanks to a computer-aided qualitative data analysis software. We began by analyzing answers to the closed-ended questions to bring out quantitative data for the entire sample. Then, we selected some interviews for a qualitative study. This selection was based on whether the interviewee advanced arguments in favor of accessibility that were new to us (either with respect to the literature or Kéroul’s knowledge), or shared positive experiences with regard to accessibility. Finally, ten interviews were selected and collected on the software to sort the managers’ statements by themes. We analyzed this information as sorted in Table II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table I</th>
<th>Distribution of interviewees by profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of interviewees</td>
<td>Overall sample percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive director</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief executive officer</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owner</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Findings

Three key observations

The results have yielded two particularly encouraging findings. First, more than 60 percent of respondents whose establishments had accessible rooms stated that those rooms were also rented to guests who did not necessarily need special facilities; 16 percent also said that adapted rooms had their own advantages (particularly regarding space) and were appreciated or even explicitly requested by guests with no apparent accessibility needs. This runs counter to the idea that accessible rooms are difficult to rent, as mentioned in the literature review. This goes against the idea that overall clients have an aversion toward accessible rooms. The essential similarity between adapted and standard rooms could be a facilitating factor and was even mentioned as such by certain respondents. Relatively speaking, our results suggest that the design of adapted
rooms is not in itself a barrier to implementing accessibility, particularly when such rooms do not differ greatly from regular guestrooms. It could be interesting to promote this concept, for example, by disseminating photographs of establishments where the design is standard for both adapted and regular rooms.

The second finding of interest is the relevance of accessibility for any establishment wishing to attract group bookings. Indeed, 10 percent of our respondents reported developing accessibility in their establishment to better accommodate conference attendees, wedding parties and other family gatherings. They also said that doing so had yielded significant benefits. Such groups, who often seek to accommodate everyone in the same establishment, are likely to include at least one person in need of an adapted room. Ultimately, accommodation will be chosen based on the establishment’s ability to adequately serve the needs of the entire group. This finding represents a key argument against the skepticism expressed in the literature regarding the low profitability of accessibility.

The third finding emerged from the observations of one respondent: if a feature is seen as essential for improving tourist accommodation classification (whose levels are often characterized by a given number of stars), the investment required to implement that feature will be seriously considered. According to Kéroul, accessibility accounts for just five of the 1,000 points in the establishment evaluation grid used by the Corporation de l’industrie touristique du Québec (CITQ). Giving accessibility significant weighting in the tourist accommodation classification is certainly a lever to be considered by Kéroul, currently in talks with the CITQ on the matter. Given that room rates are directly related to the number of stars awarded to an institution, represents a strong argument for managers as it links accessibility with the business opportunity sought through classification.

Doubts regarding market potential and profitability

Our sample expressed a certain skepticism regarding the economic value of accessibility. For example, 16.7 percent of respondents considered the short- to medium-term profitability of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table II</th>
<th>Organization of the analyzed meta-themes and themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meta-themes</strong></td>
<td><strong>Themes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverse opinion on accessibility</td>
<td>Regarding the budget needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regarding insufficient benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Due to a particular context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linked to the amount of work required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An adapted room has a negative impact on overall customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements in favor of accessibility, in accordance with the literature</td>
<td>Companions mean more revenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>These clients tend to be more and more active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disabled people have money to spend in leisures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The aging of the population requires accessibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statements in favor of accessibility already underlined by Kéroul</td>
<td>Accessibility is not more expensive if part of construction or renovation works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accessibility profits to more people than disabled people only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accessibility is a social responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New arguments in favor of accessibility</td>
<td>Impact on the image of the establishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact on all clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest for groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accessibility is an integral part of customer service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The accessibility market represents a significant number of clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding of accessibility</td>
<td>Needs and expectations of disabled people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding of the accessibility arrangements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Available information about accessibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
accessibility amenities improbable if not downright impossible. However, when incorporated into a new construction or renovation, adapted facilities often entail no additional major expenses, since accessibility primarily involves organizing the space to make each element usable by all.

Likewise, few respondents saw accessible tourism as a promising market. Only 10 percent mentioned the aging population as factoring into increased accessibility needs; a scant 6.7 percent reported that people with disabilities were active and inclined to travel; and just 16.7 percent said that adapted facilities could serve guests other than disabled visitors. Lastly, the fact that tourists with disabilities rarely travel alone and have proven loyal to accessible facilities was mentioned by only one respondent. Such notions thus appear to be little known among hotel industry professionals, who would probably address accessibility differently had they had a more complete knowledge.

The potential of this clientele was also questioned by 16.7 percent of our sample, who believed that travelers with disabilities accounted for only a small part of the market. Similarly, 20 percent of respondents said that adapted rooms were mostly rented to guests who did not necessarily have specific needs. These notions are questionable, given that the health problems associated with a disability can be invisible, as highlighted by the World Health Organisation (2011). In fact, according to Magnus Berglund, accessibility director for the Scandic hotel chain, 70 percent of all disabilities are invisible. As a result, it is difficult for an establishment’s staff to judge whether or not someone who has booked an adapted room has a real need of it to be able to fully enjoy their stay. Furthermore, it came to our intention that guests who clearly need adapted rooms are not systematically counted for statistical ends by tourist accommodation establishments, which throws into question any estimates as to the scope of this clientele. The use of adapted rooms is therefore difficult to measure.

Accessibility: a poorly understood notion

Our study has revealed that raising awareness about the concept of accessibility makes sense, given the apparent lack of understanding about it. In fact, more than 20 percent of respondents rated their establishment as “accessible” when in fact it was not, which we were easily able to verify through simple questions about the essential features of accessible accommodation (e.g. doorway width or the free space next to the toilet known as the “transfer zone”).

Others said that a disabled person was usually accompanied by a helper (which in their eyes compensated somewhat for the lack of adapted facilities) or argued that guests with disabilities easily adapted to accommodation that was “non-accessible.”

In parallel, they also said that accessibility required too many amenities or that the boundary between adapted accommodation and hospital rooms was relatively difficult to establish. Finally, some respondents representing establishments with the accent on outdoor activities did not necessarily see the interest in developing accessibility, saying this clientele was less able to participate in such activities. Similar to the idea that disability systematically prevented physical activity, other prejudices were expressed by two respondents: one cited the need to be served by adapted public transport to be accessible to persons with disabilities; the other believed that proximity to a hospital was essential. A percentage of our respondents therefore had clearly erroneous notions of accessibility and disability, which led them to draw false conclusions about this clientele.

A shortfall due to errors

During our interviews, we observed cases where, despite a clear will to make accommodation accessible, the amenities provided fell short of actual needs. In all, 30 percent of our sample admitted making errors with regard to these amenities, while just over half (56.7 percent) reported knowing where to find the information they needed to adapt their facilities. The various situations encountered were as follows:

- some respondents (13.3 percent) said that they had assumed their architects, designers, suppliers, and/or interior decorators were aware of the standards to apply;
- some (6.7 percent) said that the construction or renovation professionals they had hired did not have the information required, resulting in inadequate facilities;
only one respondent reported feeling sufficiently informed (by an architectural firm specializing in such facilities); and

lastly, 10 percent said they became aware of their errors only after construction was completed and attributed the mistakes to having been guided by the building code only.

The construction or renovation professionals hired by the establishments studied struck us as being poorly informed. Yet their status had given them credibility with their clients, who assumed that their work automatically took into account access for people with disabilities. In addition, the Régie du bâtiment du Québec building code appears to be lacking in information regarding accessibility: it takes into account only the building and not the layout of furnishings, a crucial consideration. This is a problem, since the building code was mentioned by just over 23 percent of our sample as a source of information on implementing accessibility. We can see here a legal frame that is too week to sustain full accessibility, as mentioned in the literature.

Our sample clearly expressed difficulty in accessing the right information: expressions describing the information as “hard to find,” “unclear,” or “not standardized” sum up the situation. This leads to errors that are detected too late, during use or in the course of an evaluation by Kéroul. Moreover, 38.9 percent of respondents with accessible units reported considering the comments of guests with disabilities regarding the accessibility of their facility and making changes afterwards. This approach takes on its full meaning when the lack of benchmarks for making hotels accessible is noted. Without the right information, even operators who are willing to welcome this clientele fall into error, which constitutes a shortfall in the development of accessibility. Modifying existing facilities is far more expensive than including them in the construction or renovation process, which may quite understandably lead some hoteliers to refuse to retrofit their establishments after considering the additional budget this would take. Kéroul must therefore promote technical information in relation to its accessibility standards so that this information can be received by operators before the work begins.

Difficulties related to older buildings

Managers of older buildings appear especially hard to convince, since old buildings often lack the space required to ensure an appropriate result. Complicating attempts at modification is the fact that some are also subject to heritage protection programs. Moreover, 16.7 percent of respondents said that old buildings are particularly difficult to make accessible to persons with disabilities. It is undeniable that such cases are challenging in terms of both costs and fittings. Still, there are remarkable examples of world heritage sites that have been made accessible, including Athens’ historical center and various initiatives by the National Trust (UK) and ONCE Foundation (Spain). Such examples prove that making historic buildings accessible is far from impossible.

In our view, the prime incentives for encouraging their managers to embark on accessibility modifications are funding opportunities and tax breaks. In Québec, a hotel and tourist facility tax deduction allows operators to deduct 100 percent of the costs of making their establishments accessible. Yet none of the 30 respondents even mentioned knowing this exists. This constitutes another tangible economic argument that would be useful to communicate.

Action plan

Our study revealed a number of possible drivers for Kéroul to encourage the development of accessible tourist accommodation. First, so that the efforts to render a site accessible result in adequate amenities and to prevent any more errors, Kéroul must intervene from the earliest stages of the work. Early knowledge of projects to build or renovate tourist accommodation would let Kéroul transmit the requisite information to the various stakeholders involved. We believe municipalities would be able to inform Kéroul of any such projects since they are the ones who issue the construction permits. The fact that the building code is inadequate in terms of accessibility is a further source of errors. Kéroul could conceivably propose reviewing the code to rectify any shortfalls in facilities designed for people with disabilities.

The profitability of accessibility was also discussed by our respondents. The many economic arguments in favor of this clientele appeared to be as yet unknown among industry professionals.
We have identified several that would be good to submit to all decision makers in the tourism sector:

- People with disabilities represent USD $1.7 trillion in annual revenues worldwide (Donovan, 2013).
- The aging of the population tends to increase the percentage of people with disabilities worldwide. The World Health Organization predicts that by 2050, the percentage of the population aged over 60 years will have doubled compared to the year 2000 and that there is a well-established connection between aging and increased accessibility needs (World Health Organisation, 2007; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2004).
- Tomorrow’s seniors will have traveled far more than their predecessors over the course of their lifetimes and continue to do so until a very advanced age (Pochet and Schéou, 2003).
- Two sectors in particular appear to have implemented accessibility: luxury hotels and the cruise industry. The latter enjoys unprecedented popularity among travelers with disabilities; 12 percent of people with disabilities take cruises, compared to 10 percent of people without disabilities (Golden, 2013).
- This clientele shows a preference for destinations that are able to respond to their needs (Burnett and Baker, 2001; Kéroul, 2013).
- The length of stay of persons with disabilities is relatively longer than other tourists (Kéroul, 2013).
- Disabled tourists usually travel with a friend, relative, or an aid worker, thus increasing the number of guests (Donovan, 2013). The author also believes that these companions alone represent 2.2 billion potential customers and assesses their annual revenues added to those of people with disabilities at a total of US$8 trillion.

Outside of these arguments, other more tangible aspects may encourage the development of accessibility. Our research suggests two: the fact that accessible rooms can be just as pleasant and comfortable as other rooms; and the fact that an establishment that is accessible to people with disabilities is better able to take group bookings. A third major argument would be if accessibility eventually acquires a significant weighting in tourist accommodation classification (such as the allocation of the number of stars to hotels). This possibility can only be realized via the corporation managing this classification and with whom we urge Kéroul to collaborate.

Tax breaks and financial aid represent another tangible incentive. Québec currently offers a tax deduction that deserves to be better known. However, no financial assistance for making tourist accommodation accessible to disabled people exists as such. It would be of considerable interest to approach the Ministère du Tourisme about developing support of this kind, including establishments that are difficult to adapt (such as old buildings).

We have also reported on the skepticism of our sample regarding the usefulness of making accessibility improvements. Our recommendation for changing this over the long term is education. For example, accessibility needs should be fully explained to accommodation managers. It is also important to clarify that the purpose of an adapted room is not to provide care to its occupants but to facilitate their stay by providing the space needed for freedom of movement and easy use of the facilities. Adapted rooms are therefore particularly useful for the disabled guests (to whom they afford maximum autonomy) but equally available to the general public.

5. Originality

While few publications treat the accessibility issue from an industrial point of view, our study reveals the concerns and views of tourism industry professionals vis-à-vis accessibility. Through this research, we understood accommodation managers as well as construction and renovation professionals to have a biased notion of accessibility and the disabled clientele. Thus, we underlined a need for them to be better informed about accessible facilities and their usefulness, as well as on the potential people with disability represent. To be able to do so, further research to seek the communication channels through which these professionals should be reached to address these issues would be relevant.
In a world where sustainable development lies at the heart of many considerations, it is absolutely imperative to raise awareness about accessibility issues. In fact, sustainable development takes into consideration not only economic and environmental considerations but also social concerns linked to long-term challenges. Disability is indeed referenced in various parts of the United Nations (2015). So, a development that does not take into consideration an important part of the current and future world population cannot be qualified as durable (Kéroul, 2015).

Notes

1. As of February 2, 2015, the Corporation de l’industrie touristique du Québec (CITQ) reported 7,509 listed tourist accommodation establishments. Kéroul only counted 391 fully or partially accessible establishments.

2. This association’s mission is to inform its members and Québec hotel industry players, represent and defend the interests of hoteliers with industry stakeholders, and foster the sharing of knowledge and innovation.

References


Further reading


Corresponding author
Virginie Capitaine can be contacted at: virginie.c@pitaine.com

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website: www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm
Or contact us for further details: permissions@emeraldinsight.com
The future of tourism education and transformational learning

Introduction

The phenomenal growth in tourism, both domestic and international, that is showing no sign of slowing down makes this sector an economic, social, cultural, political, and environmental force that drives societal change. At the same time it is buffeted by these forces but has shown remarkable resilience. The speed of societal change is also ever increasing, largely driven by technology and its concomitant compression of time and space, increased connectedness, and mobility. As a result, the education provided by post-secondary institutions must help graduates understand, respond to, and manage this change and allow them to cope with the increasingly complex operating environment within which they will live and work. Indeed, due to the pace of change, we have not even contemplated just what these jobs of the future might actually be, and so the best we can hope is that we can produce graduates that are sufficiently agile, nimble, and creative forward thinkers (Dredge et al., 2014a). Universities in particular have come under increasing criticism for not educating students to fulfill a leadership role in assuring a sustainable future (Wallis and Steptoe, 2006), and business education specifically is critiqued for not addressing the ethical and moral questions in modern capitalism (Wilson and Thomas, 2012).

This concern for the future of tourism education has given rise to the Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI) in 2007 (Dredge et al., 2014b). Convinced of the necessity to fundamentally retool and redesign of our programs, the nature of what is taught, and the manner in which it is taught (Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI), 2010), a thoughtful and committed group of educators from many parts of the world focused on defining the core values of tourism education and on activating their implementation in curricula. The TEFI (2010) White Paper outlines the six challenges facing educators in undertaking this important task: overcoming the innate tendency to reproduce our current form and substance of education; providing students with the skills and knowledge to address pressing issues of the future, not just execute tasks in the immediate; exposing students to appropriate corporate and broader societal values, not just narrow neoliberal doctrine; recognizing that some issues, like climate change, must be addressed now even though we will not feel their full impact until far into the future; balancing the social, cultural, and environmental consequences of tourism development with dominant economic values; and understanding that the extent and pace of change requires a commitment to lifelong learning.

Given these challenges and the multitude of uncertainties of the future, TEFI participants concluded that certain values would equip students with the foundation to tackle most situations. Five value-based principles were identified as imperative in tourism education programs if students are to become responsible leaders and stewards for the destinations where they work or live. These are: ethics, stewardship, knowledge, professionalism, and mutuality. For a full discussion on each of these, please refer to the TEFI (2010) White Paper. Within this context, and recognizing the different learning styles of the next generation, it can be argued that how we teach is just as important as what we teach (Black, 2010). This, then, is what gave rise to the eighth gathering of TEFI educators and others interested in the concept of transformational learning as applied to tourism.

Transformational learning

Mezirow’s (1991) theory of transformational learning concerns itself with construing meaning from experience as a guide to action. The theory addresses three types of transformation that must occur: psychological (changes in understanding of the self), convictional (revision of belief systems), and behavioral (changes in lifestyle). Tourism as a multidisciplinary field of study and travel, which underpins it, is uniquely positioned to facilitate such a transformation in our
students. Indeed, TEFI has had a long-held commitment to enhancing the worldmaking capability of students, educators, practitioners, and the industry. To do this effectively, we must, however, also consider the positive and negative impacts exerted by tourism in its development. In addition, we must ask ourselves how we can help students envisage a future that is often beyond our own power of understanding as instructors, and how our scholarship can contribute to this in a meaningful way, not just measured by the quantity of publications and citations.

These, then, were some of the themes addressed by TEFI8, held in Guelph, Ontario, Canada from June 4 to 7, 2014 under the heading “Transformational Learning: Activism, Empowerment and Political Agency in Tourism Education.” Four perspectives — focusing on educators, institutions, students, and the industry as well as the broader community — were explored through a variety of keynote addresses, panel discussions, paper presentations, and workshops.

As educators, we bring our own values, politics, and professionalism to the task, and for students, who are just learning to exercise criticality, what we say is their reality. We therefore have the power to change the emphasis: not “business as usual” and “tourism as a panacea” for many ills, but rather taking responsibility for change and educating students by creating awareness of important global issues from poverty to gender issues and diversity, climate change, war and conflict, to the ethics of slum and dark tourism. This requires that we, ourselves, must live lives of consequence and be supported in our efforts by institutions that are themselves value-centered and supportive of social entrepreneurship in the curriculum. Only then can we hope to help shape our students into moral citizens, who will actively engage in changing the world both as students and as graduates. However, as Johnny Edmonds, Secretariat Coordinator at the World Indigenous Tourism Alliance pointed out, the tourism education we provide rarely acknowledges indigenous people and their deep roots in the land they occupy. Unless there is “the talk (formal corporate commitment), the walk (comparison of programs against six fundamental activities), and the legacy (consequential actions and outcomes)” (Edmonds, 2014), we cannot claim transformational engagement with indigenous communities.

Yet, in recent decades, there has been a considerable shift away from the perception of universities as institutions providing orientation to society and toward one that takes a more economically oriented view, turning universities into corporate organizations producing a skilled workforce ready to enter the marketplace (Woelert, 2014). Concerned with the implications of this shift, leading academic institutions laid the foundation for a global platform for Principles of Responsible Management Education under the coordination of the UN Global Compact (PRME, 2014a). As a signatory to the PRME, the University of Guelph aims to educate “leaders for a sustainable world” by incorporating and adhering to its six principles regarding the purpose, values, methods, research, partnership, and dialogue of and about management education (PRME, 2014b).

The student perspective was also examined in detail, first by Chris Castro, Founder & Executive Director of IDEAS for Us (Intellectual Decisions on Environmental Awareness Solutions), who clearly demonstrated that by engaging students in action learning and doing outside the classroom, they not only come away with a change in their frames of reference but also a deeper understanding that society is about working together, not just freedom and individualism. This was followed by a number of papers and discussions on very popular types of student travel such as voluntourism. Unfortunately, the ethics behind such study trips and the learning that supposedly takes place were both highly questioned as students do not arrive value neutral, and normally have neither the deep contact with the indigenous population that would allow them to gain an appreciation of a different world view nor do they have the maturity to act as bridges between cultures.

Yet it is clear that the world needs a new style of tourism education, one that indeed creates such bridges and that imbues business with a conscience beyond its fundamental profit motivation. We must allow students to critically examine the assumptions and beliefs underpinning either courses of action or notions of success (Pollock, 2014). The notion that tourism is a business where people take every aspect of nature to make money for those who came there first, sell it as cheaply as possible, and force local populations to provide for tourists when they do not have enough for their own needs is neither sustainable nor ethical. Specifically, indigenous populations must be empowered to express their own voice and be given the ability to control the pace of development to their own ability to adapt to changes.
However, much of this learning can only take place outside the classroom in real life situations which requires us as educators to get out of our habits of mind and practices and transform how we teach: we must allow for the co-creation with students of an education fit for our times, and one that paints a picture of a compelling future for them so that they will want to be engaged with the communities in which they live, learn, and work. The vast majority of businesses in tourism are micro or small enterprises, firmly embedded in their local communities. Their willingness to protect and cherish the resources that make their destination unique and to welcome and share with strangers their knowledge, then indeed both host and guest can learn to see the world from a different perspective, one that will enrich, challenge, and provide meaning to both (Pollock, 2012). This is the vision for tourism that as educators we should be advocating for in and outside the classroom, because these are the true transformational encounters with communities.

The way forward

As Anna Pollock (2014) so eloquently put forward in her invited address at TEFI8, we must prepare and support our students to become leaders and changemakers within their community and in their professional lives. To achieve this, our pedagogy must be action oriented, and must imbue them with new literacies about issues of global concern such as climate change, diversity, poverty, and ecosystems bringing together transdisciplinary knowledge through collective, collaborative, and self-directed learning. Only then will students “wake up, grow up and step up.”

TEFI has set itself five areas of activity to fulfill its mission of being the leading, forward-looking network that inspires, informs, and supports tourism educators and students to passionately and courageously transform the world for the better:

- teaching and learning;
- tourism scholarship;
- advocacy of tourism as a field of study and research;
- tourism education futures; and
- tourism and social entrepreneurship.

Work in all of these areas was advanced through workshops at the conference with agreed upon projects undertaken by each of the workgroups. Anyone interested in any of these topics is welcome to join!

The full details of the conference, its proceedings, and future actions by TEFI are available at: www.tourismeducationfutures.org/

References


Pollock, A. (2014), Transform or Perish – A Rationale and Approach to Applying Transformational Learning to Tourism & Hospitality, University of Guelph, Ontario.


Volunteer Tourism – Popular Humanitarianism in Neoliberal Times

Mostafaneszhad Mary
Ashgate
2014
169pp.
Keywords Book review, Volunteer tourism, Humanitarianism
Review DOI 10.1108/JTF-12-2015-0055

An overall commentary about the content of book

Readers who are expecting to receive an extensive overview of how the market of volunteer tourism organization and economy has developed will be disappointed but readers looking for a critical perspective and for ways that neoliberalism mediates tourism developments in Thailand, this book is a good match.

The author Mostafaneszhad is a Critical Anthropology Scholar with a sharp eye for detail who spent years in the field and speaks the language of the hosts and provides an insider’s view. Volunteer tourism is a very fast growing niche tourism market in the world and is fascinating in its complexity.

Drawing on cross-disciplinary perspectives in geography and anthropology as well as development, tourism and cultural studies, the author illustrates how a focus on sentimentality in volunteer tourism encounters obscures the structural inequalities on which the experience is based.

Throughout the book this focus is omnipresent, however during the read and examining the extensive fieldwork it also becomes clear to the reader that the volunteer tourism experience has many layers. The all-pervading extensive geopolitical ideological focus does not fully catch the particularities of skilful collected data showing often-complex interactions. The statement by the author that “volunteer tourism is a twenty-first century materialization of popular humanitarianism where the geopolitics of hope are remapped in a commodity oriented fashion” (p. 143) shows her political perspective and sets the tone for the rest of the book.

What contribution does the book make to our understanding of the future of tourism?

The book provides us with an account of what happens when popular humanitarianism, ethical consumption and tourism in a neoliberal marked economy meet. It is a useful insight into the future of tourism because in the future popular humanitarianism, ethical consumption and tourism will meet again in different configurations. The developments in Thailand have been mapped out. The book shows how a neoliberal system turns even developmental issues into a tourism commodities and clearly shows the effects of advances such as popular humanitarianism on tourism development. This is relevant since popular humanitarianism might be a driving force for other developments in tourism. The book also provides a future insight into an understanding of a geopolitics of hope.

This is also expressed in the book: *The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Creating an Academy of Hope*, edited by I. Ateljevic, N. Morgan, and A. Pritchard.

This book is one of a number published by Ashgate New Directions in Tourism Analyses. The aim of the series is to publish high-quality monographs or edited collections that seek to develop tourism analysis at both theoretical and substantive levels using approaches which are broadly derived from allied social science disciplines such as sociology, social anthropology, human and social geography, and cultural studies.

The central arguments of the book

The author of the book poses three central arguments that are implicitly...
discussed in the book and explicitly mentioned at the start of the book.

First, how neoliberalism is resisted as well as how this resistance is co-opted through the privatization of social justice agendas.

Second, how individuals take on neoliberal subjectivities and identity formations.

Third, the ways neoliberalism is appropriated as a coping strategy in local struggles for economic survival.

Structure and setup of the book

The book is structured through seven chapters including an introductory and a concluding chapter.

In Chapter 2, entitled “Making a difference one village at a time” is an historical account of the origins of volunteer tourism. It poses the thesis that volunteer tourism is not a new phenomenon and that as early 1850, Thomas Cook’s original package tour was inspired by “broad social agenda and philanthropic goals” in the twenty-first century the volunteer tourist is considered a neoliberal subject. Accordingly the author volunteer tourism is motivated by a widespread romanticization of peoples and places perceived to be beyond the realm of capitalist modernity and therefore living more authentic and community oriented lives (p. 40).

In Chapter 3: “The seduction of development: NGOs and alternative tourism in Northern Thailand”. Briefly introduces the problematic relationship between them. The chapter identifies different NGO’s and their history in the Thai context. Moreover the chapter offers relevant testimonials from volunteers regarding the NGO’s. The theme of the next Chapter, 4 is: “Cosmopolitan empathy, new social movements and the moral economy of volunteer tourism”. It resulted in a very readable and insightful chapter, which claims that the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami triggered the development of so called celebrity volunteers around the world as role models for young people.

Celebrities so as Angelina Jolie, Madonna and George Clooney lead the voluntary tourists and provide a basis for a global citizenship.

In Chapter 5: “The cultural politics of sentimentality in volunteer tourism” The author introduces her political agenda and argues that volunteer tourism stresses the sentimental aspects of development and neglects structural inequality. Through a number of examples she backs up the argument. In Chapter 6: “Converging interests? Cross-cultural authenticity in volunteer tourism” focusses on the experiences of the volunteers. This chapter offers an interesting perspective. The experiences the author describes from a personal level are perceived by me the reader as rather valuable. However, in the argument of the book, these are being framed as rather plastic neoliberal phenomenon. This finding is rather controversial since it somehow undermines the argument of the book. In Chapter 7 “Re-mapping the movement: popular humanitarianism and the geopolitics of hope in volunteer tourism” the author also becomes more optimistic and sees potential for volunteer tourism to play a role in a so called “Geopolitics of Hope”. In the introduction to Chapter 1, the author introduces the Assemblage theory by Deleuze and Guattari, using this theory would have helped the author to identify what volunteer tourism does at a larger number of levels.

Would you recommend purchasing, yes or no and reasons why?

I would recommend buying the book since it offers readers a rigorous perspective, which is insightful and unique.

By the end of the book, the author is also seems to be a different person. She loses some of her strong opinions and ends with questions for the reader. I agree, I can see potential interactions which somehow can escape the neoliberal forces and become transformative in itself.
Through ethnographic and theoretical representing of volunteer tourism alignments in the milieu of volunteer tourism in Northern Thailand, the author provides an account of neoliberalism as a cultural, political and economic ideology and practise that takes place, shifts and reconfigures within the transnational volunteer tourism encounter.

**Alexander Grit**

Alexander Grit is a Research Lecturer at the Stenden University of Applied Sciences, Leeuwarden, The Netherlands.

Further reading


About the author

Dr Alexander Grit is a Research Lecturer at the Stenden University of Applied Sciences. He teaches courses on leisure studies, tourism development, urban development, hospitality and retail concept development, and he conducts research with students and partners into the art of facilitating serendipity in spaces of hospitality. His research interest focuses on the health of interactional spaces, network organizations, art and hospitality, serendipitous processes and Deleuzian Philosophy. He has contributed articles and book chapters on art, retail concepts, home exchanges and museums to edited books and journals including Research in Hospitality Management and *The Critical Turn in Tourism Studies: Creating an Academy of Hope* (2010). He is co-author of the book *Disruptive Tourism and its Untidy Guests: Alternative Ontologies for Future Hospitalities* (2014).