ATLAS

Association for Tourism
and Leisure Education

Selling or Telling?
Paradoxes in tourism, culture and heritage

ATLAS Reflections 2008

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Contents

Introduction

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Dear colleagues,

This has been my third year as co-ordinator of ATLAS and it has been an interesting and successful year in terms of new and continuing activities. Thank you as always to Leontine, Jantien and our new administrator Linda for their ongoing hard work behind the scenes.

Conferences and events

Last year's annual conference in Viana was a great success with almost 200 delegates. The event was relaxed but well organised and the hosts did themselves proud as always. The ATLAS Africa Conference in Kampala focused on the theme of *Tourism and wealth creation*, and was one of the best attended ATLAS Africa conferences so far with more than 110 delegates. We are very much looking forward to this year's conference in Brighton, our first in the UK for many years. Planning is also well underway for the 2008 annual conference next year in May in Aalborg, Denmark. At present, we are also considering bids from institutions wanting to host conferences in the future.

Special interest groups

This has been a really productive year for Special Interest Groups, especially in terms of meetings. The Spa and Wellness group met in Spa, Belgium in March for a lively and enjoyable symposium. The Backpacker group had a meeting in Shimla in India in April, which was by all accounts an interesting and memorable experience. The Cultural Tourism group continues to be very active with their ongoing research project and another round of data has been collected. The Gastronomy group is planning an edited book of proceedings from the last meeting. The City and National Capital Tourism Research group is providing a number of opportunities for publications for ATLAS members and is planning a joint research project. The Business Tourism group had a good meeting in Lahti, Finland in December and continues to be dynamic in its activities. The SME group has a new Co-ordinator, David Leslie from Glasgow Caledonian University. Thank you to Rhodri for his hard work over the years with this group and thank you to David for stepping in and bringing a number of interesting new ideas. The Religious Tourism group is discussing future meetings, possibly focusing on Spirituality and Tourism in conjunction with the Spa and Wellness group in Israel. A new Tourism Geographies Special Interest Group was launched in Bristol, UK by the Centre for Leisure, Tourism and Society (CeLTS) at the University of the West of England, Bristol in March 2008. Last but not least, there will be another new SIG on Volunteer Tourism Research (details available later in this publication). New members are welcome to join these groups anytime.

Publications

ATLAS publications are emerging all the time. There have been many new edited books this year (2007-2008), some of which have published conference proceedings or results of ATLAS research projects. These include *Cultures and Communities. Tourism Studies in Eastern and Southern Africa* (edited by Bob Wishitemi, Anna Spenceley and Harry Wels) and Volumes 1-3 of *Tourism and Nature in Africa* (edited by Van der Duim, R. and Kloek, M.E.). Other publications included *Tourism, Creativity and Development* and a series of four publications *From Cultural Tourism to Creative Tourism* (edited by Greg Richards and Julie Wilson), *Volunteer Tourism: A Global Analysis* (a report by TRAM Research), *Sibiu European Capital of Culture 2007* (edited by Greg Richards and Ilie Rotariu), and *European Cultural Capital Report* (by Robert Palmer and Greg Richards). You will notice that it has been a busy and productive year for ATLAS's former Chair, Greg Richards! His continued support for ATLAS is always very much appreciated.

ATLAS regional groups

ATLAS Europe, Asia-Pacific and Africa are all active and continue to organise interesting events and to increase membership where possible. John Swarbrooke and colleagues from the Americas are currently working hard to establish ATLAS Americas, and it is likely that there will be an event in the region soon to launch this group. Please contact us if you have an interest in helping to co-ordinate or participate in this group. Spanish speakers are especially welcome, although the working language will be English.

We hope that this is a successful and enjoyable year for all ATLAS members and that you have the chance to participate in the many forthcoming events, research projects and publications we have to offer.

With very best wishes,

Melanie Smith
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Before selling, before telling: Understanding the heritage organisation's strategy and impacts

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Although an increasing number of socio-economic studies are being conducted at cultural heritage sites, these tend to focus on specific impact dimensions. This model offers a holistic framework for analysing socio-economic impact of heritage sites. It presents impact as a dynamic concept and provides a typological basis for analysing impacts. The holistic impact model consists of five elements: the cultural heritage site (CHS) impact context, the site mission and objectives, the site stakeholders, and the site management and decision making context, which all influence and contribute to the potential socio-economic impacts of a heritage site. The different components of the holistic framework model and its relationship to impact evaluation are examined below.

Introduction

This chapter contends that before heritage sites consider selling and telling they should devote time to understanding and conceptualising their operations. By understanding how their operations affect impacts and outcomes sites will be better placed to both sell and tell.

Most impact studies undertaken to-date have usually focused on a single impact dimension at one moment in time. This research takes a broader view of impact through the use of a holistic analytical model (see figure 1). It attempts to capture the complex, multi-dimensional nature of impact, the multiple influences on impact, and offers a guide to which impacts should be examined, given the specific circumstances of a cultural heritage site (see McLoughlin 2006c). This is not an exhaustive account of all the influences that affect impact at heritage sites but a thematic overview of such influences.

Socio-economic impact embraces many possible impact dimensions (e.g. economic, individual, social, environmental, etc). Within each dimension there are a number of possible methodologies which can be employed to identify and 'measure' impact, each method having advantages and disadvantages (McLoughlin *et al*. 2006a).

The holistic impact model consists of five elements: the cultural heritage site (CHS) impact context, the site mission and objectives, the site stakeholders, and the site organisational context/management and decision making context, which all influence and contribute to the potential socio-economic impacts of a heritage site. The different components of the holistic impact model and its relationship to impact evaluation are examined below.

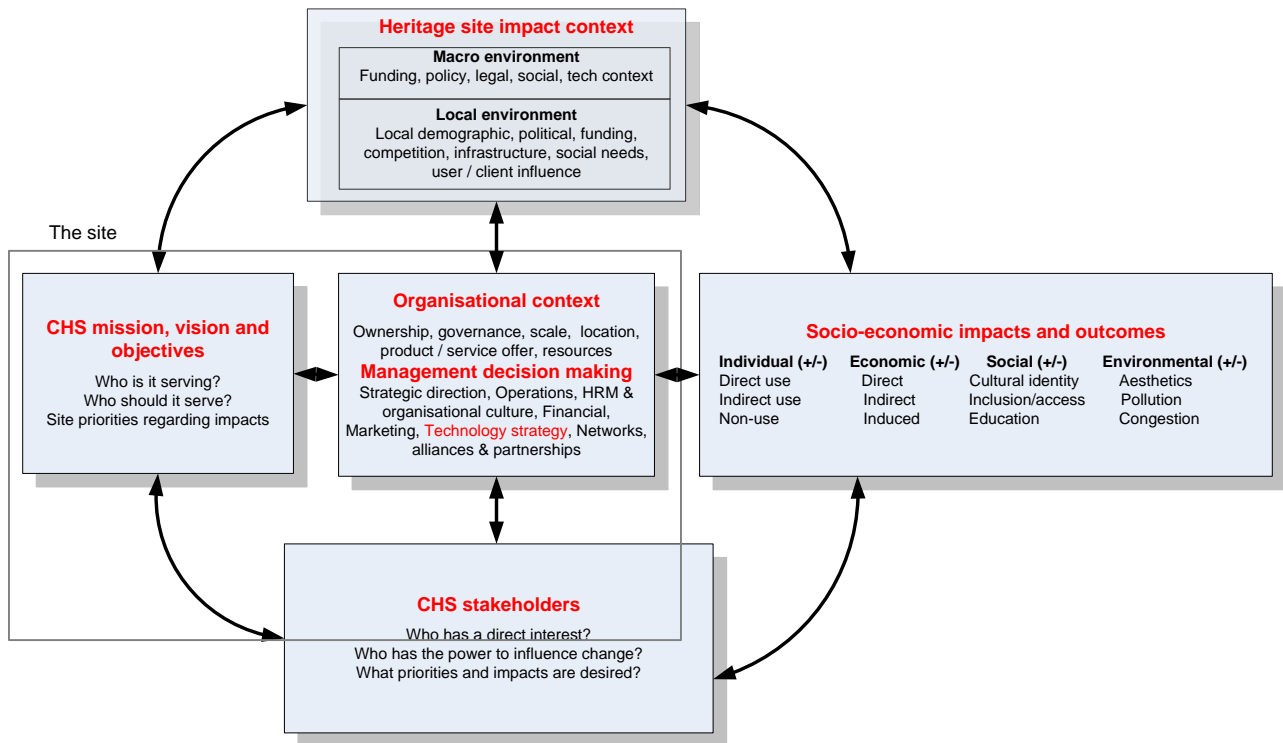**Figure 1: A dynamic holistic impact model for cultural heritage sites**

The heritage site impact context

The impact context is interpreted broadly as the specific macro-contextual influences and micro-contextual (such as organisational) influences on a cultural heritage site. Macro contextual influences can include the macro-economic environment, policy context, legal framework, cultural context and values and the technological context.

The micro-contextual influences exist in the local environment of the site[1]. These influences include elements such as economic, political, funding, demographic, legal, competition, infrastructure, etc. For heritage managers the impact context creates opportunities and threats for their organisations and can impose constraints on decision making. Most of these factors are beyond the direct control of cultural heritage managers, but nevertheless affect heritage site strategies and final impacts and outcomes. Furthermore, many of the factors are inter-related and so for example, local economy could affect heritage site funding or the policy context could affect the legal framework.

The macro environmental context
Each site operates in a macro-national context (and wider European and global context). A number of influences from this context affect heritage sites, these include:

- *Macro-economy*: The macro-economy (regional, national and international) affects, for instance, tax revenues, disposable income, and policy funding priorities. The macro-economy has a major influence on the heritage sector. For example, a rise in global fuel prices could affect which socio-economic groups are able to travel. This can then affect the impact of a heritage site.

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[1] Of course, some elements within the impact context (such as policy, funding and legal frameworks) can straddle the border between macro and micro influences.

- *Policy context*: The macro-policy context is another important determinant for potential outcomes and impacts at heritage sites. Policy is fundamental to understanding impact; it influences heritage sites at multiple levels. It determines what gains funding and what does not, what is conserved and what it is not, it influences local authority policy, and it can also affect national legal structures which influence the heritage sector, etc. (Mignosa and Rizzo 2004, Rizzo and Mignosa 2006).

- *Cultural context and values*: The 'cultural context' and values of a society in supporting heritage, will in turn affect practical policy and funding priorities. For example, the cultural context helps define heritage. As Ashworth and Howard (1999: 11) note "Heritage is whatever people want to conserve, preserve, protect, or collect". As such, definitions of what should be preserved can differ between countries (i.e. market squares in Germany, country houses in the UK, or heritage coastlines in France). Furthermore, the definition of what constitutes 'heritage' is not static but dynamic. In the developed world the definition of heritage has broadened considerably in the later half of the twentieth century[2]. It is important to acknowledge that as time passes the definition of heritage will continue to change according to different political aspirations, and the increasing input of communities and groups outside of the traditional field of 'experts'.

- *Technological context*: It is important to consider technological developments and how these might affect the visitor experience. New ICT hardware, software and their associated standards are being developed continually. The applicability of these technologies and standards to the heritage sector is dependent on economic and social factors such as cost and user acceptance (e.g. in the last fifteen years websites have become an integral part of heritage marketing and presentation, this has only become possible through the global advances in ICT and the acceptance and penetration of the PC and internet use in households across Europe).

In this dynamic model of the impact of a heritage site it is accepted that the heritage site can influence the impact context. Some heritage sites can in themselves be major drivers for the tourist economy, but also groups of sites can create heritage zones within cities or entire tourist historic cities. These can be major drivers for the local economy.

However, much of the macro context is beyond the sphere of influence of cultural heritage sites. Such sites are unable to exert any influence on the regional, national and international economies. Similarly, the development of technology such as ICT takes place outside of the cultural heritage sphere (usually in the commercial sectors) and gradually migrates to the heritage sphere (Arnold and Geser 2007: 77).

The micro environmental context

The micro environmental context includes the local demographic profile, economy, policy and political context. For example, numerous local authorities and governments have developed strategies, with accompanying funding, targeting heritage as a key element in regeneration programmes.

In heritage sites with a strong orientation towards tourism, a principal element of a site's economic impact will depend on the total visitor experience which itself is dependent on

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[2] Early definitions of cultural heritage that encompassed the monumental remnants of cultures were gradually extended to include new elements from non-artistic sectors of activity such as industrial heritage, or from specific contexts such as the underwater heritage. Today, the notion of heritage is much more open, and is used to reflect living culture rather than just our past. UNESCO now includes in its' definition of cultural heritage historic cities, cultural landscapes, natural sacred sites, underwater cultural heritage, museums, movable cultural heritage, handicrafts, documentary and digital heritage, cinematographic heritage, oral traditions, languages, festive events, rites and beliefs, music and song, the performing arts, traditional medicine, literature, traditional sports and games, and culinary traditions.

numerous off-site factors (e.g. coordinated local tourism strategy, the presence of other visitor attractions, quality of facilities such as transport, restaurants, hotels, etc). It is rare for a heritage site to be immune to these factors.

The degree of competition or complementarity with other attractions can also influence impact. For example, a heritage site within a historic urban centre (such as Rome, Venice or Paris) could face competition from numerous alternative heritage attractions; however, the nucleation of heritage sites within a town or city can act as a stimulus to attract visitors. In such cases the visitors would be more likely to be interested in heritage tourism. Such situations have been given the label 'co-opetition'. Of course, the competition is not limited to other heritage sites, any attraction which could divert tourist footfall away from heritage represents potential competition, but the creation of a diverse tourist product offering is likely to be beneficial for attracting a more diverse range of visitors.

In the dynamic model there is the potential for sites at the micro-contextual level to have some influence over the 'impact context'. Cultural heritage sites have a greater potential to influence and have an impact on the micro context compared to the macro context. Some heritage sites can make a (sometimes significant) contribution to the local economy through increased visitor numbers, capital expenditures, or brand value.

Mission, vision and objectives

The *mission* can be thought of as a heritage site's overriding purpose. It outlines the broad general directions that an organisation should and will follow. Questions that need to be asked include; what is the site there for? Whom is it serving? Who should it serve? Why is it being funded?

All heritage sites have a sense of their mission, either explicitly or implicitly, which partly reflect the macro and micro impact context (the culture, the national system, and corporate governance and legal system) and also the power and interest of the stakeholders. As a process, not least to guide an impact evaluation, it is useful to know who decides the mission and how it is decided (see figure 2).

The *objectives* of an organisation represent a more specific commitment, often over a specified time period, consistent with the mission (this may be quantified, but this can be inappropriate in some circumstances). Objectives take the generalities of the mission and turn them into more specific commitments: usually this process will cover what is to be done and its timing. Different kinds of objectives are possible: some will be quantified, some not. Of course, there may be conflict between objectives, particularly between the long-term and short-term interests of the organisation. Typically, objectives should be *challenging but achievable.*

Objectives may be seen as more of a heritage management tool, being statements of specific outcomes to be achieved which may or may not be measurable. For example, in the UK there is a national benchmarking process for museums which offers comparisons against certain prescribed criteria. There are also performance indicators being employed by various museums. Despite the growing targets/objectives culture in the public sector of the UK there is a need to be sceptical of their role and aware of the potentially distorting effects in delivering a service.

Figure 2: The influences on the formulation of mission and objectives of a site

Corporate governance	Organisational ethics
• Who *should* the organisation serve? • How should purposes be determined?	• Which purposes *should* be prioritised? • Why?

Organisational purposes
Mission
Objectives

Stakeholders	Cultural context
• Who does the organisation serve?	• Which purposes *are* prioritised? • Why

Most heritage sites express their *values* in two key ways: Through their services (what they do): such as addressing educational and social needs and their organisational practices (how they do it): who owns, controls and benefits from the value created by the heritage site, employment practices (who is employed, participation, job design, etc), and the relationships between different stakeholder classes.

One role of a socio-economic impact analysis would be to evaluate the extent to which the mission, values and objectives are being achieved. Are the intended outcomes being delivered? Should the mission and objectives be revised? Which impacts should be evaluated?

Stakeholders

The holistic model places stakeholders as a separate dimension of impact because they are a key consideration for all the other components of the model because they either directly or indirectly influence final impacts[3]. There are numerous definitions of

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[3] Of course, stakeholders are not separate entities they are integral to all the components of the framework from management decision making, mission and objectives, to impact context.

stakeholders; "Stakeholders are those individuals or groups who depend on the organisation to fulfil their own goals and on whom, in turn, the organisation depends" (Johnson *et al.* 2006). Broadly speaking stakeholders encompasses all those who have an interest in the site and its running. Stakeholders are critical for impact evaluation, because they have:

- A key role in forming a site's mission and objectives

- Strong influence over strategy and management decision making

- A high importance in establishing which impacts are priorities and which are selected for measurement, and

- Influence over the cost and complexity of the impact measures chosen.

Figure 3: A power/interest matrix applicable to cultural heritage stakeholders
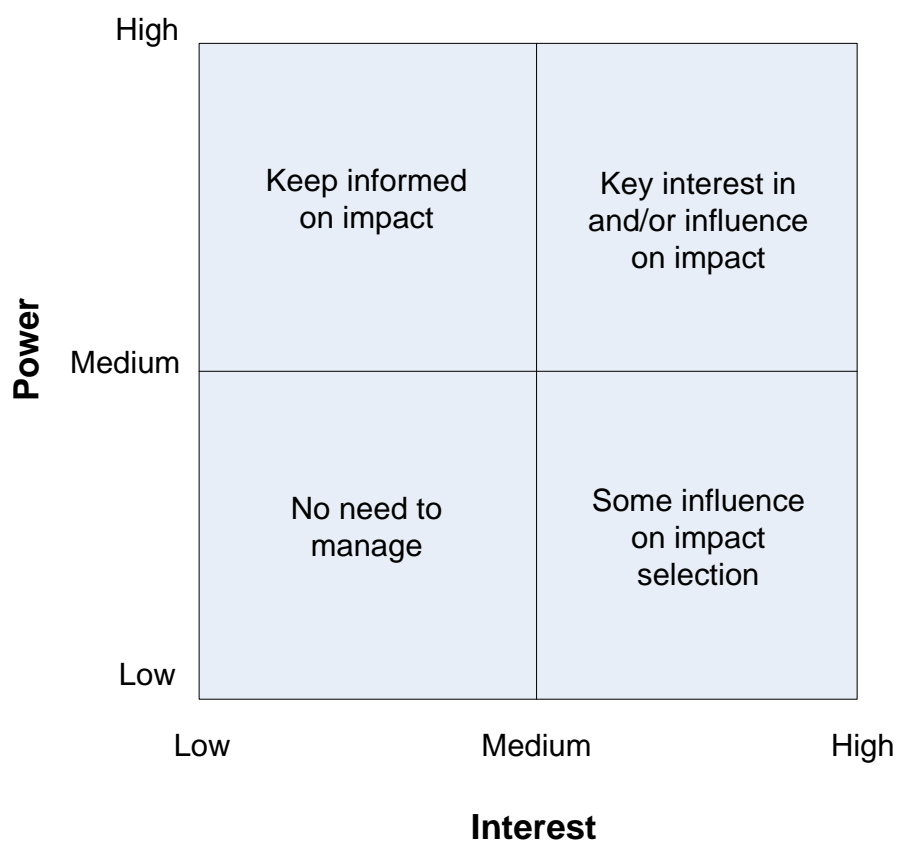
Stakeholders can be divided into a number of groups including the public, press, heritage interest groups, heritage support networks, local authority, trade associations, wider client groups, funding organisations, narrower client groups, trustees, the board of directors, staff, and family of staff. Of course, each of these groups has differing levels of power and interest in the heritage site.

For example, a museum curator, or the board of directors would have both a high interest in the impacts of the site and a high power to influence change. Many heritage sites are publicly financed and are required to be accountable to a range of stakeholders. When difficult strategic or investment decision are being considered it can be useful to map

stakeholders in terms of their power and interest in the outcomes of a decision to aid the political process of the decision making (see figure 3).

The heritage site's organisational context

Organisational context of the heritage site is central to understanding impact. The impact of any site is heavily dependent on its location, quality, significance and the scale of the heritage site itself. As sites vary in their local, regional, national and global significance then so will their relative impacts. Some factors to consider include:

* *Ownership*: The ownership of heritage sites is a principal determinant of the impact that a site will have. Ownership influences funding sources, governance structures, objectives, etc. However, ownership of heritage sites is not static. For example, because cultural heritage sites can have high maintenance costs – especially in countries with strictly enforced legislation regarding the upkeep of such sites – there is a tendency to see the movement of ownership from private to public hands. (Although, there are limits to the size of the public purse and without sustainability it is questionable as to how long the transfer of assets from private to public hands can take place).

* *Corporate governance*: Heritage sites can have a wide range of governance structures ranging from private and public, to not-for-profit and charities. Each of these will influence the impacts and outcomes of a heritage site. While it would be simplistic to assume that all sites under private ownership have a greater profit motivation than sites in public ownership there is a trend towards this scenario that cannot be ignored.

* *Location*: Location is paramount for the impact of a cultural heritage site. The location determines factors such as accessibility to transport networks, proximity to population centres links with other potential attractions. Surprisingly, location can be a dynamic entity. Although cultural heritage sites are fixed entities within the landscape or urban fabric the significance of the surrounding locality can change over time. A rundown part of an urban centre can become a popular tourist zone increasing the potential of the heritage sites within that area (such as Barcelona's Gothic quarter, the Barri Gòtic, preserved through neglect and now one of the principal tourist magnets in the city). Alternatively, the creation of new transport links such as low cost airline routes, or motorway and train-links can radically change the accessibility of a heritage site.

* *Quality of the cultural offer:* This exists at two levels. The significance of the site to society, and the quality of the 'visitor offer'.

  – *Significance*: The significance and importance of a site is a difficult entity to define. Sites have significance at multiple levels such as local, aesthetic, regional, and national. Of course, as with so many elements of the dynamic impact context the significance of cultural heritage sites is not a static element, it can change over time. It can change because of changes in the political system, technology, etc. Even at a single point in time a site may hold alternative significance to different elements of the population – this can determine who visits a particular site.

  – *Quality of the visitor offer*: The quality of the visitor offer at a heritage site or experience can be determined by a number of factors such as the level of preservation, which lies outside the scope of the heritage site, however, site maintenance, level of restoration and visitor facilities tend to fall within the potential control of a site, finance depending, as can the actual or perceived authenticity of the site. Contemporary Western society is a consumer society. In this society the public have been exposed to progressively more sophisticated products, services and marketing, and as a direct result they have become much more sophisticated

consumers. It is these same consumers who visit heritage sites and they will judge those sites accordingly. Facilities and services at heritage sites need to be at a standard commensurate with contemporary consumer ideals otherwise sites risk alienating many of their visitors.

- *Scale*: Scale can act as a guide to the potential impact of a cultural heritage site (although, no more than a guide). Larger sites have the potential to induce a greater impact than smaller sites, because of their ability to support a greater throughput of visitors, sustain larger potential capital costs, higher staff requirements and other running costs. Of course, concentrations of smaller heritage sites can have a similar effect.

These factors have a strong influence on the site – and feed into the management decision-making context. Furthermore, it is argued that contextual factors are immensely important determinants of the socio-economic impact of heritage sites. Placing a heritage site in context will guide what impacts that should be evaluated. For instance, there would be little point in doing a full, and often costly, economic impact analysis of a small museum based in a large city that was designed to serve the local community and foster local cultural identity. In such a context impact assessment may be aimed at issues of community integration and social inclusion, etc.

Heritage management decision making

The quality of the heritage management decision-making will have a strong influence on final impacts. Many impact studies either ignore this or treat it as a black box. The principal components of the management decision-making element include: operations, financial, marketing, human resource management and organisational culture, and technology strategy.

- *Operations*: Operations management considers how resources such as capital, people, information and materials are converted into outputs such as services, and information (products). Cultural heritage site operations management is made more complex by the lack of funds.

- *Financial*: The cultural heritage sector is perennially short of funds. Increasing competition for central funds, increasing operational costs, and an increasing number of heritage sites makes this situation unlikely to change. The management of financial resources within heritage sites is crucial.

- *Human resources*: The effective management, training and motivation of personnel within heritage sites are other factors that can influence impact. This affects all levels within a site from management to voluntary staff. The drive and determination of heritage site managers is crucial to the long-term success of sites. With funding being such an issue in the sector, financial incentives for high-end managers are poor and considerable reliance is placed on the dedication, and devotion of managers in the sector. Correspondingly, heritage sites often have highly qualified staff with postgraduate qualifications who are paid correspondingly less than in other sectors. This situation requires careful management. Furthermore, many heritage sites increasingly use voluntary labour to support many functions in the day-to-day running of sites. This also requires careful management. Human resource management issues also exist beyond the level of the site. For example, the decline in skilled crafts persons

capable of maintaining and preserving heritage sites could have long-term implications for the sustainability of some sites[4].

- *Marketing*: The marketing strategy will influence the number and type of visitors which determines key final economic impacts. With often limited marketing budgets, a key marketing strategy will be the extent that sites can leverage advertising and promotion by combining with other interested partners in joint marketing campaigns.

  The increasing number of undergraduate and post-graduate courses, and academic books devoted to heritage marketing suggests that there is a growing awareness of the critical nature of marketing in the cultural heritage sector. Furthermore, the growing number of heritage special interest groups in the marketing sector further reinforces this trend.

  This raises the need for regular impact reports based on efficient accumulation of relevant data to feed back into strategic decision making and influencing future investment decisions. For example, few sites have a *detailed* breakdown of their visitor profile. Not only is this useful impact data but it can enable more targeted marketing strategies to take place – further enhancing desired impact. This presents socio-economic impact as a dynamic rather than static notion.

- *Partnerships and networks*: Sites do not exist in isolation. To deliver on their mission and objectives numerous partnerships and alliances have to be managed effectively to leverage desired impacts and to reduce negative impacts. For example, with reference to congestion management du Cros (2007: 237) argued that it is not possible to manage congestion only at a single site "all stakeholders need to agree upon strategy based on close study of the nature of demand and conditions at the destination as well as the site."

Strategic choice and implementation

The quality of leadership and strategic thinking not only defines the mission and objectives but sets the visions, makes the key directional choices and innovations, and implements and manages strategic change. The key questions to any heritage site needs to answer are:

- Where is the site positioned now?

- Where does the site want to be positioned? and

- How can that be achieved?

This last question is where management decision-making comes to the forefront of site strategy.

Socio-economic impacts and outcomes

The socio-economic framework developed (see McLoughlin *et al*. 2006b) is summarised in figure 4 below.

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[4] There is a widespread lack of traditional craft skills in certain parts of Europe. The increasing use of modern building techniques and materials has reduced the need for traditional craft people such as stone masons, thatchers, plasterers, etc. And it is not only ancient buildings that are affected by lack of relevant skills. The Big Pit mining museum in the Blaenavon World Heritage site in South Wales now has to consider how the underground mine workings that closed in the mid-1980s will be maintained in the future. This is because collapse of the coal mining industry in the UK has resulted in a lack of properly trained mining engineers in the UK.

Figure 4: A socio-economic benefit and impact model

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                              ┌──────────┐
                              │  Impact  │
                              └──────────┘
         ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
         │ Economic │◄────►│  Social  │◄────►│ Environmental│
         └──────────┘      └──────────┘      └──────────────┘
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GDP Impacts	**Social/educational**	**Environmental**
Spending by users at the cultural heritage site itself, causing an increase in GDP in the defined study area (e.g. local, regional, or national) To include: Direct effects Indirect effects Multiplier effects Business location Regeneration Branding and tourism Employment	Educational including all impacts relating to learning and education Identity at the local, regional and national levels Community cohesion and pride (these include issues of social inclusion) Scholarship and research – research output from cultural heritage sites usually measured by academic papers produced, etc. Quality-of-life enhancement	Sustainability – support of the local environment caused by funding derived from heritage assets Degradation to the fabric of a cultural heritage site Congestion within the cultural heritage site Pollution, erosion and congestion within the defined locality of a cultural heritage site Carbon footprint Recycling

Individual

Direct use	**Indirect use**	**Non use**
Visitors to cultural heritage sites Spending (economic impact) Visitor satisfaction	Books and other literature Virtual (e.g. Internet) users	Existence value Bequest value Altruistic value Option Value Prestige value

Conclusions

Although an increasing number of socio-economic studies are being conducted at cultural heritage sites, these tend to focus on specific impact dimensions. This model offers a holistic framework for analysing socio-economic impact of heritage sites. It presents impact as a dynamic concept and provides a typological basis for analysing impacts. There are a number of uses for this model:

- Such a holistic approach will provide a useful basis from which heritage managers can conceptualise socio-economic impact.

- If site managers can begin to see how various elements come together to influence impact they can increase their understanding of heritage impact and this could form the platform from which site managers can influence positive outcomes.

- By looking at sites using the same criteria the models allow managers to compare sites.

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Culture beyond heritage: The experiences of cultural tourism

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In the European context, conventional conceptions of what we understand to be 'culture' have largely been dictated by our post-enlightenment sensibilities regarding the romantic, the beautiful, the educational, and also, by extension, the moral. It is not surprising that in what is now heralded as 'cultural tourism' broadly follows the patterns of the 'grand tour' of the eighteenth and nineteenth century indulged in by the social elite. Motivating factors of education, social betterment and basic human curiosity remain, but have been complemented by a range of other factors which have assisted in the on-going development of cultural tourist centres. Importantly, the rise of the low cost airlines across Europe has played a key role in stimulating tourism within more recently acknowledged cultural centres such as Budapest, Krakow and Ljubljana. Though well-established cities of culture such as Paris, Rome, Venice, and Athens maintain their primacy from the early days of tourism, cheap flights have created new opportunities for people to experience heritage and the arts, particularly in some smaller places such as Girona, Bratislava and Riga. This apparent democratisation of cultural tourism has also been helped along by highly competitive and increasingly sophisticated marketing campaigns, mainly within urban contexts. The European Cities of Culture campaign, with its strong emphasis on destination branding, has been partially successful in this way and has acted to endorse the idea that culture, heritage and the arts are highly 'moral' products and also, through their ability to attract tourists, economically beneficial.

In this vein, the concept of cultural tourism seems to be taking hold everywhere. Former heavily industrial centres have moved from being economies of production to economies of symbolic cultural consumption, and industrial heritage sites would seem to substitute all too easily for sites of manufacturing. The number of festivals and cultural events has increased exponentially over recent years and there has also been substantive growth in the number of museums and heritage attractions as destinations have sought to compete for the growing markets of culture hungry tourists. But the on-going ferment and frenzy to create new displays of cultural capital and to attract the 'cultural tourist' - that is the well-educated, largely white, high spending, middle class tourist - raises a number of longstanding issues relating to how we use culture to make sense of, and gain meaning from, a rapidly changing world.

An important point of perspective to bear in mind is that while cultural tourism is certainly a growing segment of international tourism, the vast majority of tourists could be said to be 'culture-proof' in that they are not seeking the exotic, culture or heritage but rather relaxation, warm weather, and various forms of hedonistic activity. Beach holidays remain as popular as ever with tour operators continually seeking to develop virgin stretches of coastline, while theme parks (some fifty plus years after the opening of Disneyland), as a destination and a model of tourism development, are flourishing. This is not to say that the individuals that go to make up so-called 'mass' tourism are somehow devoid of any interest in culture(s). Far from it; they are often the same groupings in another place and another time. But it does remind us that tourism reflects a certain degree of polarisation between the persistence of culture as somehow elevated and special in society, and the culture of the ordinary and the everyday.

Culture, as the social critic Raymond Williams pointed out, is one of the most problematic words to define, but despite elaborations and attempts by anthropologists over the years to widen our understanding of the term culture away from elitist notions, it would seem that in the context of tourism we are, in the main, reproducing the idea of 'high' culture from the eighteenth and nineteenth century. Nor is this restricted to European tourism. We have exported our aesthetic preferences and conceptions of culture to other places. In the Middle East, for instance, rich as it is with centuries of history and cultural diversity, we have inscribed our predilections for romantic ruins that we can recognise onto national tourist strategies. A country like Jordan, for example, is locked into the promotion of its Greco-Roman sites and the Nabatean City of Petra, as 'must-see' places. However, such sites are hardly representative of the culture(s) of the Jordanian/Arab peoples shaped as they have been by Ottoman culture and complex historical relations with the West. At one level this is playing to the market. At another level it is obscuring the very essence of local and national identity.

We should not be surprised at our own preferences for culture as expressed in the iconic and the spectacular. As tourists we have but little time in any one location and somewhat instinctively we gravitate to and, are automatically guided to what is heralded as being the 'exceptional', rather than the norm, and what we recognise through our own aesthetic frames. It is also not surprising that a destination eager to capitalise on the economic rewards of tourism should prioritise its cultural high points. The question, however, is one of extent. For in privileging some aspects of culture to tourists, we exclude others and close off tourism as a development option for some destinations and communities.

However, the nature of cultural tourism itself is evolving and is becoming far more inclusive, breaking away from some of the more elitist notions of culture. In doing so, cultural tourism is able to provide for exciting new opportunities for community development and participation. There are two key reasons for this shift. The first relates to the nature of the tourist experience itself. Destinations, their peoples and cultures are *experienced* by the tourist and not just gazed upon. Observing tourists over a period of time reveals that they actually spend considerably less time than we think in formal cultural settings such as galleries, museums and historic buildings. Rather more time is spent in restaurants, cafes, bars, shops, the airport and the hotel. Indeed, tourists spend large amounts of time 'walking around' and 'people watching', and in the process, observing and encountering aspects of the host's culture in the form of everyday practices and behaviours. Far from being culture proof, it is particularly these aspects of ordinary life that tourists absorb and on their return home constitute their narratives of memory of experience. From the point of view of the host community and indeed the host tourist authorities, this aspect of culture is easily overlooked as not being of any significance. It is informal, ad hoc, impossible to manage and control and yet it is of critical importance in shaping the tourist experience. But it is easy to forget that what is considered to be ordinary in one cultural setting is exotic to another. As a normative part of the touristic process, people encounter the cultures of others, through shopping, eating and drinking etc., but this in itself can become an 'out-of-the-ordinary' experience. In Britain, for example, the still popular local activities of going to a pub, or of eating fish and chips, are transformed into special activities for many overseas tourists. Ordinary as they may be, these are authentic activities in themselves and can be said to be close to the heart of British culture, however they seldom appear on the cover of promotional brochures.

A second reason for the trend towards less elitist cultural forms relates to the realities of generational replacement and increasing distance away from so called 'high-brow' culture. Each generation produces its own cultures, the potential of which have still not been fully

recognised by the tourism sector. On the one hand this does create problems as various established cultural forms and traditions becoming threatened with extinction. On the other hand, new cultural forms are created. Again, it sometimes all too easy to dismiss these are being outside of 'culture'. In the context of European history and culture, the notion of fast food would seem to have little in the way of cultural value and any distinctive pull for tourists. However, in the USA, a nation with a relatively short documented history, the birthplace of Kentucky Fried Chicken in Corbin, Kentucky, boasts a museum and an authentically re-constructed cafe, and many tourists. For many years Barcelona has been a popular field trip destination for British students studying tourism. The students study the development of the City as a tourist centre, its successful promotional campaign and the ways that tourists negotiate the City's cultural offerings. The students visit the Sagrada de Familiar and the Picasso Museum and Parc Guell, but their favourite 'cultural' experiences revolve around a visit to Nou Camp, the home of Barcelona Football Club, the dance clubs of City and the shopping. Their cultural experiences revolve around what they can relate to and what they feel connected with, albeit in a different environment. This does not make them unappreciative of the other cultural products but it does illustrate the point that cultures *do* change in relation to the market.

Recognising and promoting the culture of the ordinary and the everyday, is not to deny the importance of the 'high' arts, heritage and classical performances. Rather, it is to recognise the additional realities of cultural change and different forms of creativity, and the importance of the overall experience in tourism. But what does all of this mean for the future development of cultural tourism and the communities and economies it purports to serve?

For the increasing number of tourists roaming the surface of the planet it creates an ever-expanding number of experiences and possibilities. All tourism is 'cultural' in this sense. As tourists, and as people, in a globalising world, we are increasingly in contact with 'other' cultures, able to experience the uniqueness of each and the commonalities of all. Cultural tourism in this way can be a powerful mechanism to understanding other places, peoples and pasts, not through selective, high profile cultural sites and activities that may not necessarily be representative of the societies they operate in, but through a more democratic and ubiquitous approach to cultures. In these terms even mass tourism has important and forgotten cultural elements. Our first encounter with another culture is most likely to be with the menu, the waiter and the food in a restaurant near a resort.

It is 'popular', everyday culture which increasingly infuses domestic and international tourism patterns. Television soap operas hold more influence on travel patterns than classical opera. Tourists are more likely to visit a destination with literary connections because they have seen a film rather than because they have read the book. Football, and sport generally, has the power to define new tourist opportunities. Different shopping and dining experiences are arguably more central to the overall cultural experience than museum visits. Now, all of this may not be a popular perspective with the guardians of 'high' culture, but for the tourism authorities of those destinations off the main tourist routes (and in many cases these overlap with the very places which need economic and cultural development), the everydayness of culture, in both material and symbolic ways, provides an important set of resources.

At one level the cultural landscape has transformed considerably since the early days of tourism and travel. The canvas of culture has broadened, become more accessible and more creative. On another level, the basics of culture have remained in place and its important dimensions relate to the changes it constantly undergoes and the fact that it is

lived, experienced, shared and exchanged. It is vital for all those involved in the development, management and marketing of cultural tourism to remember that in all aspects of quotidian life there is meaning and enjoyment to be extracted.

What this means for many cultural producers, heritage managers and tourism marketers is a process of re-adjustment in understanding how tourists actually *experience* their encounter with difference. This does *not* entail any 'dumbing down' process where entertainment takes over fully from education. Far from it. Rather, it means recognising complexity, the contested nature and fluidity of concepts such as culture and heritage, the multi-layered character of the tourist and, the tourist's increasing ability to discern and be challenged. It means understanding the importance of narrative; of multiple narratives. It means embracing (and in some cases recognising), the ordinary as well as what is what may be special within a cultural context. It means thinking beyond culture as heritage, and heritage as something solid in the past and instead, thinking creatively about what will be the heritage of the future and how *new* traditions and stories are already being generated. And it means seeing tourism not merely as a sector of the economy but, as a vital means for inter-cultural encounter and cross-cultural understanding.

Paradigms and paradoxes in planning the past

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What are we doing?

This conference counterposes the uses of the past as a vehicle for the transmission of narratives, by someone for whatever purpose, with its commodification for sale on markets, specifically in tourism. Clearly this is a logically flawed dichotomy, in that all the uses of the resurrected past, whether for economic objectives or not, can be viewed as commodities produced from the raw materials of relict artefacts, structures, and, significantly, narratives, for contemporary use within imaginable markets. However, it may reveal some fundamental differences amongst those currently engaged in the academic, political and governmental arena where tourism, culture and heritage meet. These differences are manifest in the different intellectual backgrounds, working methods, goals, and ethos of those working in the burgeoning but diffuse field of heritage, which can be encapsulated in the idea of paradigm.

The task of this paper is first to ascertain the main paradigms being applied, then to outline the resulting significant differences stemming from these and finally to attempt to resolve or at least understand the resulting paradoxes.


An incomplete paradigm[5] shift

A paradigm is merely a way of viewing the reality around us and thereby allowing it to be understood and analysed. However what has occurred in the short history of a century and a half of our concern for the past is the acceptance and use of a number of different paradigms by both academic analysts and practitioners in both public and private sectors.

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[5] The relationship of ideas to one another [Encarta Dictionary]

At least three such paradigms can be distinguished, which can be labelled preservation, conservation and heritage. Although there is an historical progression in the introduction of these paradigms, they should not be viewed as a succession of replacements, as the paradigm shifts, although identifiable, have been incomplete and all three continue to coexist in various measure in the contemporary world.

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Time        Preservation
   1850
   1960              Conservation
   1990                          Heritage
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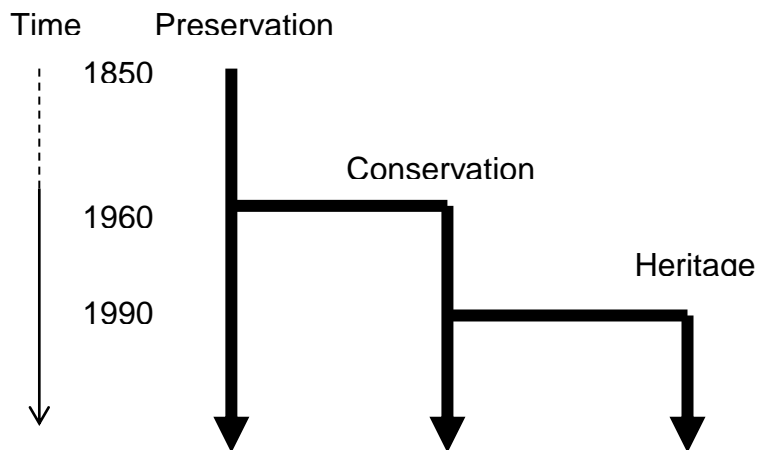
The preservation paradigm

The origins of a sustained, broadly accepted, at least among opinion leaders, and officially legislatively sanctioned concern for the remains of the past whether surviving in physical relics or human memories cannot be traced with confidence much further back than the middle of the nineteenth century. The aesthetic of romanticism combined with the nationalist political programme created such concerns for a past at the very moment in western history when industrialisation, urbanisation and associated social changes were consigning it to obsolete oblivion. The 'prophets' such as Ruskin, Pugin, Morris, Violet-le-Duc, Steurs, et al, had a single simple message namely save what can be saved before it is too late. The preservation paradigm was a clear, obvious and unchallenged imperative. Any further discussion or hesitation was an irrelevant and potentially dangerous distraction from the immediate pressing task. Preservation assumes that a real past can be preserved into the present and transmitted to a real future, whether that future wants it or not. The time line is clear: the past is invoked to determine the present and the present, the future, through bequeathed sites, monuments, memories and historical narratives. In essence the task is to protect from harm, which at its simplest involves no more than issuing and enforcing a legal prohibition against physical damage. However from the beginning the temptation to supplement this simple and cheap negative with a succession of positive actions moving from maintenance, through repair, replacement, restoration and ultimately to reconstruction was logically irresistible. The position adopted on such a spectrum was and remains the major fault line between the ruin preservers and building restorers but both are just differing interpretations of the preservation paradigm.

The conservation paradigm

There is an intermediate paradigm that became evident in the course of the 1960s and 1970s and was manifested in the legislation of the period. The successful preservation of specific buildings, sites and landscapes led to the acceptance of a series of 'not only but

also' statements. The focus shifted to not only individual buildings but ensembles; not only form but function; not only points but historic areas (see the many cases in Ashworth .& Tunbridge, 2000). Conservation was succinctly defined by Burke (1976) as 'preserving purposefully'. The argument being that preservation was not to seen as a purpose in itself but that contemporary use should be an integral and equal part of the decision to preserve. A consequence of this widening of approach was that place planners and managers displaced architects, historians and archaeologists as the central actors.

The heritage paradigm

The heritage paradigm was in a sense born out of the very success of preceding paradigms. The crusade in Lowenthal's terms (1996) had been won and the 'spoils of history' were, at least in Western countries, all too evidently present in the cityscapes and landscapes of the 1990s as well as in the conventional wisdom of decision makers and the public opinion of citizens. From this victory emerged the heritage paradigm.

Heritage is viewed not as an object or site but as a process and an outcome: it uses objects and sites as vehicles for the transmission of ideas in the service of a wide range of contemporary social needs. The important question thus becomes, 'who is creating and transmitting the heritage and for what contemporary purpose?'

The purpose of all heritage is thus not the preservation of artefacts, buildings or sites, an impossible task as the past is gone never to return. It is to fashion some simulacrum of a past in the present from selected relics, memories and histories. Such heritage has many purposes, economic, political and social, and all are contemporary functions.

Heritage resources therefore are created as they are needed. They are demand driven, ubiquitous and infinite. You cannot run out or over-use heritage as it is a product of the human imagination. An excess of demand over supply is just a result of specific time or place bound management failure to increase supply. Authenticity therefore relates not to the object or physical site but only to the experience. Any other definition of authenticity is at best delusion and at worst professional conspiracy. Only the user can define the authenticity of a heritage experience. A modern reconstruction provides a more authentic experience, (it is closer to what it actually was) than a few remaining stone fragments or an archaeological dig.

Heritage is thus about now not then. Preservation and heritage have different relationships with time; with the past, the present and the future. Heritage knows only the present as real. Pasts and futures are both imagined entities. Like all products of the human imagination these therefore will change through time as new presents supersede the old who then imagine new pasts and new futures. Heritage is thus driven by current needs, fashions, and tastes. There are no universal, eternal and inalienable values. The museumified artefacts, the monumentalised buildings, the sacralised sites of the preservationists are just the fashions of past preservers fossilised into a different present. This raises some uncomfortable issues. Should the present de-list and un-inscribe as much as it lists and inscribes? Should the present destroy as much as it preserves in order to bequeath to a future the capacity to develop its own pasts? For if we do not then we are just colonising the future with our values, cluttering it with our selected objects, burdening it with the financial consequences of our decisions and above all denying it the possibility of shaping its own present.

The existence of different and frequently contradictory paradigms may not matter much if those who hold them operate in different arenas and do not come into contact with each other. To some extent this is the case. Preservationists are to be found among those working on potential heritage resources, in building restoration, museum curatorial and material protection services. Historians, archivists, archaeologists and even some cultural anthropologists also frequently focus upon the authenticity of the object, historical fact or cultural manifestation and have its revelation and preservation as their primary goal. Those responsible for the broader aspects of place management and planning, whether urban or rural, are compelled to take a broader view that encompasses use, impact and synergy and thus tend towards a conservation paradigm however partially thought –out. It is the theorists in contemporary social, political and cultural studies that have embraced the heritage approach as means of understanding and shaping contemporary societies.

	PRESERVATION	HERITAGE
FOCUS	Object	Message
GOAL	Preserve	Use
TIME	Past	Present /Future
PAST	Real	Imagined
SELECTION CRITERIA	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
CREATORS	Experts	Users
JUSTIFICATION	Value	Utility
CHANGE	Immutable	Flexible
AUTHENTICITY	Object	Experience

One consequence therefore of this incomplete paradigm shift has been the emergence of a growing gap between the theorists and the practitioners. This may not matter if these worlds ignore each other and remain in mutually isolated spheres. However when they come into enforced contact then this gap may have several serious consequences. Tourism is one such contact zone.

Resulting paradoxes[6]

A paradox occurs when two contradictory positions or statements are simultaneously proposed or assumed. For this argument the paradigms will be reduced to two, namely preservation and heritage, and a number of commonly articulated positions will be cursorily argued from the two contrasting perspectives.

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[6] A statement or proposition that contradicts itself [Encarta Dictionary]

1. Heritage is about preserving or recreating pasts: pasts can neither be preserved nor created

The preservation paradigm

The preservation, presumably forever, of as many as possible of those elements from the past that can be preserved, is the very heart of the preservation paradigm. This past is viewed as real, in the sense that it is as close to the reality of what actually was as can be determined, dominantly by those expert enough to do this. The picture will inevitably be incomplete and can change with the emergence of new expert knowledge but the goal remains the establishment of an objective, expert-validated truth. The justification for this exercise is regarded as self-evident; the enrichment of human experience through knowledge and beauty. Motives and uses other than this may be tolerated so long as they do not impinge upon the primary function.

The heritage paradigm

Pasts, if they ever existed as previous presents, by definition do not exist now and we cannot other than operate in the present. It is not possible to preserve what does not exist. Nor can pasts be recreated in the present if only because we will experience them through contemporary senses and values. Historians, archaeologists and archivists attempt to describe selected aspects of pasts and heritage theme parks may attempt to replicate some of the experiences of living in the past. But these re-creations all remain products of the present. The past and the future are both entities imagined by the present: only the present can be experienced directly as real. Attempts to colonise an imagined future with the values of an imagined past are absurd and doomed to failure as we cannot predict the needs of future generations.

2. Heritage is the recognition, preservation and transmission of intrinsic universal values: heritage is a mutable cultural construct whose values are always extrinsic.

The preservation paradigm

The past has been preserved because its relics and narratives contain intrinsic and universal value in the same sense as a work of art or literature. These values are stable and can be gleaned by all who can recognise them. It is important therefore that such values be legitimated, authenticated and protected. Heritage sites and objects can thus be correct or incorrect, profound or superficial and superior or inferior in their intrinsic characteristics. The former qualities are to be defended; the latter denigrated and corrected.

In this paradigm tourism will always be viewed with a mixture of scorn and trepidation. The tourist experience of local heritage is short, with visits to particular towns measured in hours and to a particular site or exhibit better measured in minutes or even seconds. Because the tourist, who by definition is a cultural outsider, lacks knowledge, contextual background and sensitivity to the heritage being visited, a rigorous selection of heritage highlights is made, usually by the guide-book. Complexity is reduced to simplicity in a sanitised past lacking depth and context. 'Nottingham becomes the city of Robin Hood and Heidelberg the city of the student prince' (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 1990: 54). The unusual or the spectacular become memorable snippets created for easy consumption and instant gratification. The nightmare scenario is 'Disneyfication' in which pasts are condensed into easily consumed bite-sized pieces lacking any authenticity. The 'Seoul Declaration' of ICOMOS (2005) on managing tourism in historic towns in Asia, expressed its concern about the 'importance of accurate and aesthetic interpretation and presentation of heritage places for tourism'

The heritage paradigm
The assumption that heritage exists like a mineral resource waiting to be discovered is false: it is a cultural construction based upon contemporary choice and selection. Heritage thus has no intrinsic values. All heritage values are extrinsic, ascribed and therefore mutable. History can be true or false: heritage cannot. As a product of the human creative imagination heritage has no authenticity of the object or the historical record only the authenticity of the experience as perceived by the user. It can be well or badly presented, relevant or irrelevant to the visitor, and effectively or ineffectively communicated: it cannot be wrong. As to the idea that the locals have a profounder and more nuanced appreciation of heritage than the superficial and transitory tourist, the reverse is increasingly the case. The rise of special interest tourism, and heritage tourism is only a *pot pouri* of very diverse special interests, means that often it is the tourist who has the deeper more specialised knowledge, often in a global comparative context, and who discovers and rediscovers local heritages unknown or unappreciated by the locals themselves. Calls for authenticity by the usually self-appointed guardians of 'our' heritage and its assumed values, generally mean their particular authenticity and above all their right to be the authenticator of it.

Thus all heritage by this definition is cultural and the use of the adjective 'cultural' before the noun 'heritage' is superfluous.

3. There are appropriate motives and behaviours for experiencing heritage: neither inappropriate motives nor behaviours exist.

The preservation paradigm
Tourists are in search of fun: they are spending their free time and money on entertainment and distraction, motivated by curiosity and the pursuit of pleasure. This can rapidly degenerate into the distasteful and the offensive. Battlefield tourism ('another weekend away looking for dead bodies', Seaton, 2002) or 'Schindler tourism in the 'Auschwitzland' product of Krakow (in essence 'let's have fun with the holocaust' Ashworth, 1996) are just a few of the many cases of an objectionable heritage tourism, offensive to those with more worthy motives.

Tourists are on holiday freed from the daily mundane disciplines of work and liberated from the social and cultural constraints of their home society. They are thus prone to behave in ways that give offence to locals and to more legitimate and appropriate users of heritage sites. Their dress, demeanour, and behaviour are likely to be unacceptable and destructive of the value of the sites and buildings they visit. Spiritual sites, whether churches, mosques, synagogues or just sacred spaces, such as Ayres Rock, suffer especially from the inappropriate and often offensive behaviour of fun seeking tourists. If permitted at all, tourists must be regulated and controlled through imposed 'behavioural codes', and 'responsible tourism codes' (Mally and Fennel, 1998) so that they engage in an 'ethical travel' (Pattullo, 2006) that does not give offence to either locals or to other more worthy prioritised heritage users (Till, 1999; Roowaan, 2005).

The heritage paradigm
Who decides which motive is more worthy and which behaviour is more acceptable? There is an assumption that residents are more commendable than visitors, and that education or aesthetic fulfilment is more meritorious a motive than mere pleasure or entertainment and thus should be prioritised. The frequently encountered on-site lists of rules and admonitions, as well as the suggested codes of conduct and behaviour for tourists, make much use of the word 'respect'. It is insisted that the tourist should respect

the behaviour and mores of the locals, even presumably if these are distasteful to the tourist. The tourist may encounter political oppression, racial bigotry, child prostitution, animal cruelty and even just repellent food habits, which are supposed to be respected. The asymmetry of this relationship of host and guest is inherent in such thinking. With the trade in many other products consumers are becoming increasingly ready to use their purchasing power to intervene to remedy unsatisfactory production conditions (such as child labour). Why is it only in tourism services that the reverse position is recommended?

4. Heritage supply is finite and thus protection is paramount and takes precedence over current use: heritage supply is infinite and unused heritage is not heritage.

The preservation paradigm
Heritage is a fortuitous endowment, richly or parsimonious bestowed on us as fortunate beneficiaries, whether we wish it or not. It is in fixed supply as there are a finite number of events, personalities, artefacts and buildings emanating from a finite past. The ravages of time have determined that these finite quantities have been drastically reduced. Heritage is a non-renewable resource in danger of being depleted or even exhausted by growing demands, not least from tourism. Heritage sites and artefacts being often old may be particularly fragile and vulnerable to damage. Users unavoidably cause damage in three main ways. First they physically damage the structures and artefacts they visit through their feet, hands, breath, sweat, digestive and microbiological systems. Secondly, their physical presence in large numbers destroys the ambience of the site. There is little remaining sanctity in a cathedral in which visitors shuffle around a one way pedestrian flow system controlled by traffic lights.

'It is difficult to experience much aesthetic pleasure from an Athenian acropolis around which visitors are 'crocodiled' in continuously moving unbroken columns along roped channels, shepherded by guards with whistles' (Ashworth & Tunbridge 1990:53). Thirdly, visitors require and attract ancillary services facilities. Herds of tourism busses parked outside Notre Dame cathedral, scrums of insistent hawkers blocking the entrance to the temple of Borobodur, tower block modern hotels literally overshadowing Buddhist temples in Bangkok, could be replicated at almost any major heritage tourism attraction. In historic cities, 'the damage from visitors to historic buildings, streets and squares is recognised as the townscape is spoilt by overcrowding and as it is worn down by numbers' (Orbasli, 2000:160).

The World Monument Fund monitors damage to heritage buildings and sites. It identifies three major threats facing heritage sites namely political conflict, climate change, and tourism. The tourist is thus seen to be as damaging as war or rising sea levels. In the World Monument Fund 2008 list of the most endangered 100 monuments in the world approximately one-third were diagnosed as being 'in danger' mainly from the tourist as user.

The heritage paradigm
Heritage is a contemporary product created for the satisfaction of contemporary needs. It does not exist in any fixed quantity nor can one place or people inevitably possess more than another. In addition heritage is not a compulsory endowment that cannot be refused. No place or person is inescapably locked into any specific heritage endowment. It is a development option for places and a quarry of possible identities for people.

It cannot be denied that old structures already weakened by the natural forces of decay may be damaged by visitors. However much the same phenomenon occurs in a crowded

shopping street, a popular sports match or music festival or on busy commuter transport. People *en masse* are liable to cause wear and damage, which in turn can and should be avoided or at least mitigated through management. Damage is thus just a reflection of bad management. Tourists on-site are relatively easy to manage. Their behaviour is predictable and can be anticipated; their lack of local knowledge renders them particularly dependent upon information, which site managers can use as an instrument of control. The managers of sensitive natural areas learned a generation ago that tourists and fragile ecosystems could be combined using signposts rather than barbed wire and by creating alternative honey-pots that offer a better experience to the visitor than the site to be protected.

It is also worth noting that most heritage is located in urban areas, which are inherently physically robust and constructed to accommodate a high density of users. In comparison, tourist damage to eco-systems in more sensitive rural, coastal and natural areas is likely to be far more severe than that caused by urban heritage tourists (see United Nations Environment Programme, 2005).

5. Users of heritage must be prioritised between worthy and unworthy: this is impossible and undesirable

The preservation paradigm
Very little heritage was actually created for those currently using it. Those who created it, or for whom it was created, are often in danger of being crowded out and ultimately displaced by visitors motivated by only a superficial curiosity. Casual fun-seeking holidaymakers compete with those visiting heritage for more serious and socially beneficial educational, aesthetic or spiritual reasons, for which the heritage facilities were created. The visitor competes with the resident and in poorer countries the richer visitor competes with the poorer local resident. To counter this displacement of the worthy by the unworthy, the former must be prioritised and the latter, if not banned altogether, must at least be restricted so that it does not impose upon the former.

The heritage paradigm
In theory all heritage is created by the user of it and all heritage consumers create their own heritage. Tourists therefore produce their own heritage: they do not appropriate someone else's heritage. In practice of course these different heritages may be experienced simultaneously at the same site and even use the same resources. Most heritage is multi-used and this can and must be managed using various well-known techniques, such differential pricing.

The charge is predicated on the mistaken idea that heritage resources are in fixed supply: there is a limited and non-renewable non-replicable number of heritage objects, buildings and spaces. This assumption clearly underlies the 'Seoul Declaration' of ICOMOS (2005), which prescriptively declaims that, 'tourism sector representatives must work with conservation authorities to establish ways to achieve sustainable tourism without exhausting non-renewable cultural resources such as heritage'. This is just a misunderstanding of heritage or perhaps rather a confusion of heritage with history. As heritage is a demand derived set of contemporary uses constructed as required then the resources of which it is composed have no limits other than the limits of the human creative imagination. There can be no question of resource shortage or depletion: the resource is ubiquitous and can be created according to the demand for it. Over-use, let alone resource exhaustion, can only be a temporary consequence of bad management,

capable of being solved by good practice (see the arguments in the case of the heavily visited heritage city of Bruges by Jansen-Verbeke, 1990). Even the well-known and longstanding perceived crisis in tourism to the lagoon city of Venice, is apparent not real. The mismatch between space and increasing tourist demands for it can be resolved by expanding the product to meet the rising demand. This can be done by utilising off-peak surplus capacity or simply by developing 'new Venices', using either the largely unused areas in the existing lagoon islands (the *Arsenale* for instance), some of which are almost empty, Torcello for instance, or duplicating the Venice product in the numerous sites around the Adriatic and Eastern Mediterranean from Capodistria/Koper to Santorini (Graham et al. 2000

6. Many users, especially tourists, are free riding economic parasites on the heritage created by and for others: those who benefit and those who pay can be managed equitably.

The preservation paradigm
The tourism industry treats heritage as if it was a near ideal supply of potential resources, which are ubiquitous, highly flexible, infinitely renewable and above all generally free of cost. The paradox is that heritage has many of the characteristics of a zero-priced, freely accessible public good. In many ways it is. For the tourist visiting the morphological forms of the city or consuming the historic commemorations and associations of public history, the resource is consumed without direct cost to the consumer. However, heritage from the position of the producer, or indeed the place, is not free. To the costs of selection, maintenance, accommodating collections, promotion, interpretation, marketing and consumer site-management, must be added the opportunity costs of development options foregone. The tourist is thus free-riding on heritage experiences paid for by others. Also a zero priced, freely accessible public good will inevitably be over-used in a 'tragedy of the commons' scenario (Hardin, 1968).

To this argument can be added the misconception of many local resource mangers about the windfall gain economic model. This assumes that the extra demands of tourism provide a windfall gain to heritage facilities that serve other users and would continue to function without tourism. Such a free benefit can only be accrued if the extra demand incurs no extra costs and can be accommodated without depleting or changing the product or reducing the benefits accruing to the other prioritised users. These conditions are unlikely to be met in such a Faustian contract.

The heritage paradigm
With any multi-used resource, costs and benefits may well be asymmetrically allocated and this is often the case with heritage and specifically heritage tourism. However it could be that it is the resident that is free riding on facilities that would not exist or be uneconomic without the support of tourism demands. The solution to the asymmetry is obvious in theory and well known in practice. Many of the costs and benefits of heritage tourism are economic externalities, that is they accrue to individuals or groups outside the internal economic production system. Many benefit but do not pay: many pay but do not benefit. The solution, as developed in environmental economics, is to internalise these externalities through fiscal and other compensatory measures (Ashworth, 2008).

7. Heritage is universal, uniting people through a common inheritance: heritage is more often group specific and thus inherently divisive.

The preservation paradigm

As heritage has universal values, which are globally present then all heritage belongs, in that sense, to 'all humanity' (as UNESCO declared in the 1972 convention establishing the idea of 'world heritage sites'). We all own, receive satisfaction from, and presumably are responsible for, all heritage. Such recognition produces a common bond, uniting cultures and ethnicities through space and human histories through time.

The heritage paradigm

Heritage is used consciously with the intent of creating a unity of purpose, group or place identification. However to include some is to exclude others: the creation of 'us' equally creates 'them'. The origins of the concern for the artefacts of the past coincides closely with the modernist concept of the nation-state which effectively nationalised heritage institutions and facilities endeavouring to create a national monopoly of selection and interpretation.

The mythical and inherently divisive entity, 'nation', was largely a creation of heritage and continues to depend upon heritage for its survival. Many of UNESCO's principled declarations of universality are merely the manifestations of the political balance of national interests of the constituent 'states parties', concealed under a spurious internationalism (van der Aa, 2005).

Does it matter?

The argument outlined above, and the sharp divergences of viewpoint based upon such opposed paradigms, is not to be resolved here. There will continue to be conflicts based largely upon misunderstanding and failure to communicate between those viewing heritage through different paradigms. However it should not be concluded from this cursory inventory of sources of confusion, contradiction and contestation that heritage, in all its forms is little more than an expression of competing ideas and ambitions struggling for supremacy and dominance (Tunbridge & Ashworth, 1996). Fortunately, although the paradoxes briefly reviewed above are endemic and stem directly from the heritage of the heritage crusade itself, much of the disagreement is potential rather than actual and limited rather than widespread in its consequences. In reality paradigmatic difference is far less important than it seems to many commentators for a number of reasons.

First, public heritage is far less effective in transmitting the messages it intends to the anticipated audience, in the way it expects, than its producers generally assume it to be. In particular the expectation that it can shape individual identities is greatly exaggerated. If public collective heritage is to succeed in its objectives its projected messages must be received, understood and believed by those for whom it is intended. Much is just not received at all; it is ignored. Museums are not visited, public statuary is not seen, commemorations are not read and if they are their messages may not be understood in the way intended and if understood not incorporated into the mental constructs of the receiver. Heritage consumers are not passive receptors of whatever messages may be transmitted by public agencies but possess numerous defence mechanisms for filtering its content. Indeed there are many unofficial popular heritages that may amount to counter-heritages of which the official producers have little knowledge and no influence. In all the hype about an increasing popular interest in heritage (typified by the Hewison, 1987, polemic), it should be remembered that only a minority visit museums, historic sites or

buildings and activist voluntary organisations in most countries are supported by less than one tenth of one percent of the adult population. Public heritage is in essence a small culturally dominant elite conversing with itself (Ashworth et al., 2007).\

Secondly, despite the sustained efforts of public agencies to generate and promote collective heritage ideas in the furtherance of public policy interests, not least the shaping of collective identities, heritage remains essentially individual as does the identification of people with places. The self-esteem, self-awareness and place boundedness of individuals is constructed from an amalgam of selective memory, personal history and family anecdote but this heritage is more valued and indeed more important to the individual, than all the carefully preserved content of museums, galleries and libraries, or all the skilful promotion of place images. It is also largely beyond the influence of public agencies although there has been some attempt to blur the distinction through oral history, museums of the everyday and what could be called 'roots' genealogy and history. Even the heritage tourist, ostensibly consuming someone else's heritage, cannot other than in reality be consuming a version of their own constructed heritage in another place.

Agreement and concurrence between paradigms is not attainable, desirable or necessary: understanding is. The simple recognition that different people in different agencies with different responsibilities view the past in the present through different perspectives, based upon different assumptions and thus draw different conclusions would be sufficient to avoid most of the difficulties and frustrations outlined above. It may seem self-evident, and even trite, to suggest that our largest problem in heritage is to understand what we are doing and to accommodate within that understanding multiple paradigms. We must learn to live with paradox.

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Tourism and climate change: Briefing paper

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Climate change: An overview

Climate change represents a significant environmental, social and economic threat and is now firmly recognized by the majority of the world's governments and scientists as an issue of extreme concern for the planet (Nicholls, 2006; Oreskes, 2004). In recent years, the interest in the weather has grown as heavy storms, floods, droughts, snowstorms and extremely high temperatures have become more likely and are associated with changes in the global climate (Hall and Higham 2005). Moreover, eleven of the past twelve years (not including the warm summer of 2006) are among the warmest ones since temperature recording began in 1850. In 2003 was a milestone with 14,802 heat related deaths recorded in France alone (Higham and Hall, 2005).

The main human activities that contribute to climate change are the burning of fossil fuels and deforestation (Watkiss *et al.*, 2005), as they both cause emissions of carbon dioxide (CO_2), the main gas responsible for climate change, as well as other greenhouse gases (GHG). The UNWTO (2007b) states that with a probability of over 90 %, the increased temperatures are caused by the increased greenhouse gas concentrations. According to Seiler (2006) from the Institute for Climate Research and Meteorology in Garmisch-Partenkirchen/Germany, these anthropogenic activities account for 70 % of climate change whereas only 30 % of climate change occurs due to natural climate change. Treaties that address this issue have been developed, such as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and its Kyoto Protocol as a first step to address the threat of climate change. The UNWTO (2007:2) underpinned the importance of tourism in the global challenges of poverty reduction and climate change at the Davos Declaration, the 2nd International Conference on Climate Change and Tourism, and agreed on the 'urgent need to adopt a range of policies encouraging sustainable tourism regarding environmental, social, economic and climate responsiveness'. In practice, this includes the mitigations of GHG emissions (particularly derived from transport and accommodation activities), adapt tourism businesses and destinations to changing climate conditions, and to apply existing and new technology to improve energy efficiency. However, the development of appropriate policies has been very limited overall, primarily due to a lack of research in sectors such as tourism and energy regarding the relationship between climate change and impacts at a global scale (OECD, 2003 cited in Becken and Hay, 2007).

In recent years, the security implications of terrorism have become a more important issue for government and industry. However, the potential impacts of climate change on the economy (including tourism), society and environment are even greater than those of terrorism (King 2007). International bodies such as the UN as well as most national

science organisations increasingly pay attention to this threat, however, many national tourism authorities appear to be ignoring the issue. For example, numerous winter sow destinations, islands, and coastal resorts are seriously threatened,, but substantial institutional or industry responses are difficult to find (Higham and Hall, 2005).

The effects of global climate change are very diverse. During the last century, the Earth's average surface temperature rose by around 0.6 °C (IPCC, 2001), furthermore indicating the changes in temperature during the last 1000 years in the Northern Hemisphere, pointing out the dramatic rise during the past 100 years. The 4th Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2007) outlines the potential global impacts of climate change by 2100, stating that global average surface temperatures will rise by a further 1.1 to 6.4 °C by the end of this century. Sea levels have risen about 17 cm in the 20th century and are subject to rise about 18 to 59 cm, which will endanger coastal areas and small islands and cause a greater frequency and severity of extreme weather events. Since the 1960s the temperature of the oceans has risen to a depth of 3,000 m and they have absorbed about 80 % of the heat additionally supplied to the climate system. Furthermore, drought and severe storms are going to be more likely and the global precipitation will increase, but with regional increases and decreases of typically 5 to 20 % in annual average rainfall.

If the climate system is not stabilised beyond 2100, it will become more likely that major changes in the climate system will occur, such as alteration of North Atlantic Circulation or collapse of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (IPCC, 2001) making human habitation of the planet very difficult . Probably the latest effect identified is 'global dimming', also called 'solar radiation' (discovered, *inter alios*, by Beate Liepert, 2005) due to the increased presence of aerosol particles in the atmosphere bouncing sunlight back into space which could have severe impacts on the global climate such as a yearly delay of the Monsoon in India (Wetter-Klimawandel, 2007).

These changes may lead to major impacts in biodiversity, ecosystems, economic activities, and human health and welfare, including the loss of life and forced migration, with associated implications for international equity (IPCC 2001). Watkiss *et al.* (2005) mention effects on energy use due to the increase in temperature, including heating and cooling as well as effects on agriculture. In addition, effects to human health from changes in cold and heat related effects, as well as from the disease burden will occur. Water resources, water supply and water quality are threatened, too, and therefore also have to be considered in the context of tourism consumption as tourists consume far more water than local residents in tourism destinations, as stated at the Djerba Conference in 2003 (UNWTO, 2003). Furthermore, resulting water stress is likely to arise within areas that already suffer from inherent water shortages. Watkiss *et al.* (2005) moreover state, that global warming effects are likely to be greatest in high latitudes and most evident in the autumn and winter seasons, though the equatorial regions will also experience noticeable warming. In general, wetter weather is to be expected in the mid-latitudes, with drier weather in the subtropics.

Most of the effects mentioned above are inter-related. Negative impacts on unique or threatened systems and risks from extreme climate events occur with a temperature change of 1 °C, and these impacts and risks are projected to become significant for changes of 2 to 3 °C. Above a 2 °C temperature increase, the majority of market impacts are predicted to be negative and most regions will suffer adverse affects from climate change. Risks from large-scale discontinuities become significant above a temperature change of 3 °C (Watkiss *et al.*, 2005). Finally, changes to tourism potential and

destinations can occur, as tourism is very climate sensitive (Viner, 2005), which is one of the most important effects for this dissertation.

Impacts of climate change on tourism destinations and their competitiveness

Tourism and recreation is, after health care, the second largest economic activity in the world (Bigano *et al.*, 2005) and therefore the impacts of climate change on the economic development of tourism are potentially important. Climate is a key resource for tourism (UNWTO, 2007a) and an important factor in the destination choice of tourists (Bigano *et al.*, 2005), however, the understanding of potential impacts of global climate change for the tourism industry is still very limited (IPCC, 2001; UNWTO, 2003; Scott *et al.* 2005). Furthermore, the analysis of adaptation approaches regarding climate change presents a critical knowledge gap in the literature on climate change and tourism and the tourism sector is about 5-7 years behind other economic sectors that have been actively engaged in adaptation research, including agriculture and water resources (Scott, 2006). Nevertheless, between 1996-2000 and 2001-2005 the number of scientific publications examining the interactions of tourism and climate change has doubled (UNWTO, 2007b), showing the significant progress during the last years. Many forms of tourism and outdoor recreation depend strongly on the weather. Therefore, the sector is highly sensitive to the impacts of climate change (UNWTO, 2007a). Especially the demand of outdoor recreation and tourism is likely to be impacted directly and indirectly by a climatic change (for example in terms of activities that become less attractive or no longer feasible like snorkelling or skiing), as both the climate and the natural environment associated with it continue to be affected, as argued by Bigano *et al.* (2005). At the same time, they argue that it might become difficult for certain destinations to cope with tourism when the capacity of alternative destinations decreases for certain activities such as diving or skiing.

Tourism activity itself is a contributor to the problem of climate change due to its dependency on fossil fuel consumption (Nicholls, 2006; Becken and Hay, 2007), the UNWTO (2007a) estimates that tourism's contribution of CO_2 emissions accounts for about 5 % (though the methodology for the calculation is unclear). Consequently, tourism and climate change represent a two-way relationship (UNWTO, 2003): on the one hand, tourism must minimise its negative impacts on the environment (i.e. reduce the emission of greenhouse gases which cause climate change); on the other hand, as mentioned above, climatic changes will have a significant impact on tourism destinations, resulting in changes for the tourism industry, e.g. in terms of market changes, as well as for other economic sectors that profit indirectly from tourism. Interestingly, the majority of international tourism generation occurs in the countries that are themselves the major contributors to greenhouse gases (Higham and Hall, 2005).

Climate change is likely to affect seasonality patterns, which again would change the demand in terms of in- and outbound tourism. Hamilton *et al.* (2004) mention a possible shift of tourism towards higher altitudes and latitudes, which could negatively affect countries and regions that are heavily dependent on incoming tourists. On the other hand, this could also bring benefits to places currently avoided by tourists, e.g. in Canada, Russia or Mongolia (Bigano *et al.*, 2005). Although the global number of domestic tourists hardly changes, domestic tourism may double in colder countries and fall by 20 % in warmer countries (Hamilton *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, international tourism is more important than is domestic tourism in colder places whereas international tourism is less important than is domestic tourism in warmer places. Hamilton *et al.* (2004) and Morin (2006) state, for some countries international tourism may treble whereas for others it may cut in half. Therefore, they argue that climate change may double tourist expenditures in colder

countries, and halve them in warmer countries. Negative, tourism-related impacts might include damage to infrastructure and ecosystems (terrestrial and marine), and increased threats to human health through both vector and water borne diseases. As a consequence, the UNWTO (2007b:2) highlights the 'need for awareness and preparedness for natural hazards at the local level through systematic capacity building and strategies for disaster risk management'.

However, the situation of countries at high altitudes surrounded by lower lying countries presents exceptions. As tourists prefer to stay close to home, high altitude countries (surrounded by low altitude countries) have an advantage over low altitude countries (surrounded by other low altitude countries) with a similar initial climate, because the neighbouring countries of the former are hotter than the neighbouring countries of the latter (Hamilton *et al.*, 2004). The same authors furthermore argue, that international tourism is likely to decrease, reaching a minimum of 10 % below their scenario without climate change around 2025, and edging towards zero after that. Aggregate international tourism will fall because more tourists stay in their home country, particularly tourists from Germany and the UK, who make up a major part of international tourism. Tourists from hotter countries would increasingly prefer international over domestic holidays, and the share of such tourists gradually increases throughout the century. Climate change increases the attractiveness of cooler countries, so consequently, some countries can expect to receive more tourism income because of climate change, in contrast to warmer countries. As a result, international tourism grows at the expense of domestic tourism. As international tourism is more sensitive to climate change than is domestic tourism, this increases the impact of climate change.

These identified impacts show that understanding and responding to climate change represents 'one of the more important, complex and challenging issues facing the contemporary tourism and recreation industries' (Hall and Higham, 2005:307). Both the government and the tourism industry have the responsibility to do their utmost to mitigate the effects of climate change. Climate change already influences decision-making in the tourism sector (UNWTO, 2007b).

At the 1st International Conference on Climate Change and Tourism/ Djerba Conference (UNWTO, 2003) it was stated, that for coastal zones and mountain regions climate change will cause the greatest risks in terms of tourism demand and accessibility. Seaside tourism is likely to suffer from effects such as beach erosion, higher sea levels, damage from sea urges and storms as well as water supply. Both environments are the most vulnerable for climatic changes, as they are vital for tourism; and as tourism is an equally vital component in regional and local economies, important market changes could occur.

However, while the demand of leisure travellers will probably decrease in most destinations, others, currently less important (such as Great Britain) may become more important, as mentioned before. In mountain regions the demand for winter sports will probably diminish due to a shortening of the season, a decrease of opportunities for beginners to learn the sports and demand pressures on high altitudes resorts which could in turn increase environmental pressures as well as the fact that summer seasons could lengthen and increase the demand (UNWTO, 2003). Both the supply and demand sides of tourism are affected by global climate change, and in turn, tourism directly and indirectly affects climate change itself (Hall and Higham, 2005). The predicted changes and possible destabilisation of climate and weather patterns and resultant climate-related seasonality will clearly impact visitor flows. But people are unlikely to stop travelling but they will alter their preferences in space and time.

In summary, the UNWTO (2007b) suggests four broad categories for the above mentioned impacts: Firstly, the **direct climatic impacts**, referring primarily to changes of global seasonality in tourism demand which in turns influences operating costs such as heating-cooling, snowmaking or food and water supply, as well as impacts upon competitive relationships between destination, which includes the shift towards higher latitudes altitudes as well as the vulnerabilities among winter sport destinations due to declining natural snowfall. Secondly, the **indirect environmental change impacts** are mentioned, including biodiversity loss, reduced landscape aesthetic, increased natural hazards, etc. The UNWTO argues that these impacts are likely to be largely negative, and there are still major knowledge gaps of how climate change will actually affect natural but also cultural resources (e.g. Venice, Italy) that are critical for tourism. Thirdly, the UNWTO names **impacts of mitigation policies on tourist mobility**, on the one hand increased transportation costs (air travel) may alter tourists' travel patterns, especially regarding long-haul destinations that can only be reached by air travel, such as Australia or the Caribbean. On the other hand, there might be opportunities for low carbon emission transport modes such as rail and coach travel which would help destinations that are closer to main markets to re-vitalize. Fourthly, **indirect societal change impacts** might occur, which includes risks regarding future economic growth and political stability of some countries. This is underpinned by the Stern Review on the Economics of Climate Change (Stern Review, 2006) stating that whereas a global warming of 1 °C might even benefit the global GDP, any warming above 1 °C is likely to damage economic growth at a global scale. Furthermore, these impacts refer to climate change as a security risk, mentioned earlier.

It has been shown that impacts of climate change on tourism are potentially important and very diverse. Impacts do and will vary significantly by geographic regions and market segments, not at least depending upon the competitors' impacts, and importantly, climate change will generate both positive and negative impacts in the tourism sector as a whole.

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Cultural products, territory and attenders: Case study of the International Music Festival of Algarve

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Abstract

In this article the importance of cultural products and events in two major domains will be discussed – the type and theme of cultural programs and their impacts on audiences; the potential of cultural products in the territorial and developmental dynamics integrated with the competitive advantage debate will also be explored. In the contemporary set of trends in the multiple dimensions of societies, which many social scientists call post-modernity or late modernity, cultural values and attitudes are certainly a demanding issue in the decision-making process of public and private agents that face the emergence of differentiated cultural audiences, specially in a region (Algarve, South Portugal) where it is expected that tourists and inhabitants thrive for the increase and deepening of cultural experiences, such as the International Music Festival of Algarve (IMFA), which will be the focus of our case study.

Keywords: Cultural products, audiences, territory, International Music Festival of Algarve.

Cultural trends and impacts

> *If everybody is looking for it, then nobody is finding it. If we were cultured, we would not be conscious of lacking culture. We would regard it as something natural and would not make so much fuss about it.*
>
> Pablo Picasso

Based on the recognition that a set of varied circumstances had been decisive to the emphasis on cultural policies and events, social scientists and theorists have focused a lot of attention on the trends of the so-called cultural practices and consumptions. In a post-modernist framework, it is clear that citizens of western countries adopted new forms of participation and also tastes. This shift generated also, as we were saying, different values and attitudes, because citizens living in relative wealthy circumstances in their formative years regard non-material issues as important, emerging probably concerns with subjective well-being (Inglehart, 1997).

The analysis of the conditions of modernity has been fundamental for many of the theoretical approaches on culture, some of them assuming that the major issue facing this topic is integration – for Simmel, it's a problem of integration between objective and subjective culture; for Benjamin, the main integration issue is located among the piece of art and technological intermediation; Adorno was mainly concerned with the connection

between art and commercial trade[7]. Max Horkheimer and Adorno, in their book Dialektik der Aufklärung (1947), mention for the first time the concept of cultural industries, criticizing the mercantile expression and massification that art was being subject to. Their argument was based on the idea that the commercial and economic exploitation of culture and art would lead to an industrial process, in which man was merely seen as an instrument of work and consumption.

In the 80's, the Greater London Council begin using the term 'cultural industries' to include cultural activities that operate as commercial activities (which were not incorporated in the system of public financing). Justin O'Connor defines these industries as "a group of activities concerned with the production and distribution of symbolic goods – goods whose primary value derives from their function and carries meaning" (O'Connor, 2004:10). In short, cultural industries refer to a combination of creation, production and commercialization of creative contents which are intangible and cultural in nature (UNESCO, 2006)[8].

An alternative explanation of those trends may rely on the processes of secularization that took place in Western countries, with this approach being suggested by many authors within cultural Sociology[9] who sustain that traditional Christian religion "has lost its ability to 'overarch' society morally […] the issue of culture has become salient and can therefore also be understood from the fact that in time societies have turned away from tradition and towards the individual" (Clark, 2007:12).

The circumstances that relate to the massification of 'culture' and 'leisure' had its origins between the Industrial Revolution and the intense urbanization process (not just in space but in the dissemination of metropolitan culture[10]), which provided a clearer separation between professional activities and time for leisure. In this sense, the structure of economic production and leisure became 'industrialized', and we support the appearance of new leisure and cultural products (which can be associated), accompanied by the enlargement of the capacity of acquisition of goods and services.

From a sociological point of view, the consumption issue has been thought considering the diverse patterns usually associated with different social layers. Paradoxically the massification trends in advanced industrial societies also develop other kinds of social and cultural practices, structuring the interactions between social groups – Bourdieu called it strategies of *distinction* (namely the *avant-garde* trends followed, the cultural canons, formulation of preferences, between many others) – "art and cultural consumption are predisposed, consciously and deliberately or not, to fulfil a social function of legitimating social differences" (translated, 1979:7).

In this sense, Bourdieu's *distinction* argument consists generally in the idea that the social and cultural differentiations are usually a strategy of empowerment (of class or group). In this sense, class cultural consumptions may be understood as a mean of potential

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[7] For the majority of authors the concerns are mainly connected with the integration between 'high culture' and 'mass culture'.

[8] UNESCO (2006), *Understanding Creative Industries*, available online at http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=29947&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html .

[9] Berger, 1967, for example.

[10] In the classical urban sociology studies, authors like Georg Simmel and Louis Wirth support the idea that the abundance of mental stimulus - typical of the metropolitan life - and the dimension, density and heterogeneous social relations were determinants to the manifestation and spread of certain social and cultural practices.

demonstration of the respective cultural capital and by which people define a place in the hierarchical social distinction system (Bourdieu, 1979).

What has come to be called the 'cultural turn' in the social and human sciences, especially in cultural studies and the sociology of culture, has tended to emphasize the importance of meaning to the definition of culture. Primarily, it is argued that culture concerns the production and exchange of meanings – the 'giving and taking of meaning' – between the members of a society or group. Thus culture depends on its participants interpreting meaningfully what is happening around them, and 'making sense' of the world, in broadly similar ways (Hall, 1997).

The emphasis in cultural practices is related with the idea that the individuals, in a given society, are the agents who give meaning to objects and events, which interpret the messages and values differently appropriated, being crucial this symbolic domain in the social life. Where is meaning produced? The 'circuit of culture' suggests that, in fact, meanings are produced at several different sites and circulate through several different processes and practices – for example, cultural codes. Members of the same culture must share sets of concepts, images and ideas which enable them to think and feel about the world, in roughly similar ways (Hall, 1997).

We will now focus on the concepts of cultural activities and products. Wynne (1998) gathers in his definition a huge group of elements: "We define the culture industry association with what is traditionally understood as art and popular culture. This includes the live performance and singular artistic production, together with the recorded and reproduced productions in the audio and visual media" (1998:1). This broad definition allow us, in some way, an unusual analysis of the cultural set of activities because it is embedded with a plural concern, this means that the traditional dichotomies – public/ private, global/ local, etc. – may be overcome, although they are here taken into account as important analytical tools.

A parsimonious definition of cultural product would consist in the idea that, as any other good or service, they are produced by social actors (that create, produce and distribute it), consumed and enjoyed by others (or even the same), through their cultural practices and routines, with this process being coordinated by mechanisms of regulation (the market, the public institutions, for example)..

There are very diverse activities and cultural practices, where we can cross 'n' dimensions of analysis. We can have activities that work purely in a market logic, as is generally the case with cultural industries or the 'classic high culture', we can also be talking about the enjoyment of heritage or public space or we can be discussing the activities that are clearly in the scope of the leisure and entertainment (Costa, 2007).

The cultural audiences are seen as a desirable focus for public policies and also for multiple interventions in some domains, namely informative, didactic and promotional activities among others. At the present time, from the point of view of cultural industries, it is obvious the importance of the formation of cultural audiences and its' significance for a more educated citizenry. Although, Costa (2004) remembers that this optimistic approach should be confronted with the fact that the creation of cultural audiences is mainly a process of formation of a market for cultural productions, being also stressed that cultural audience could have little influence in the agenda-setting of cultural programmes because it would be the imposition of unilateral criteria, following the logic of cultural domination relations of Bourdieu's argument (Costa, 2004).

Territory, identity and public space

Economical structures have transformed all over the world. The focus of production has moved in immaterial production instead of producing material goods. This means that also the conventional industrial products include ever more information-based processing. Immaterial economy and production are mostly based on human capital, which springs up from individual qualities.

The creative sector[11] is an important element for the competitiveness of territories, because it has a higher potential of regeneration, reconversion and creation of spaces marked by innovation and added-value activities. Florida (2002), in his book *The Rise of Creative Class,* sustains that a territory where we can find the 3't's' – technology, talent and tolerance – has a greater capacity to attract the 'creative class', generate innovation and territorial development.

Actually, the concept of 'creative class' cannot explain spatial dimensions of knowledge-based economy. People with the same education or same occupation can differ profoundly with their cultural valuations, lifestyles and habits of consumption. Social divisions based on these kind of factors do not adhere to traditional classes of social belonging, like occupation, income level or family background, but they might generate affinity and breeding ground for individual-based human capital and consequent 'creative' activity (Hynynen, 2007).

Many social actors are increasingly warned regarding the potential of cultural activities and to a possible strengthening of the areas of participation and collective expression, which can be very positive to the diversification of sociability and citizenship in Portugal. In those terms, considering the effects of the social differentiation impact of culture and the processes of commercialisation and standardisation, which many authors refer to, we could expect a higher volume of cultural programmes in order to answer those demands.

The connection between culture and the public space is an open game that can be balanced between a strengthening of the quality of citizenship or also by a crystallization of the enclaves of lifestyles and social hierarchies (Fortuna *et al.* 1999: 85). As Scott stresses "the emergence of global media spaces, by contributing to the extension of markets and thus to the deepening of the social division of labour, is likely to be associated with heightened forms of local economic development and corresponding redifferentiation of cultural specificities of place" (2000:14).

The public space is increasingly owned by large companies and those 'entertainment areas', which sometimes are not planned for all, losing the idea (and practice) of a space for everyone. There are, moreover, territories 'to avoid', to be delivered to the public authorities. These dynamics encourage desertification of public life, increasingly dichotomized between those who possess and those who don't have the significant forms of capital – economic, cultural, and social.[12]

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[11] "Those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property" (European Commission, 2005:12).

[12] Baptista develops this argument at his work "*Territórios lúdicos (e o que torna lúdico um território): ensaiando um ponto de partida.* [Entertainment Territories (and what composes a entertaining territory): rehearsing a point of departure]. Paper presented at the V Portuguese Congress of Sociology.

The action of social actors is increasingly subject to logics of immediate interest and mediatised interventions. In the economic, social and professional domains, activities related to culture gain importance and recognition (the case of touristic cluster) converting territories, in order to emphasize its recreational components, and by doing so it enhances resources, as local capacities and relations with other territories, for example. We should underline also the broad impacts of cultural activities, both indirect and direct ones, like employments, value created and redistributed, the urban recovery, the consumer satisfaction and other qualitative aspects – forms of sociability, values, attitudes, for example.

Scott (2000) presents a pragmatic approach where he presents the elements that strongly affect the territorial deployment of cultural industries, specifically:
1. The technologies and labour processes used to produce cultural products which usually require a strong human engagement;
2. The production is almost always organized around dense networks of small and medium-sized production units, highly interdependent in terms of inputs and specialized services, despite also be the usual participation of large companies or more integrated structures on these networks;
3. Networks are multifaceted and complex, which as a whole tend to produce significant demands in the local labour markets, and require a variety of skills;
4. As a result of the aspects above, the complex of cultural products are invariably filled with external economies, many of which may emerge through territorial agglomeration. The clustering also allows additional externalities through a system of emerging effects, which relate mainly to mutual learning, the cultural synergies and other potential effects on creativity;
5. The agglomeration also facilitates the emergence of different types of institutional infrastructure that can assist the functioning of the local economy, promoting a more efficient flow of information, promoting trust and cooperation between producers interconnected and ensuring the existence of an effective strategic planning.

The cultural consumption is mainly characterized by segmentations, which follow a set of diverse axis (culture capital, income, age, etc.). It is plausible that their spatial distribution reflects the diversity of situations in the territory in these various fields. Bell (1979) presents in his work "*The cultural contradictions of capitalism*" an overview of the circumstances of change in the social and cultural dimensions of the consumption society. The first decades of the XX century faced the dramatic confrontation between the values of modern capitalism and artistic modernity. For Bell (*idem*) the cultural productions were an irreducible opposition to materialistic and narrow rationality of 'bourgeoisie'. Post-modernism would consist, not in the emulation of modern values, but on their spreading in the whole society.

Baudrillard's writings share with Bell some points of view in what concerns the ties between an economy based on consumption, the expansion of the role of cultural experiences and the trend towards aesthetics of social relations in everyday life (Turner, 2002). The great majority of the theoretical approaches on the relations among the economic and cultural domains were very much influenced by the ideas expressed by the author in his work "*La société de consummation*", published in 1970 (Baudrillard, 1995), being crucial the idea that the consumption society spread aesthetics and 'culturalizes' the experiences and objects.

The conditions and resources in a particular location determine the type of consumption possible in this space, in close conjunction with the distribution networks and promotion of

such assets. Some areas easily meet the conditions for the existence of demand for certain activities, while others may have serious difficulties gathering a critical minimum.

Clark *et al.* (2007) are even more emphatic: "Driven by income, education and the NPC (New Political Culture), culture and tourism are key parts of this transformation. Art in the walls of many banks; major corporations sponsor theatres, music and public art" (2007: 5). Political leaders and corporation managers sensed the importance of rising arts and culture concerns among citizens promoting events and scenes for the enjoyment of cultural products (public art, music festivals, historic preservation of neighbourhoods, museums and more). The theorization produced in the frame of the New Political Culture show that these kind of initiatives are not only consequences of the social pressures (because of the rise of new styles of consumption, lifestyle and amenities) but also citizens and local organization's own cultural initiatives.

Responsible and ethical tourist behaviour is absolutely essential in order to guarantee the preservation of cultural diversity; it is also necessary to make the local population aware of such wealth and to set an example when it comes to respecting it. Tourism can act as a vehicle of dialogue and a dynamic element between populations if it is managed efficiently, with the establishment of agreements between public and private sectors.

Some relatively recent developments in social sciences are contributing to the analysis of cultural policies, namely on 1) the study of culture sectors, cultural agents and practices, on their social frameworks, this is the analysis of the focuses of cultural polices (or what they should focus on); 2) the theoretical approaches to the study of cultural policies, as a specific scientific subject. This second topic is particularly relevant to theoretical building of sociological discourses and research, because cultural policies gather two fundamental dimensions of social phenomenon: culture and power.

Culture and power, on the conception of social sciences, are two basis of the organization of societies and processes that occurs, two essential elements of social relations. The question remains: what are the domains and the impacts of cultural policies, in contemporary societies?

Education and awareness of host communities about their heritage is also significant when it comes to demonstrating that tourism is a resource of prosperity and understanding. More than the normative debate about what should and shouldn't be the guidelines for sustainable policies, we would like to emphasize the importance that is emerging in what concerns the evaluation and balance of the performance and development impacts, which are, for example, important elements of general strategy of the intervention funded and planned by the European Initiatives[13]

In an effort to reinforce the importance of a plural access to culture, the Agenda 21 for Culture promotes the adoption of a series of principles, commitments and recommendations to strengthen the development of culture on an international scale from the local arena, considering it as a collective right to participation in the life of societies[14].

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[13] For a detailed study and theorization on the role(s) of the European Union: Delanty, Gerard and Chris Rumford (2005), *Rethinking Europe. Social Theory and the implications of Europeanzation.* London: Routledge.

[14] Those were some of the main conclusions on tourism of the "Fórum Barcelona 2004", report available online (http://www.barcelona2004.org/eng/banco_del_conocimiento/documentos/ficha.cfm?idDoc=1448).

The preservation of cultural heritage, values, arts, architecture and traditions of the regions gives authenticity to the touristic destination and contributes decisively to its differentiation, not only in terms of tourism product, but also with regard to an image of quality. It is important that aspects of the culture of regions are managed taking into account the specificities of audiences producing a large convergence of interests, both of the residents and the visitors.

Robert Palmer (2007), a well-known international adviser of cultural projects, proposed a conceptual and administrative reconsideration of culture in response to the needs of a globalised society. Palmer found solutions, with sustainable value, based on the broadening of the concept of culture, which goes beyond the arts, to include the more social aspects of culture; the union of synergies between the authorities and the civil society; professional multidisciplinary; and the horizontal and integrated planning of culture.

Methodology

What can be the role of cultural activities in the promotion of development and competitiveness of territories (and in this particular case, tourism destinations)? How diverse and large are the audiences of this kind of cultural activities? What is the importance of certain locations and regions for the appearance of creative dynamics and the development of cultural activities?

In what concerns the major constraints of this study, we highlight some specific elements of our object and thematic. First, it's clear that the study of cultural products and the characterization of the audiences should be integrated in the past and it is required some awareness of the socio-economic specificities (tourists and inhabitants), that don't fit in the scope of this work.

The methodology of a case study allow us an integrated analysis (*interpretative case study*, in Lijphart (1971) terminology), because it is very useful in the exploration of many research subjects. The assumption that usually underlies this choice is that the access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only possible through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings. The distinguishing characteristics of case study analysis derive from the attempts to examine a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context (especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident). The sample inquired included 196 individuals and the inquiring process was conducted in the days where the performances took place (table 1).

Regarding our objectives and analytical strategy, it is essential to characterize the profile of the audience of the Festival, in order to put in context the evaluation made and the expectations presented by the sample inquired (Table 1).

Table 1 – Characteristics of the sample inquired

Characteristics	Results (Survey)
Gender	Masculine: 40,6%
	Feminine: **59,4%**
Age (years)	< 25: 4,2%
	25-35: 26,8%
	36-50: 30,4%
	>51: **38,7%**
Education (level attained)	Primary (4 years): 1,6%
	Basic (9 years): 8,2%
	Secondary (12 years): 19,1%
	Degree (univ.): **53%**
	Post-graduation (include MA, PhD):18%
Marital status	Single: 28%
	Married: **54,8%**
	Divorced: 11,3%
	Widow: 6%
Nationality	Portuguese: **94,2%**[15]
	English: 2,1%
	Brazilian: 1,6%
	Others: 2%
Occupation	Teacher: **21,7%**
	Retired: 16,2%
	Entrepreneur: 11,8%
	Technician: 9,9%

Findings

The International Music Festival of Algarve represents one of the major cultural events of the region. With 29 editions, in 2007 it gathered 13 concerts, 200 national and international artists[16]. In Raz's (2003) view the revolution in festivals has been stimulated through commercial aspect to meet the changing demand of the local community groups and increasing business opportunities for the events organisations and local business. Festivals are attractive to host communities, because they help to develop local pride and identity. In addition, festivals have an important role in national and host community context of destination planning, enhancing and linking tourism and commerce. Some aspects of this role include: events as image makers, economic impact generators, tourist

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[15] Residence (municipality): Faro 69,3%; Olhão 7,3%; Tavira 5,6%; Loulé 5%.

[16] Namely Orchestra of Algarve, Chourus of Curitiba, Petersen Quartet, Ute Lemper, Virtuous from S. Petersburg, António Rosado and Roland Batik (pianists),

attractions, overcoming seasonality, contributing to the development of local communities and supporting key industrial sectors (Raz, 2003).

In the 2007 edition, the study here, we can say that the great majority of the audiences of the performances held in the context of the Festival were Portuguese (94,2%), well educated (Degree 53%) and almost 22% of them were teachers (Table 1). Regarding the Bourdieu *distinction* thesis we can say that these results would confirm in part the idea of an elitist appropriation of cultural events, but in our opinion these results from the social and territorial contexts of the Festival – mainly urban, essentially centred in classic and contemporary music[17].

The cultural sector in Portugal has to face some important challenges. First, social agents and 'decision-makers' should clearly understand[18] the importance and strategic value of these activities for territorial development, especially the public policy[19]. Moreover, culture and innovation play a crucial role in helping regions attract investment, creative talents and tourism. Paradoxically, whereas we are living at a time where information technologies have abolished distance and time constraints, "physical location" and the "socialisation" factor remain decisive for economic success. The "location market" is a reality. Cities and regions are competing to attract foreign direct investment and creative talents. In order to succeed they need to attach several new strings to their bows: diversified cultural offerings, quality of life and life style. Culture has become an important soft location factor and a key factor for boosting local and regional attractiveness.

Secondly, culture is a main driving force for tourism, one of Europe's most successful industries representing 5.5% of the EU GDP and where Europe holds a 55% of the global market share. Europe is the most-visited destination in the world. In 2005, the continent recorded 443.9 million international arrivals (KEA, 2006). One of the economic roles of events is to act as catalysts for attracting visitors and increasing the average spend and length of stay. They are also seen as image-makers for the destinations, creating a profile, positioning them in the market and a competitive advantage[20].

In the case of IMFA, the results of the inquiring process show that most persons intend to recommend this Festival (about 81%)[21]. This recognition of the importance of the Festival is also attached with the perception of the contribution that globally derives from IMFA[22] – 69,9% considers that it contributes very much to the "positioning of Algarve as a cultural region" and just after, 68,9% consider the Festival an important input in the development of "cultural practices". The elements regarded as less important contributions were the job

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[17] The new consumer theory, as is now well known, suggests that tastes are similar between individuals, with variations in behaviour caused by differing shadow prices of commodities produced according to household production functions in which material goods and services, including the arts, enter as inputs. But the arts can be further distinguished in this theory by their being addictive, in the sense that an increase in an individual's present consumption of the arts will increase her future consumption. Such a view can in fact be traced back to Alfred Marshall, who recognized that the taste for "good music" was an acquired taste that would increase over time with exposure (Throsby, 1994).

[18] And act in a concerted way (private, public, associative agents).

[19] For example, the creative and cultural sector have contributed 2,6% of the EU GDP (2003) and the sector growth in 1999-2003 was 12,3% higher than the growth of the general economy (KEA, 2006).

[20] For an analysis of the role of events and festivals, Getz, D. (1997), *Event Management and Event Tourism*. New York: Cognizant Communications Corporation.

[21] Annexes, figure C.

[22] The list of contributions that we ask the individuals to consider were: improve the image of the country; positioning Algarve as a cultural region; attract population; development of cultural practices; young audiences; creation of job opportunities; involving agents of the region; cultural offer; creation of infrastructures; attract tourists.

creation and the attraction of tourists. These findings especially the positioning of the region as a cultural territory is an important indicator of the weight that the people attribute to the image of the place.

When asked about the main reasons to be present in the initiatives of IMFA[23] the majority of the answers pointed out to the "appreciation of this kind of spectacle" (59,95%) and "friend's recommendation" (11,28%) - the social networks represent, in this regard, a fundamental vehicle for the diffusion and information about cultural activities.

Briefly, we can say that cultural products are becoming more salient elements of policy-making because of their (regenerative) potential in territorial and social development. We outline two main conclusions. First, as we say before, cultural consumption is mainly characterized by segmentations. IMFA audience (or at least the sample inquired) is not representative of the general population of the region. The 'democratization' of culture is a difficult subject to address because it mirrors social inequalities and diverse tastes for certain types of cultural products[24] - in this sense, the 'uses' of cultural practices are eminently social (metaphorically, they could either be used to 'build fences or bridges').

Secondly, the results of the enquiry demonstrate that the majority emphasise the importance of the Festival in the projection of a cultural dimension of the region and also the positive impacts in the development of cultural practices. These concerns represent an internalisation of the decisive role that cultural activities plays as an attraction resource to Algarve as a tourism destination, but it could also represent an individual objective of 'self-development' in what respects the knowledge and experience of art and other cultural expressions, as important elements of the individual's immaterial needs.

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[23] The answer hypothesis were: appreciation for this kind of spectacle; friend's recommendation; meet friends; don't have better plans; for the performance; go with friends and family; to support the relaunch of IMFA; tips of critics/ reviews; because of the place where it took place; by invitation (Annexes, figure B).

[24] Lizardo (2006) make an interesting point about cultural tastes on his article "How Cultural Tastes Shape Personal Networks". He sustains that "the most significant change in modern, (post)industrial societies consists of the rising role of the arts, and mass-produced culture in general, in providing the "baseline" forms of cultural capital necessary to maintain interaction across different types of network ties. This process acquires more importance as these network ties have been transformed in the contemporary context of increasing geographic mobility and the decline of the traditional bonds characteristic of primordial local communities" (781).

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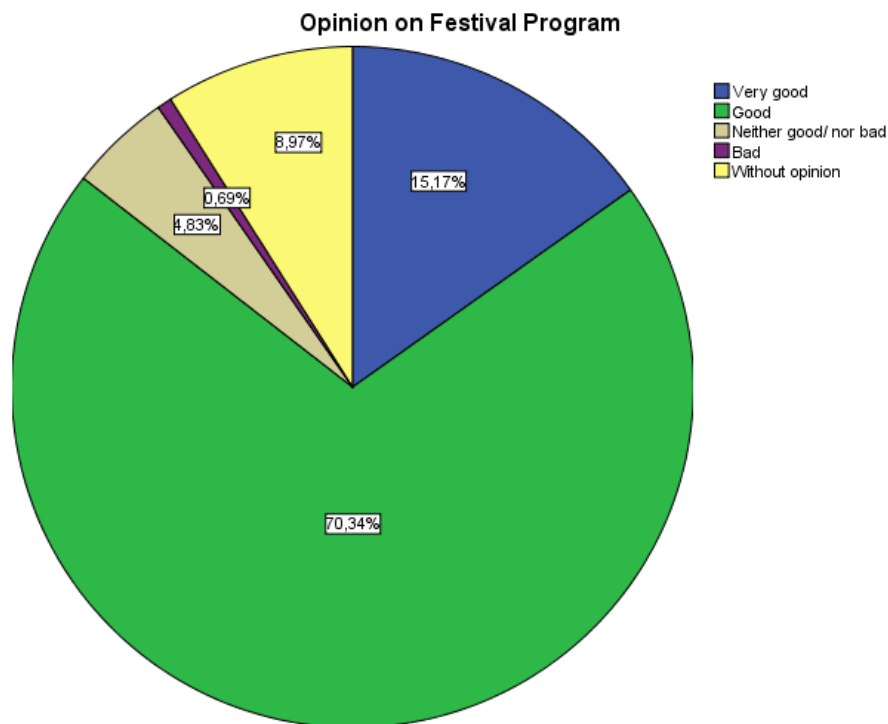
Annexes

Figure A: Opinion on the Agenda of the Festival.

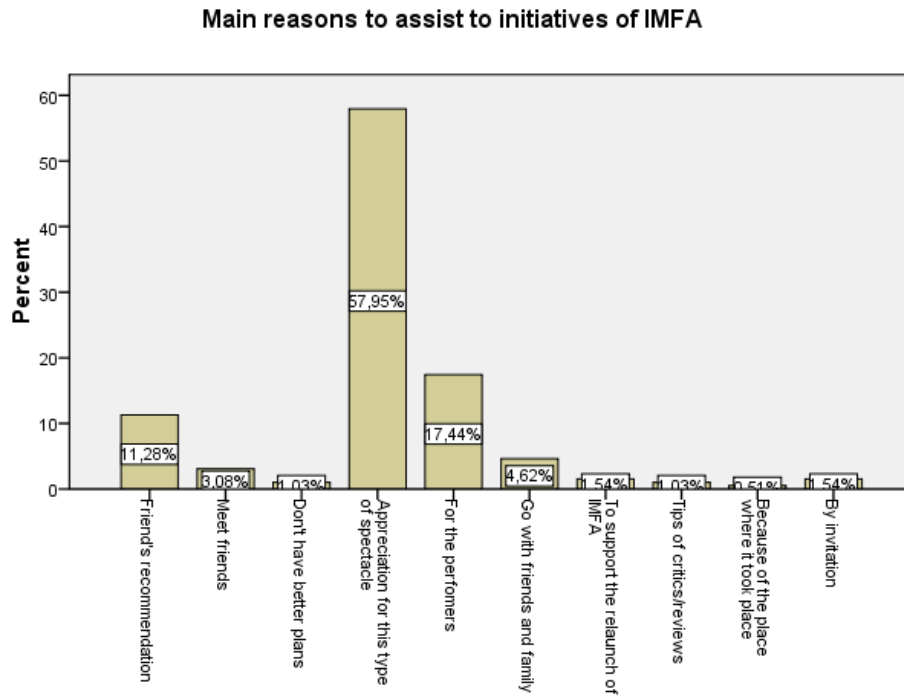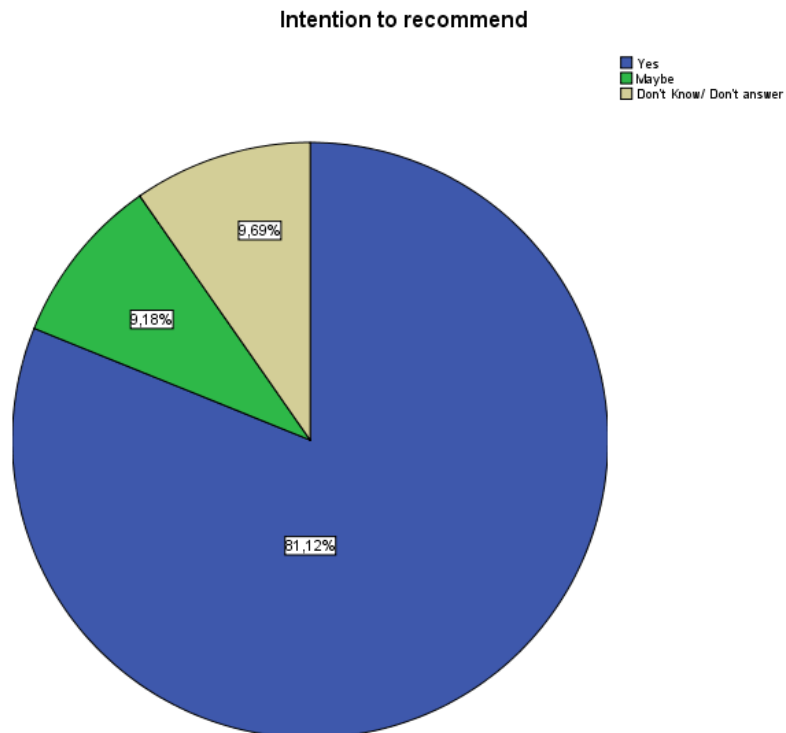**Figure B: Main reason to be present on initiatives of IMFA.**

Main reasons to assist to initiatives of IMFA

Figure C: Intention to recommend the Festival.

Intention to recommend

Geocaching – A new experience for sports tourism

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the forms of interaction in the international geocaching game. It presents an analysis for case researches on how and where to use geocaching as experience tourism products. This paper deals with a case research called "Geocaching – A New Experience for Sport Tourism", which is a tourist service which is using geocaching for experience tourism production. Destinations are amalgams of tourism products and integrated experiences from urban towns to scenic hikes. Geocaching for experience tourism products gives facilities, destinations and services designed to meet the new needs of tourism. This will introduce ICT (Information communication technology) technology in the tourism business in a new way.

Key words**: Geocaching, treasure hunt, GPS Technology, tourism business by using GPS technology, Geocaching for experience tourism production, ICT technology of tourism.

Introduction

Treasure hunts in children's games, exciting notes in bottles or other caches and scenic hikes through the local countryside and town have become the latest form of high-tech treasure hunt for families. (Ihamäki 2006) Geocaching is a new sport game: partly treasure hunt, partly outdoor exploration based on principles of orientation. It was started round the year 2000 and owes its birth to human ingenuity, the Internet, and Global Position System (GPS) technology. (The Editors and Staff of Geocaching.com and Jack, W. Peters 2004) The concept of geocaching is simple. One person puts together a collection of things like toys, trinkets and places them in a container, a plastic box called the cache, measures its position with a GPS device and then posts the location numbers on the Web site called www.geocaching.com. Someone else, an interested player, looks up the location coordinate (to be printed on the above-mentioned web address), finds the cache, takes one item from the collection and replaces it with another. Caches are hidden in the wilderness, in parks or even in urban locations accessible to the public.

How the caches are hidden, depends on the creativity of the one doing the hiding. The point of the case study called "Geocaching – A New Experience for Sport tourism" is to create an innovative educational package and tourism service with the emphasis on the geography and history of Pori, eventually with some long-term influences on the positive image of Pori. One of the aims is to produce a treasure hunt game based on the history and geography of Pori by using letterboxing and geocaching. Letterboxing is about hiding and searching for treasures with the aid of a lead and a map.

The geocaching game, as a sport, is where a variety of experiences can be created to meet the needs of enthusiastic participants. The enthusiasm for the game has quickly spread as participants combine their love for outdoors life with their interest in modern technology. One may find a route of strenuous hikes through mountains and technical rock climbing as great fun and as a challenging setting for geocaching. Another person may

view it as a game of finding tiny treasures. It has been so appealing to many that what six years ago used to be an activity of a few dozen enthusiasts now attracts hundreds of thousands. (The Editors and Staff of Geocaching.com and Jack, W. Peters 2004, McNamara 2004) This is the reason why to make new competitive destinations in the future using new technology (GPS) for experience tourism products. This paper investigates some aspects of how to make experience tourism products by using geocaching and ICT technology. In this paper, it is my intention to make some notes on how GPS technology and the location can be brought into a central feature of gaming and what consequences it will have on the entire gaming experience. Recently, the gaming concepts are taking advantage of position and location information have brought some new interesting features to nature gaming. Among the treasure hunt games, geocaching and other games, plays and hobbies based on the position system and using GPS technology are a new trend in the game culture. (Ihamäki 2006) Thanks to computer technology and the industry of computer games, it is now possible to development new game types and genres. Games played with mobile machines, in which mobility and movement of players in the real world are part of the contents of the game, are called mixed-reality games. Geocaching can also be seen as a mixed-reality game (Koskimaa 2004).

The technological strength of destination has only recently been introduced in the determining destination competitiveness. For a while, technology was only a minor factor in determining the appeal of destinations but has now become a major factor in the promotion and distribution of the travel experience for an increasing number of destinations. The arrival of the Internet represents the latest impact of technology on destination competitiveness. The Internet has enabled smaller, less powerful destinations to have access to a global market at a cost that is no longer prohibitive. Global positioning systems have become another way of assisting travellers. Such systems provide the traveller with detailed information on routing to destinations, at increasing levels of detail. One suspects that once the cost of this technological support is reduced, it will become standard, and travel and tourism enterprises are likely to be very attracted to the marketing opportunities this technology presents. The challenge facing destinations is to know which types of technology are truly desired by visitors. Destinations will need to determine the extent to which technology increases their competitiveness as opposed to reducing their appeal. (Richie & Crouch, 2003.)

Position systems and context awareness specify mobility mostly through technology and in them the physical location of the player gives significances to the game. Thus, the environment can be given new scopes for action and meanings. (Ed. Kuivakari 2006) In mixed-reality games, such as geocaching, games can be seen as part of life or life can be seen as part of the game field. This kind of linking real life with playing games comes partly from Reality TV programs. (Ihamäki 2006) The relation of the games to mobility and sociality vary. Howard Rheingold has discussed the concept of immobility, wondering if the concept has changed so much, that it is no more connected with a concrete place, but now refers to a social network, which is not tied to any specific place. (Rheingold 2002) Sociologists talk about transfer way of life community as new tribe time. These social communities are characteristically based on choosing their own participation. This means that geocachers all over the world share treasure hunt experiences voluntarily with each other through the community. Around the hobby of geocaching, there have been composed various networks, which have created a culture of geocaching. (Ihamäki 2006) In mobile games in which devices are used, the organisation of the game field has been given new forms. Also, the physical distances between the players have an influence on the structure and the proportions of the game field. The players' networked and inter-

changing game fields close to, overlapping and within each other are novelties concerning the use of space in games, and taking advantage of them has only just begun. It is possible to hide information in our physical environment only to be perceived by certain games, such as geocaching and by certain instruments, such as GPS receivers, a fact that should also interest designers of advertisement games. Thus, the virtual and physical game field has an increasing influence on each other and can be included in each other. (Eskelinen 2005)

Letterboxing can also be identified to be a treasure hunt game, with the purpose to adventure in nature (Hall 2004). The game culture of today has become more varied and there are now issues of, among other things, new trends and meanings in the structures of games. Nowadays players are becoming more actively engaged in the game, playing their part in the structures of the game. To live alongside traditional computer games, there is now a more active manner of using the game. (Järvinen, 2000) For instance in geocaching, the player actively hunts for treasures in the real world. Geocaching is good for the health and fitness of the tourist group. Geocaching also gives some intriguing educational possibilities. Games can be used in education over a long period of time. In the United States, geocaching game has been used in education since 2004. The geocaching game is helpful in understanding relationships between contents, processes and the context of a subject matter. Geocaching also provides examples for tourist groups with dynamics and strategy. Games are social systems: so is geocaching in an educational way. Development applications to environmental education and experiences of local history are meaningful in case studies. Applications can be planned for different target groups.

Adventure sport is one of the fastest growing segments of the travel business witness brochures, advertisements, specialist magazines, equipment manufacturers and suppliers throught the world. Based in natural, outdoor locations, these trips let participants interact with their environment in a variety of adventure activities and single sports activities such as hiking, hang gliding and geocaching (extreme geocaching). (Standeven, De Knop 1998, 94.) Geocaching is a great, low-impact way of increasing your fitness. It gives you reason to get off the couch and get out in the fresh air to do some walking or hiking. Because geocaches are rated as to how difficult the terrain is and how far you'll need to walk to get to a cache, you can select outings that are based on your current level of fitness. Fast and convenient forms of transportation have brought real adventure-type walking holidays to a growing number of people, so that is a geocaching game too. Experienced leisure travellers constantly seek new levels of vacations and organized travel adventure provide extraordinary experiences by offering geocaching hunting holidays. Of the adventure activities, clearly the most popular and one of the best ways to get out into the countryside is adventurous walking with all this variants such as hiking, snowshoeing and geocaching. (Standeven, De Knop, 1998, 93, 95.) Connections between sport and tourism can be traced to ancient times. A relationship between sport and tourism is now of global significance. Media attention has increased and people are becoming more aware of the health and recreational benefits that sport and tourism provide. The growing numbers of travel companies now produce brochures to advertise their sport and adventure holidays for example this new product "Geocaching – A New Experience for Sport tourism in Pori" to the increasing interest in sport tourism. (Richie & Crouch, 2003.)

Methodology of case study called Geocaching – A new experience for sport tourism in Pori

Over the past few years, the term "innovation" has increasingly been used to describe the behaviour of destinations and the tourism sector. Classical innovation theories have much to offer tourism research. Innovation is a rather pragmatic term that can also include minor adaptations of existing products and services. Innovation is useful if we want to use the term to describe what goes on in tourism. a typology of innovations provides a good guide for research and practise. Innovation can take place in one or a combination of the following five categories, which this research is using in Himanen's theory model of dynamics of five innovations. (Hjalager 2001)

This case study is a qualitative research, carried out as an enquiry for students, including pictures and video. This is a small pilot case, giving suggestions for using new technology in education and tourism services in the future. The purpose of the research is to study how new technology such as GPS receivers could be methodologically used in tourism service. This research is based on a model of dynamics of five innovations, which functions around the worldwide game of geocaching. It is important to see the potential of competitiveness adventure tourism product as a supportive method to basic tourism service at Treasure Hunt cultural heritage road in Pori. In this article, I have used Himanen's theory model of dynamics of five innovations. In my own model, the game of geocaching is in itself used as a methodology in planning the tourism services. The definite output or brand will be realized in institutions, which organize this tourism service.

Figure 1: Himanen uses dynamics of five innovations Geocaching as a method in interactive tourism service theory model. (Based on Himanen's model)
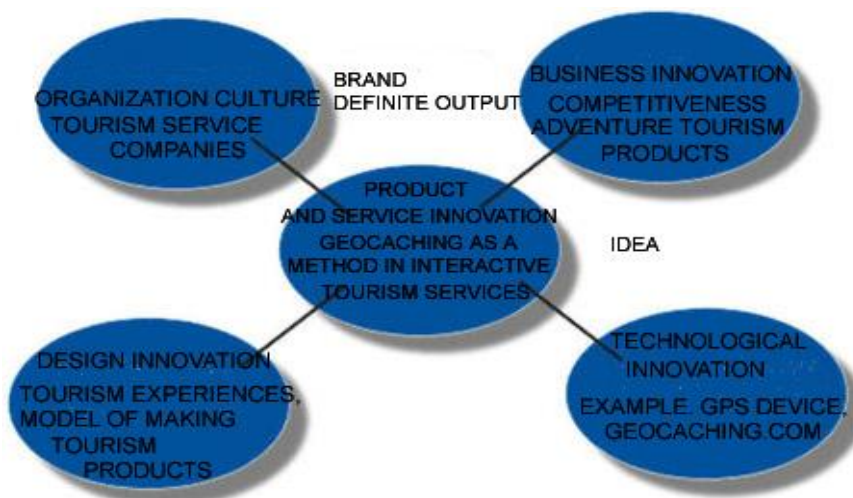
Cultural innovation for organizational culture means modernising in a creative way. Geocaching is an innovative method and is workable in a number of small tourism service firms (Himanen, 2007, 19). Besides tourism experiences, the methodology examines research models of making tourism products suitable and creating tourist's experiences for a treasure hunt road.

Business innovation means a business model with creative brands, in this case a creative new adventure tourism service. (Himanen 2007, 18). This can also support adventure education theory and create an active pedagogy, which can interpret one's experiences and shape collaborative education (Linnankylä; Pollari; Takala 1994). In this case I use new technology in the form of a global position system tourism service method. Game play like geocaching is supporting the development of innovation in tourism and group cooperation Hämäläinen; Bluemink; Häkkinen; Järvelä 2005, 191-192).Design innovation is central to experience creation. This has been emphasized for example by Joseph Pine and James Gilmore (Himanen, 2007, 18), and is central to a new kind of active teaching and learning method (Ulvilan koulutoimen tietostrategia 2000-2006).

Product/service innovation have to connect and take a creative central position, and will need all five innovation types to be successfu. (Himanen 2007, 18) Geocaching integrates different types of tourist services, for example sport tourism services, ICT tourism services, natural tourism services and ecotourism services (Ihamäki 2005).

ICT technology and geocaching effects for tourism

The supply of tourism services has some significant effects thanks to ICT-technology on tourism services and performing services. According to Hugentobler 1995, changes in demand and supply factors for Tourism signify more experience production and moving from tourism of package tours over to more individual package holidays. (Richie & Crouch, 2003.) While travelling, people have always been interested in adventures and treasure hunt games have brought especially young people back to nature for adventures. At the same time there has been an increase in environmental consciousness. Tourism and hobbies have become more involved in each other, which has been meaningful for various products. Casual travelling could be described as a totality of happenings, which people attend, travelling between places in order to find experiences they want to have. Geocaching can be played anywhere, that's the reason why geocaching can be perfectly played on holidays. Geocaching can take players to locations, that are not generally known to the public. After the players have found the cache, they see the place through their own eyes. Our relations to places are not just informational, but also touched, felt with the whole body and all the senses. In humanistic geography, places are not only studied as facts implied by coordinates but with a specific emphasis on the interaction as happening rather than just as location. In the same way, urban town caches could be seen as locations of experiences. It is because there is traffic and noise in cities, and thereby the place is changed into a living happening. Places are not static but dynamic, born out of experiences. A geocaching place is temporary or sporadic, where players do not necessarily stay for a long time. On the other hand, experience of location changes because geocaching places change according to a personal interpretation and thereby become significant.

Geocaching as an activity and the geocaching community as a social grouping are uniquely of the present moment; both tied to the land and reliant on the Internet. The community gives advice as people struggle to live well in both the physical and virtual worlds. Observations like these about geocaching as a significant cultural activity are presented in the concluding essay. Geocachers have hidden their caches in interesting places, with significances of history, landscape, culture and their own experiences and memories. This could be compared to romantic landscape photography and collecting experiences. In this way, a new form of experience tourism and a new target group is created.

Geocaching included in the teaching of geography and history – A case study

The aim of the project is to create an innovative educational package and tourism service with the emphasis on the geography and history of Pori, eventually with some long-term influences on the positive image of Pori. One of the aims is to produce a treasure hunt game based on the history and geography of Pori by using letterboxing and geocaching. Letterboxing is about hiding and searching for treasures with the aid of a lead and a map. In geocaching, GPS receivers are used in hiding and searching for treasures.

A treasure hunt game based on local history and geography will be designed to be played by 2nd, 3rd and 4th class pupils in the centrally located schools of Pori. The treasure hunt game is played through a couple of waypoints rooted in the history, culture and landscape of the city.

At waypoints, pupils have some educational tasks connected with the history of Pori and with changes in landscape. The game is included in a teaching package with letterboxing, i.e. a lead and a map. The game is good for pupils in constructing their identity, dealing with the concept of time and in understanding human efforts, both intellectual and material work. The historical focus is on one's own family and local history. Familiarity with the history of Pori and the application of history to present life gives pupils a possibility to understand both the past and present of the city.

Another treasure hunt game is designed for seventh- to ninth-graders at the centrally located schools of Pori. The purpose of the game is to integrate different subjects and educational plans with each other and thereby diversify the contents of the game. There are ten waypoints in the treasure hunt game. Each waypoint includes a task related to local history, geographical changes and environmental education. For the game, GPS receivers are used and there are also digital cameras on the route. Thus, the technological skills required by children and youth in today's society are taught. Macdonald et al. (2001) emphasise the significance of teaching how to select information so that the students would learn to use modern information technology in an effective and appropriate way. In the 1994 syllabus for the comprehensive schools, it is mentioned for the first time that "because of the technological innovations in society, it is required by all citizens to have a new kind of readiness to use technological applications and an ability to play their part in the development of technology. Both girls and boys shall have the possibility to learn to understand and use technology." The teaching package will include a virtual route of treasure hunting on the Internet which also attracts tourists. One aim is to produce new research results regarding the application of geocaching and letterboxing to teaching and tourism services, based on the PhD thesis being written by postgraduate Pirita Ihamäki at the Department of Cultural Production and Landscape Studies of the University of Turku. The project was carried out between 1st of February and 31st of June in 2007.

The innovative nature of the project

The application of treasure hunt games to environmental education as a new teaching method creates a new innovative educational culture. Treasure hunt games provide pupils with an opportunity to make their own observations and learn things that would have otherwise been read from the books. On the other hand, urban environment is challenging and demanding in many ways. Also, it is now possible for pupils to put their own favourite things first. Thus, the combination of subjects and innovative teaching methods can motivate students to give good learning results.

Position systems is a new field, therefore our education shall also meet the changes of our time. Thanks to the practical involvement of environment in teaching, students will be educated to be responsible citizens of the information society. With treasure hunt games, new creative learning and activities combine theory with practice. Geocaching is a worldwide game and its limits are only defined by each teacher, according to his or her competence. What pupils will learn depends on how enthusiastic the teacher is about geocaching.

The purpose is to promote the teaching in geography and history with the aid of game-like elements. With a new kind of education and cooperation, it is possible to pave the way for position systems and information technology and to acquire the skills required today and to be able to meet the requirements of competence in future jobs.

As for tourism, new kinds of program services will be created. Geocaches have been produced by persons who are innovatively interested in adventures and experiences. They have also created a new target group for tourism. Risto Gylden, a geocaching pioneer, has commented that "geocaching has made travelling very interesting. We used to walk around on shopping streets and visit museums, but now we are after caches and experiences." With treasure hunt games, there is a new kind of need for tourism services.

The destination element of Treasure Hunt cultural heritage road in Pori

The capacity will reflect the goals that have been established for the site or resort, and these should specify the nature of the experiences to be provided and the level of environmental modification which is unacceptable. These may be influenced by such factors as capital availability and managerial involvement. (Wall, Mathieson 2006, 34.) Measure of capacity in tourist areas can relate to approaching routes, to the resort area and its attractions as a whole, or to individual services and facilities (Hall 1974 392.) In this case, capacity has physical and social attributes which may be measured. Each capacity type will vary for different destinations depending upon the physical characteristics of the destinations, the types of use, and the goals that they expected to satisfy. Each type of capacity will have a tolerance limit for each destination or facility. (Wall, Mathieson 2006, 34).

When making the treasure hunt cultural heritage road in Pori, it is important to consider the concepts of carrying capacity in the search for sustainable tourist development like: (Wall, Mathieson 2006, 37.)

1. Capacities change over time with changing goals and technologies and they will vary with different forms of tourism and for different types of tourist products. In this case the town of Pori wants to present one historical story for the treasure hunting road. The treasure hunt road is easy to get to because the location is in the middle of town. This tourist service is using GPS technology and makes a new form of tourist services.

2. Agreement on type of desired environmental, social and economic conditions, and the indicators of each and the acceptable level of impact on each must be determined. This case study is financed by the European Regional Development Fund and Satakunta Council, City of Pori. City council of Pori wanted to present history especially for young people in an educational way and that service is free for schools. Pori wants to develop a new tourist service in the centre which introduces the town's history in a new way. The service is free for tourists. Pori will have its 450th birthday in 2008, which is the reason that the town wants to introduce an innovative tourist product.

Figure 2: Treasure Hunting road experience, blueprint figure.
Leaving situations: Example Finnish tourist group treasure hunt package in Pori

Concrete elements:	*Treasure hunt road survey* *- Service planning and practice* *- Buildings* *- Connections codes and caches*	*Pori Region Tourism Ltd.* *- Brochure of treasure hunt road*	*Internet* *-Treasure hunt road guidance* *-Pictures* *-Videos* *-Exercises*	*Treasure hunt road* *- Size of group shape degree of difficulty*	*Services of Cultural Production and Landscape Studies library and Pori Region Tourism Ltd.* *- Hotels, hostels*
Customer Process:	- Arrive in the place - Finding services	- Renting for GPS devices	- Making sightseeing in road in Internet - Make planning of treasure hunting road. Example picnic planning or other opportunities in road at same time as to find the caches.	-Left in road - Finding of caches -Making for exercises -Learning in history and cultural heritage for Pori.	- In library for using Internet - Possibility to make picnic or go for lunch in several places on the way. - Using for Pori Region Tourism Ltd. other services.
Perceptible Service process:	- Internet guide for treasure hunt road - Getting treasure hunting road brochure in Pori Region Tourism Ltd.	- Renting for GPS devices - Reading for brochure of treasure hunting road	-Producing in local treasure hunt road in Department Cultural Production and Landscape Studies library or Pori Region Tourism Ltd. office - Teaching basic function of GPS device in Pori Region Tourism Ltd. office	- Pori Region Tourism Ltd. phone service and Internet service	- Tourist guide services in treasure hunt road - Other tourism services like hotels, program services so on…

3. There needs to be a known relationship between the level and types of use and the impacts produced in capacity as a useful input to planning and management. All parts of the tourist product have to be linked naturally together and fulfil expected customer quality values. However it should be remembered, that customers' expectations can be very different (Komppula, Boxberg 2005, 103.).

4. There must be a political, financial and legal framework as well as desire on the part of the local planning agencies to place limitations on types and volumes of use. In this case study Pori Council supports the development of this tourism product.

Conclusion

On the supply side, technology plays an important complementary role in engineering the new tourism. Technologies will have the impact of increasing efficiency of production, increasing the quality of services delivered to consumers and generating completely new services. The information-intensity of travel and tourism is a key driving force in the rapid diffusion of technology in the industry. Tourism involves the movement, accommodation, entertainment and general servicing of clients from one geographical location, in another.

Technology impacts in tourism will lead to the generation of new services. Innovation is the essence of being creative and bringing new goods and services to the marketplace. A radically new idea (geocaching in tourism experience production) creates waves in the travel and tourism industry and understandably, uncertainties abound. New product/service innovations in tourism include the opening up of new destinations (geocacher manufactured new cache places) and the development of new market segments (geocachers, people who use new technology for adventure travelling). People go on holidays and they do geocaching for their vacations. They explore places that would never have been known about otherwise, true local treasures, tiny parks that tourists would never hear about or part of well-known places that are still off the beaten track. Treasure Hunt cultural heritage road in Pori offers tourists new experiences of hunting treasure and gives them new life experience. Young people are eager to be on the cutting edge of a new trend. Geocaching is also good for a large population of retirees searching for a way to maintain a healthy and active lifestyle while participating in a sport that can be enjoyed at a leisure pace nationwide. Involvement in the sport will help you make sense of your GPS receiver and it also helps you meet your personal goals and needs. This segment of population can hereby be labelled as "Generation GPS". Multiplayer gaming has become a social experience, one that can constitute a 'social pleasure'. This adventure brought new experiences, some of which will remain as a resource in the human psyche, while some will be good memories and part of a lived life. Experiences and feelings are inspirational for further adventures in the future.

This case study introduces how to use geocaching in tourism service. From the pupils' viewpoint, game culture is prominent in different media environments, even if the pupils would not be interested in it themselves. The position of games in the new media environment is remarkable. The physical explorations that geocaching makes possible, the wandering of body as well as mind. The location of geocache is given by coordinates, hunting for that involves the curious experience of simultaneously knowing exactly where you are going, but having no idea where it "really" is or what should be looked for, until you finally arrive at the site. While that experience was common for explorers in earlier eras, it has become a rarer experience in our media-saturated world. Geocahing is initially attracted to discover new and wonderful places to travel. It is interesting to know what these places are, what kind of locales others find worthy of sharing.

It has the implications of having to incorporate virtual technologies into one of the most basic human activities. By employing this new way of walking, geocaching reveals a chance between what humans have been and what we are becoming. In using a GPS receiver and the Internet, geocachers are bound to the communications devised that provide them with data and with access to one another. Marshall McLuhan described this kind of media immersion more than forty years ago. The capacity to integrate the physical and virtual worlds in a healthy way is one of the compelling things about geocaching. The game creates opportunities for participants to extend their capabilities without undermining the fact that humans are creatures in a physical world. We externalize our memories and cultural concerns into many kinds of distal storage devices, not just into computers. Games are a particularly significant technology for storing such material. In Understanding Media, Marshall McLuhan pointed out that "games are popular art, collective, social reactions to the main drive or action of any culture." They are sites where we can express social or cultural tensions and can engage those tensions safely. In fact, their ability to support such explorations makes them psychologically useful. "Play," McLuhan continued, "goes with an awareness of huge disproportion between the ostensible situation and the real stakes… the game, like any art form, is a mere tangible model of another situation that is less accessible. Geocaching many contemporary cultural tensions are in play. One of the main issues is how players find a balance between physical and virtual existences, living both in the woods and on the Web, maintaining a body-based connection to the natural world while also participating in the informational and social world the Internet and other virtual technologies permit. (Kelley 2006)

Geocaching offers a way of giving tourists an interesting and healthy activity to do together. Geocaching offers a model for citizens in a global world to develop a form of coherent community that takes into account an appreciation of land without the risks associated with a regionalist or nationalist link to the place.

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Prerequisites of tourist cooperation in the Black Sea area

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Abstract

It is a matter of common knowledge that international tourism is a modern economic instrument for a country's growth, associated both with benefits but also with problems that call for thorough planning and competent management. Certain forms of regulated control in the special areas of tourist expansion in the field of operating standards and practice are urgently required by the countries in the Black Sea Area.

The analysis of the tourist growth in the Black Sea Area is necessary consequent upon the rising share held by the tourist industry in the world economy and it tries to spotlight the situation existing in the countries in the area, as well as the ways by which a common strategy for economic cooperation in the Black Sea Area could increase tourist promotion in the area as well as in the whole region.

The Black Sea Area countries boast a remarkable cultural and ethnic diversity, a rich historical and architectural heritage as well as various natural resources. Some of them dispose of potentialities to become very popular tourist destinations. Most countries in the area were closed to international tourism during the Cold War decades, which prevented them from being overexploited touristic and consequently at present they can become very attractive and popular destinations, ensuring the development and implementation of appropriate policies and strategies to capitalize on their potentialities.

Several Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSECO) countries, such as Turkey and Greece, have met with each and every success in tourism and have already made a name for themselves in the international market, which means that they have already gained the experience necessary for drawing up *a strategy to develop tourism in the Black Sea Area.*

The Central and Eastern European countries have been encouraged to adapt their national tourism legislation to the international regulations, to coordinate their policies to promote tourism, to enlarge the tourism data base, to support the setting up of public-private partnerships, while striving to keep a balance between public and private involvement. Other surveys emphasized the necessity to extend the pooling of experience, to adapt medical facilities and services for older tourists and to make wide use of cashless payment instruments and payment by credit cards.

The present state of tourism in the Bseco member countries

Tourism is a key source of income for the Black Sea countries so rich in natural and cultural resources. The key tourist attraction in the area is the Black Sea itself.
Besides the sea water, a major tourist attraction, the Black Sea Coast offers a lot of *tourist resources*, such as parks and nature reserves (e.g. The Danube Delta in Romania and Ukraine; The High Plateaus on Turkey's Coast), hunting reserves, natural beaches, fresh and salt water lakes, original and even unique flora and fauna (in the Danube Delta), a

climate favorable to sun and sea cures and resting. Highly attractive is the association between the seashore and the neighboring mountain areas, displaying a gorgeous landscape as in Bulgaria and Turkey.

A particular element of the tourist area potentiality is offered by the natural cure factors including mud, sea water, mineral springs and, last but not least, the climate.
The Black Sea Area also boasts a major *cultural potentiality*, offering a lot of tokens of past and present civilizations - historical or archeological sites, museums, historical or religious monuments, film and musical festivals, economic units of tourist interests (e.g. ports), etc.

In the ex-socialists countries in the Black Sea Area the hotel offer was widely developed in the 80's. The tourist' arrivals and overnight stays declined after 1990 (consequent upon the economic and political changes in these countries), which made the offer come to a stand still or even decline.

The accommodation offered by the Black Sea countries displays the following features:
- most accommodation units offer a low comfort level requiring wide-scale restoration and updating;
- a sizeable part of the offer operates only on a seasonal basis;
- particularly in the ex-socialist countries, a high percentage of the accommodation capacity is still state-owned or run by unions, ministers or organizations;

The low quality standards are accompanied by the lack of an official system to classify facilities, excepting Romania, Turkey and Bulgaria: but even in these countries, the classification criteria do not fully comply with the international standards.

The tourist infrastructure is well developed in the big resorts along Russia's coastline, but it needs modernizing on a large scale.

In Bulgaria, the network of tourists' restauration units display a higher quality level than the other facilities; this feature is also true for the facilities specific to business tourism. Moreover, there is a large offer of entertainment activities, especially water sports and other activities, such as mini golf, tennis, volleyball, football, delta gliding, horse riding, children's sports and entertainment.

In Georgia, the tourist seaside infrastructure is poorly developed both quantitatively and qualitatively. It needs heavy investments to meet tourism requirements. Romania suggests that the BSECO surveys should take into account a set of *measures to improve the present state of tourism*, such as:
- Setting up joint training programs for employees engaged in tourist activities in the participating countries with the assistance given by Greece and Turkey, countries of rich experience and long standing tradition in tourism;
- Relaunching the Black Sea cruises under the form of joint tourist packages offered by a few countries in the Black Sea Area; the tours targeting special segments of the tourist market are expected to intensively develop in the future;
- Removing customs formalities that restrict tourist traffic;
- Drawing up joint projects for tourist development by the BSECO authorities to be financed by the international financing organizations and institutions, a particular attention being paid to the infrastructure modernizing projects (roads, airports, sewerage systems, restoration of cultural monuments and museums) that are the first and foremost prerequisites of the tourist industry expansion;

- Harmonizing the national legal background of the norms and standards to be applied in the assessment of tourist facilities in order to establish common quality standards;
- Applying measures to improve local control in tourism, the involvement of local communities in tourist planning;
- Setting a common strategy to promote the Black Sea Area as a tourist destination by advertising and informing the public (video materials, internet, brochures) and by international tour operators; such a strategy complying with the latest trends in tourism should be oriented to a certain target and focus on the urgent demands in the years to come;
- Supporting the implementation of rural and ecological projects to turn to best use the natural tourist potentiality of rural areas, by incentives, training programmes and marketing strategies targeting various categories of potential tourists;
- Encouraging an increased involvement of the private sector in the tourism industry in the Black Sea countries by public-private partnerships;
- Adopting tourist strategies favorable to the environment, which should combine tourist expansion and a cautious use of non-regenerating resources; the promotion of tourist forms to ensure environmental protection (as in the case of the Danube Delta in Romania); these strategies should be based on stimulative measures to protect the environment and the heritage in the tourist destinations;
- Adopting the legal framework and creating data network to protect the tourists against attacks, robbery, swindle, in order to ensure the security and stability of the area.

In *Turkey,* the complementary tourist offer on the Black Sea Coast is also of low quality being designed mainly for domestic tourism. Unfortunately the wide-scope growth of international tourism in the last decade of the 20th century did not entail an appropriate quality improvement of the facilities except for a few resorts.

Greece has taken an active part in the actions carried out by the BSECO tourism work group. The Hellenic Tourist Organization has expressed its willingness to make available its expertise and technologies to the BSECO member countries that want to restore their tourist industry. Greece supports the efforts to carry out activities designed to promote the Black Sea Area to attract visitors from other countries.

Ukraine has proposed a number of joint measures to promote tourism cooperation in the Black Sea Area, such as:
- Working out a common concept and a long-term tourist development programme, as well as participating in joint tourist projects;
- Developing a joint tourist product, starting from international tours, particularly along the Black Sea Coast and in the Danube Delta; to this effect they are going to set up a transnational tourist system, based on "the Ukrainian national chain of Slavutitch tourist itineraries";
- Staging tourism fairs by the BSECO countries to promote a joint tourist product;
- Coordinating the activities of travel agencies to increase the tourist flows, to raise the quality of services and develop contacts between the commercial structures in various fields;
- Simplifying tourist traffic in the Black Sea Area, border formalities included;
- Improving criteria for classifying tourist facilities and services and setting up a data base for tourism in the Black Sea Area;
- Modernizing tourist infrastructure, encouraging public-private partnership.

Generally the quality level of the facilities in *the Black Sea Area* is low and does not meet West European tourists' requirements. The first step to be taken is to *standardize the criteria of classifying facilities to comply with international standards*, in addition to

investments and to develop and diversify the technical and material basis, emphasis being laid on entertainment (swimming pools, sports grounds, golf links, mini-golf, water sports, mountain hiking, delta gliding, rafting, etc.). The second step is concerned with *information dissemination and advertising at local and international level.*

The arrivals of international tourists in the countries of the Black Sea Area have declined because of the difficulties of adjusting tourism to the new requirements of market economy especially in the ex-communist countries, to say nothing of the declining competitiveness, insufficient renewal and modernizing of the existing structures and, last but not least, the worsening of the price-quality ratio.

The examination in the light of the information available shows that the tourism growth in the Black Sea Area relied on East-European countries and ex Soviet Union countries. The changes after 1990 have entailed a decrease in the tourist activity in the Black Sea Area, the decline in the number of international tourists being dramatic, mainly for the following reasons: relaxation of the visa procedures and of the travel preparation in the Eastern Bloc countries and the new policy of openness practiced by these; the rising number of tourists from Bulgaria, Georgia, Romania, Russia and Ukraine to travel outside the eastern area in the last years; the hyperinflationary trends (e.g. Russia and Ukraine) and hence the dramatic downturn in the possibilities to practice tourism (a dramatic fall in tourism demand).

The World Tourism Organization has carried out a long-term study for 1995-2020 period whose conclusions show that while Western and Southern Europe are expected to witness a 1.8-2% annual increase in tourist arrivals, in Central and Eastern Europe the increase will be 4.9%. This means that the number of arrivals in the area will rise to 245 million by 2020.

Bulgaria seems to control the crisis in tourism; starting with 1993-1994 the Bulgarian tourism has revived. The tourists from Eastern Germany have come back to the Bulgarian market and so have the Bulgarian tourists who have revaluated the national tourist offer. The 2005 financial results from tourist activities on the Black Sea Shore show an increase in arrivals, overnight stays and total revenue.

Romania seems to witness a revival of international demand but the domestic market is still sluggish. The main concern at present as regards the Romanian seashore is to regain the domestic market under the circumstances that the tourism assets have been privatised.

Georgia, Russia and Ukraine witness a deep crisis in tourism, shown by falls in the number of tourists from the ex Eastern Bloc as well as from the domestic markets.

The Turkish area of the Black Sea Coast has also recorded falls in the tourist demand from tourists in the ex-Eastern Bloc countries.

Between two thirds and three quarters of the overnight stays on the Black Sea Coast are recorded in the third quarter of the year (the months of July-September). It is necessary to extend the length of the tourist season and to find forms to practice tourism off-season all along the Black Sea Coast. The measures should be accompanied by steady increases and upgrading of tourist traffic throughout the year.

The analysis of the tourist activity in the Black Sea Area has revealed a series of *problems whose solving will spur the expansion of tourism in the area*:
- Improving transportation connections;
- Simplifying border formalities;
- Managerial training of tourist operators;
- Improving the marketing audit;
- Integrated development of the tourist product;
- Furthering cooperation for environmental protection;
- A more sustainable support by local authorities;
- Drawing investment and setting up public-private partnership;
- Improvement of legislation and adaptation of rules and regulations to facilitate tourism expansion.

On the other hand, the BSTCO member countries suffered because of the insufficiency of European transportation networks and the problems in the information system that affected the tourist arrivals and the tourism growth in general.

A positive element is the setting up of *the Black Sea Tourism Cooperation Organization* (BSTCO) by the national associations of travel agencies and similar organizations in Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Greece, Romania and Turkey.

The BSTCO has mapped out a number of priorities for the development of tourism in the Black Sea Area: attractive investment for joint tourism projects; development of training programs for tourism personnel; setting up of a joint data base for the BSTCO member countries and the drawing up of a joint strategy to promote tourism for the further development of the Black Sea Area.

Tourism is first and foremost *an economic activity* and several regions in the Black Sea Area are dependent on the income from the tourist sector. It plays an important part in job creation, generation of income for the population and governments, stimulating the less developed areas. For these reasons, in many instances the expansion of tourist infrastructures has become incompatible with a sustainable gradual development.

Last but not least, tourism is a domain that calls for *heavy investment of capital*, and sustainable tourism increases the amounts to be allocated.

The Black Sea countries should take responsibility to overcome these obstacles. Tourism in the Black Sea Area offers a high potentiality for the economic growth and preservation of the natural environment. The countries in the area can offer a wide range of tourist products, including sun and sea, health care and mineral waters, skiing, golf playing and other sports, activities such as fishing, mountaineering and caving, bird watching, cultural events, cooking and folk shows. These products are in compliance with the demographic trends in the main tourist generating countries, in which the older people travel for relaxation and health care. Although great and long efforts are needed, the countries in the Black Sea Area can make use of their tourist potentiality to create activities to be carried on all the year round, while preserving the environment and its biodiversity.

The conditions necessary for a joint sustainable growth in the black sea area

Each country in the Black Sea Area should particularize its own approach in compliance with the stage in its tourism growth. Nevertheless in a low-budget regional project, it is necessary to create equal opportunities for each and every country in keeping with the

growth stage reached and the potentialities they have. For a sustainable growth are needed several conditions:
- Assistance in training human resources in tourism;
- Improvement of the exchange of information and the management of destinations, of the regional marketing and promotion of activities in the years to come;
- Adjustment of new information and technologies to each country's specific features.

Raising the educational and training level of the professionals in tourism in the Black Sea Area is a key strategic issue for the tourism expansion in the area.

The Black Sea Tourism Education Network (BSTEN) connects the professors of the tourism universities and faculties in the Black Sea Area to enable them to debate and solve problems regarding the ways in which tourism can reach a high development level. Through the BSTEN the educational institutions can exchange ideas and techniques, can improve the programs of technology transfer and can exchange students and professors.

The Black Sea Tourism Information Network (BSTIN) was set up in each country to extend the IT use, particularly in management, marketing and promotion. The best way to encourage the Black Sea countries to focus on the intricate questions raised by the sustainable development of tourism is to offer them real opportunities of investing in tourism.

Examining the proposals for tourism growth in the Black Sea countries, the following *joint measures* are imperative in order to promote cooperation in the Black Sea Area:
- Drawing up of joint tourist development projects by the BSTCO authorities, financed by international financial institutions, to give great care to modernizing infrastructure (roads, airports, sewerage systems, restoration of cultural monument, museums);
- Simplifying tourist traffic, border formalities included;
- Integrated development of tourist products, devising a joint tourist product, starting with international tours, especially on the Black Sea Coast and in the Danube Delta; staging a tourism fair for BSTCO countries to promote this tourist product; relaunching the Black Sea cruises under the form of joint tourist packages offered by a few countries in the Black Sea Area;
- Drawing up a joint strategy to promote the Black Sea Area as a tourist destination, by advertising and public information (video materials, internet, brochures) as well as by international tour operators;
- Coordination of travel agencies activities to increase tourist flows and development of contacts between commercial structures in various fields;
- Approximation of the national legal framework, of the norms and standards to be applied in assessing tourist facilities, to set common quality standards; setting up a data base for tourism in the Black Sea Area;
- Drawing up of joint training programs for the employees involved in tourist activities in the participating countries, with the assistance of Greece and Turkey, countries boasting a rich experience and long tradition in tourism;
- Application of measures to improve local control in the tourist sector and the involvement of local communities in tourist planning;
- Drawing of foreign investments and encouraging public-private partnership;
- Furtherance of cooperation in environmental protection and adoption of tourist strategies to combine tourist growth with a cautious use of non-regenerating resources; defining the standards to maintain the balance of eco-tourism development;

- Supporting the implementation of rural and ecological tourist projects to use the natural tourist potentiality of rural areas by stimulating measures, training programs and marketing strategies for various categories of potential tourists.

The Black Sea Area has a great potential to become one of the main tourist destinations in the 21st century. It is not only because of the uniqueness and unmatched beauty of the Black Sea but also because of the geographic diversity of the member countries in an area stretching from the Mediterranean to the Artic and from the Adriatic Sea to the Pacific Ocean.

The potentiality is tremendous contributing to the regional and international cooperation, to economic growth. Nevertheless, the rising expectation of tourist all over the world make imperative the adoption of concrete policies and programs to make the Black Sea Area an attractive alternative to the current major destinations.

Tourism is identified with a development strategy in most member countries of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation Organization and should be granted a special statute of industry. The Black Sea countries have enough potentiality to benefit from the trend, on condition that the tourism polices be consistently applied. There is an insufficient assessment of the wealth and diversity of attractions in the Black Sea Area, which could be the foundation of a *new and original tourist product* and of new and original destinations.

The most obvious benefit for tourism is *the creation of new jobs* in the Black Sea Area. It is a major task of the authorities involved in tourism to develop and improve the methods to measure the multiplying effect on unemployment and to identify the conditions to be successful in the field.

The key to tourism growth and promotion is *the public-private partnership*. The starting of the Black Sea Tourism Cooperation by the associations of the travel agencies in the Black Sea countries increases the involvement of the private sector in tourism, which can create new jobs by the decision to invest and develop tourism related activities. In their turn, public authorities play an essential part in creating a legal, administrative and financial framework that will determine business people to invest and expand their business. The exploitation of key production factors – natural and cultural factors and the infrastructure – falls upon the private sector and is a vital asset in terms of attractiveness of tourist destinations and competitiveness of tourist business. Certification and licensing procedures should be treated in a similar way.

The BSECO member countries need to be supported by international organizations and financial companies to run projects conducive to the expansion of the tourist industry. One of the priorities is to improve the infrastructure in general, special care being given to transportation connections and communications.

The tourism development in the area could *bridge the regional gaps* among the Black Sea countries. Moreover, the development of agro-ecological tourism could be highly beneficial for the economic situation of rural communities. Whereas the World Trade Organization is negotiating to liberalize the whole range of services, it is essential that the interests of the BSECO countries be identified and supported.

To facilitate tourist mobility and investment inside the Black Sea Area it is necessary to continue the conclusion of bilateral and multilateral agreements, taking into account the international commitments assumed by the member countries. This calls for information

about the existing rules, particularly about possible incentives given for foreign investments in tourism. The BSECO statistical and economic information centre could compile all the existing data, making them available to the member countries.

It is necessary to implement new training programs for the tourism personnel, which can include educational exchanges for the Black Sea Area, whose purpose is to train the personnel in tourism and by trades. These programs can be started by public authorities and travel agencies in the Black Sea Area.

The studies conducted in the area have revealed the need for improving marketing research. The development of a *joint tourist product of the Black Sea Area* is highly important for the development of a strategy to promote the image of the countries in the area. The Black Sea Area can offer joint tours and can organize joint promotional campaigns mainly by the participation in the international tourism fairs.

On the whole, the joint efforts made by the BSECO member countries should aim *to maximize the economic and social impact*, by creating new jobs and developing foreign cooperation and *to minimize the negative impact on the environment*.

For the Black Sea countries, it is necessary *to set a new policy in tourism based on* the development of new markets and new products liable to enhance the economic effects of tourism. This policy requires high financial means and drawing of credits by projects similar to the EU's "Mediterranean Integrated Programs" which allow the hotelkeepers to benefit from EU financial support to renovate and modernize the accommodation units.

Under these circumstances the development of a real tourism connection for the Black Sea tourist countries can be conceived as a priority which can no longer be limited to the strictly national framework but it has to involve a group of outbound and inbound tourism countries to become a key driving force of tourist cooperation.

Future of tourism in the black sea cooperation countries

The future of tourism in the BSECO member countries will depend on *the policy of diversifying tourist products*. It is beyond any doubt that seaside tourism takes pride of place as regards tourist frequency and we feel compelled to acknowledge that the maximum saturation thresholds have been exceeded in many areas and any further growth in the number of tourists should focus on the priority development of other tourist areas. That is why, an active policy to create not only new tourist products but also new commercial routes has become a must. At present it is necessary to create new places of tourist interest in the less visited places of the Black Sea Area. However this diversification of tourist products does not generally comply with the development of a traditional product of "green tourism" that usually exists. On the contrary, sophisticated products should be proposed for the affluent customers, such as: fitness and health care; access to water complexes; environmental protection and revaluation.

The main objective of the member states is *to promote the BSECO Area as a destination on the world tourist market, to stimulate and improve the image of the region as a unique highly attractive destination* by organizing meetings to set the priorities of integrated destinations.
The development of tourism in the area requires the promotion and protection of natural, cultural and historical assets, improvement in the quality of tourist facilities, as well as the protection and support of sustainable development. The increasing investments in tourism

in the national and regional markets are highly important and it is necessary to improve the legal background and fiscal framework to draw private and public investments in compliance with the national legislation and without impairing with international commitments.

To develop tourism the following actions are necessary: to support small and medium-sized tourism businesses that have to cope with administrative barriers and the building up of an attractive business environment capable of sustainability; acknowledging the fact that the access to credits is one of the most important problems facing small and medium-sized businesses in tourism; seeking financial assistance from foreign sources and especially from the Black Sea Bank for Trade and Development; asserting the commitment to a close bilateral and multilateral cooperation in tourism; pooling experience with respect to the mechanisms, experiences and successful projects in tourism; achieving a sustainable development of all forms of tourism in the Black Sea Area by giving special care to the natural environment and to the preservation of biodiversity, culture, traditions and life style; drawing up national, regional and local policies and strategies consistent with the goals of sustainable development; ensuring the diversity of the tourist products in a sustainable way to contribute to increase the local population's income and to the preservation of the environment for the future generations; development and promotion of training programs to increase the quality and efficiency in tourism; the commitment to a closer cooperation to promote strategies and programmes by the national managers who act in the field of tourism both on the regional and national markets.

The economic stake of the institutional tourism makes the public power intervene more often on the economic mechanism of the tourist market to benefit from the direct and indirect effects of foreign tourists arrivals. Public assistance in financing tourist investments is highly important to allow tourism to play the role of engine of the economy. The assistance the public power can grant to the tourist activities takes various forms ranging from the active promotion of the country's image to the non-taxation of tourist operations.

Under these circumstances, the role to be played by the governments of the BSECO member countries consists in the implementation of the economic policies that have a direct and indirect bearing on the costs of tourist services such as the wages and salary policy, the price policy and the credit policy.

It is essential that tourism be accepted as a priority without endangering its sustainability, otherwise the tourist programs based on sustainable development will not be successfully implemented.

In the present context of sustainable development, tourism takes its natural place, being focused on meeting the needs of tourists and of the tourist industry closely connected with environmental protection and with the creation of opportunities for the future.

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The ebbs and flows of tourism: A case study of Leeds

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Introduction

This paper outlines and evaluates the nature of Leeds City Council's engagement in tourism service provision and policy making since it first became involved in 1977. It identifies the historical development of tourism policy, drawing from a mix of primary and secondary research, including Council documents, committee minutes, local press reports, interviews in 2004 and 2005 and annual research visits between 1996 and 2005. It considers tourism policy in terms of the initiatives and physical developments that have occurred, identifies five phases and discusses the key characteristics of each phase. It explores the nature of the changes in the Council's commitment and approach to tourism policy, outlining the fluidity of the factors underpinning change and identifying *waves* of policy activity. Each wave is defined by a phase and is characterised by *ebbing* (flow back or receding) and *flowing* (moving or proceeding).

Description of place and context

Leeds was identified by Buckley & Witt (1989) as a city in a 'difficult area' to develop tourism. As traditional industries declined the Council sought to diversify the City's employment base through initiatives and projects, which include the development and promotion of its image as a tourism destination. Leeds is the regional capital of Yorkshire and Humber and is the second largest Metropolitan District in England. It has a population of 717,000 and is the region's largest employment centre. It claims to have the most diverse economy of any major city in the U.K. and over the last 20 years has attracted a number of large retail, office, leisure and cultural development schemes to regenerate the waterfront and the City centre (LCC, 2003).

In the June 2004 local election, the Labour Party failed to gain a majority, ending a twenty-four year period of leadership. A coalition was formed between the Conservatives, Liberal Democrats and the Green Party who, at the time of writing (August 2007), lead the Council and make decisions about policy development and service delivery in the City. The Council's plans and strategic *Vision for Leeds* remain unchanged but the new leadership committed to reduce public expenditure by 2 ½ % per year for 3 years (Tebbut, 2005).

The Council has a long history of partnership working with the private sector. The most enduring partnership has been through the Leeds Initiative, which was established in 1990, and in 2002 became the City's Local Strategic Partnership in accordance with policy from national government (LI, 2003b). It is tasked with developing a strategic approach to guide the City's long term economic, social and environmental development and brings together the public and private sector to develop the Vision for Leeds 1999-2009 and 2004-2020 and associated Strategies for the City (LI: 1999, 2003a).

Organisation and management of tourism

The Council has engaged in tourism service delivery since the 1970s and more recently in tourism policy making. This area of service is not one of its statutory responsibilities unlike other services such as housing, land use planning, transport, and social services. Tourism services are provided at the discretion of the Council and the scope and nature of those services are not regulated in the same way as statutory services.

Figure 1: Organisations with an interest in tourism in Leeds (adapted from Tourism Strategy LI, 2002b:8)
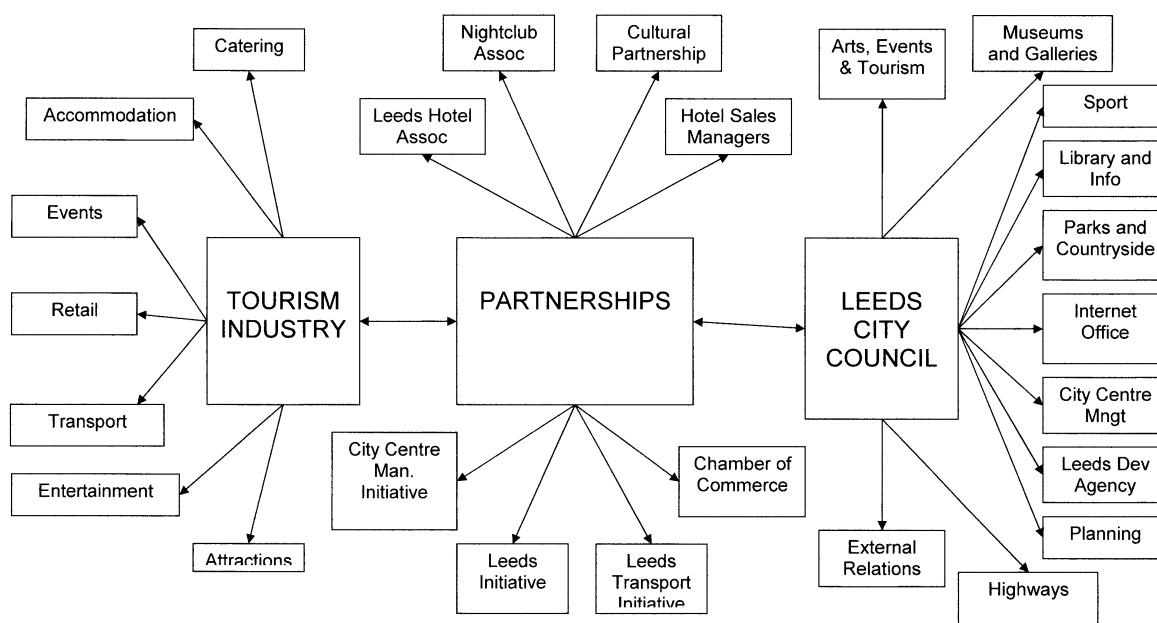

Figure 1 shows the organisations involved in the delivery of tourism policies and services in Leeds. The three main groupings at the local level are the industry, partnerships and the Council. These 'tourism' groupings are not exclusively concerned with the delivery and development of tourism services and policy and span many areas of policy and service delivery. For example planning has a remit that relates to all development, not just tourism development. Figure 1 was produced in 2002 and presents a 'snapshot' of the number and variety of people with an involvement in tourism in Leeds in 2002. Interviews with policy makers in 2004 and 2005 indicate the configurations and titles of many of the groupings have changed reflecting continuing change in the wider policy environment. These organisational groupings will continue to change, as will the nature of their relationships.

Tourism in Leeds

Research into tourism in Leeds has been sporadic and the quality of data available on tourism is variable. The Council has "a number of disparate customer databases of varying quality and depth….by a variety of organisations, including the larger hotels and visitor attractions" (LI, 2002b: 34). As a result of this the value of Tourism has variously been estimated at £735 million in 2000 (Yorkshire Tourist Board research cited in LCC,2003;

LI,2003b and Marketing Leeds 2007) and more conservatively at £483 million in 2002 (Cambridge Report for Leeds cited in LCC, 2007). The statistics on staying visitors are similar from these two sources, 1.43 million in 2000 and 1.34 million in 2002. However the estimates of day visitors vary widely, 18.4 million in 2000 and 10 million in 2002, reflecting the difficulties in estimating the "tourism" element of shopping and other city visits. However, despite the difficulties in measuring tourism, it is clear from all sources that levels of tourism have increased dramatically since the early 1990's and has been supported by the development of hotels, attractions and leisure facilities.

Markets
The Leeds Initiative claim business visits accounted for around 41% of all tourism spend in Leeds in 1999 and this sector was perceived to be the fastest growing market. The business market accounts for the relatively high occupancy rates in hotels between Monday and Thursday and is supported by a conference office, 'Conference Leeds', which is run by the Council (LI, 2002b).

Leisure visitors are predominantly from within the region and the numbers visiting the City's main attractions including the Royal Armouries, the Art Gallery and the Henry Moore Institute remained relatively constant between 1996 and 2005. A decline in volume between 1997 and 1999 of 8% was attributed to the closure of two of the City centre attractions, the City Museum and Tetley Brewery Wharf (LI, 2002b). Since then there has been another decline in numbers between 2001 and 2003 but the most recent figures shows the numbers visiting these attractions stabilising in 2004 and 2005 (LI, 2004 and LI, 2006a).

In 1998 Leeds Leisure Services worked with hotel managers and nightclub operators to develop 'Clubbing Breaks'. These breaks received national media coverage and reinforced the image of Leeds as a lively city with an exciting nightlife, and as a place for young people (LI, 2002b). Their success led to the development of new short breaks themed around shopping and sporting events and subsequently in 2003 themed around cultural events, family and romantic breaks. The decision to diversify into so many markets appears to have diluted the message about Leeds as a short break destination and in 2003 the demand for shopping and clubbing breaks fell by 10% and 9% respectively (LI, 2004).

The tourism product
The Tourism Strategy (LI, 2002b) identifies the increased investment in the City highlighting major projects such as the £42.5 million Royal Armouries Museum, the £12 million Millennium Square project and the £11.5 million Malmaison Hotel, which have all contributed to the image and product of the City. More recently major cultural projects have included refurbishment of the Grand Theatre, the development of the Carriageworks Theatre and the creation of a new City Museum in the former Leeds Institute building (LI2006).

The Tourism Strategy identifies six major types of attractions in Leeds including, shopping and eating, nightlife, sightseeing, arts and culture, major events and sport. Leeds has an attractive and distinctive retail environment characterised by extensive pedestrianisation, Victorian covered arcades and markets and shopping is identified as the City's principal visitor attraction (LI, 2004). Over the past ten years it has developed a café, bar and club culture which has been used to promote the City to the youth market.

The Council owns and manages attractions including the City Art Gallery, Abbey House Museum, Lotherton Hall and Estate, Temple Newsam, Tropical World in Roundhay Park, Kirkstall Abbey, Leeds Industrial Museum (Armley Mills) and Thwaite Mills. These attractions are predominantly promoted to residents and entrance is either free or at a nominal fee. It publicises these attractions through its website and a booklet which is distributed via libraries, the TIC (called Gateway Yorkshire) and Council offices. Other attractions in Leeds include the Royal Armouries, the Henry Moore Institute and Thackray Medical Museum. These are publicised through websites, publications available at Gateway Yorkshire and promotional leaflets. A number of events are run within the City including the Leeds International Film Festival, the Carling Festival, Opera in the Park and the Leeds International Concert Season. Cricket, football and rugby events occur throughout the year. The West Yorkshire Playhouse, Opera North and the Northern Ballet are based in Leeds and attract a predominantly regional audience (LI, 2002b).

The Tourism Strategy (2002) indicates that roughly 80% of the accommodation stock in Leeds is provided within hotels or motels, the remaining 20% being provided in B&B, guesthouses and inns (LI, 2002b). In the last 15 years Leeds has experienced considerable growth in its stock of city centre hotels. At the beginning of 1989 there were six hotels in central Leeds (Jones Lang Wootton, 1995) which increased by 2005 to 22 hotels with 3140 bedrooms (LI, 2006). Over the period, accommodation demand has been derived predominantly from the business tourism sector and occupancy patterns are characteristically higher during the week. Room yield increased on a yearly basis from 1996 to 2001 and during these years mean occupancy exceeded 78% (LI, 2004). Between 2001 and 2004 the hotel market has experienced decline in terms of yield and occupancy rates and in 2004 the average occupancy rate was 71.5%. In 2005 occupancy rates rose slightly but room rates decreased which meant that room yield remained constant (LI, 2006). This is attributed to "substantial increases in hotel supply, with seven new hotels opening between 2002 and 2004" (LI, 2004:45). This trend is likely to continue with two new hotels recently developed at Clarence Dock and planning permission having been granted for a further 5 hotels with the potential to create a further 1615 bedrooms in the City centre (LI, 2004). The 'lacklustre' performance of the hotel sector in Leeds in comparison to other cities has also been attributed to the City being less active in attracting and marketing events than other northern cities such as Manchester and Liverpool (LI, 2006).

History of involvement in tourism

The next section considers tourism activity in Leeds since 1977 and has been divided into five distinct phases of activity (Stevenson, 2005 &2006). In each phase the development of tourism policy making and service provision are evaluated by considering the characteristics of the Council's involvement in tourism, the organisation of tourism activities, priorities, formal plans, developments and initiatives.

Phase 1: Recognising the potential of Leeds as a destination 1977-1982

The Council's first real involvement in tourism was in 1977 with the opening of a Tourist Bureau and the creation of the post of Director of Industrial and Commercial Development, Tourism and Promotions. (Yorkshire Evening Post (YEP) 14/5/1977 and Yorkshire Post (YP) 29/7/1977). The new Director quickly acted to highlight the potential of Leeds as a Tourist Centre and develop the Leeds Tourist Association (LTA), a partnership of the Council with the Chamber of Commerce and Industry (Taylor, 1978).

No formal plans were produced at this stage but the LTA took the role of promoting Leeds as a tourist and conference centre and advising the Council on policies to attract tourists. It produced promotional brochures for the City and provided advice to the Council on the provision of tourism information services. The LTA raised the profile of tourism in Leeds and by the end of 1978 it was working with the Leeds Hotel Managers Association to prepare packages aimed at overseas tourists (Taylor:1978). In 1979 it started to consider the role of business tourism. It undertook a survey and announced that tourism brought £35million *'profit'* into the City each year (YP29/3/79 and YEP 5/9/79). The LTA was dissolved in 1982, as it had been unable to attract a sufficient number of members and financial resources to operate. The failure to attract and maintain support from the private sector was attributed to businesses identifying no significant benefit from membership (YP 29/9/82:18).

This first phase was characterised by partnership working, a focus on promoting Leeds and developing new products, and research into the contribution of tourism to the Leeds economy. The emphasis was on relatively short-term promotional activities and developing new products and there was no overriding tourism marketing or development plan to guide activities. Private sector interests were focussed on short-term impacts and support waned when immediate benefits did not materialise.

Phase 2: Tourism service delivery by LCC 1983-1987

When the LTA was dissolved the Council set up a working party to consider how to develop tourism in the future and decided that it would deliver tourism information services itself. In 1983 a new post 'Chief Music, Tourism and Promotions Officer' was created and awarded to an existing member of staff who had headed the music programme (YP 12/11/82:22).

There are no formal tourism plans covering this period. The officer came into the post with a strong marketing focus, intending to market Leeds as 'England's Northern Capital' and focussing on promoting short breaks aimed at a younger market (YP 12/1/1983:8). He highlighted the need for an immediate increase in spending on tourism promotion but advised that the returns on this investment would probably not be immediate. In 1987 the officer resigned from his post, publicly criticising the Council for not having "committed itself to the importance of tourism" and their "provincial arrogance that all is well and we don't have to attract them (*tourists*)." He reported "the frustration of doing a vital job on a shoestring", highlighting understaffing and a marketing budget of only £20,000 as major barriers to raising the profile of Leeds as a tourist centre (YEP 11/3/87:4).

In the second phase the Council delivered tourism services in-house, with a limited budget and a focus on marketing and promotional activities linked to music events marketing.

Phase 3: Tourism and regeneration 1987-1993

The third phase is marked by an emphasis on partnership and regeneration, with the creation of the Leeds Development Corporation (LDC) in 1987 and a partnership organisation, the Leeds Initiative, in 1990. The LDC was one of twelve Urban Development Corporations set up by National Government in the 1980s with a remit to secure regeneration in derelict and underused former industrial areas (DCLG, 2006). The Leeds Initiative was developed as a local response to the need for partnership working and on the basis of the joint projects and negotiations undertaken by the Council and the LDC.

The LDC was seen by many as an essential catalyst in the regeneration and transformation of the southern tip of the City centre, enabling the development of a strong commercial market. The LDC was not focussed on tourism led regeneration during its lifespan, and leisure uses formed only 7% of its land investment (Hertzberg, 1995). However it could be argued that the LDC created an environment which encouraged the development of partnership working and provided a basis for the creation of a *Tourism Development Action Programme* (TDAP), a development orientated partnership programme, conceived by national government and led by the English Tourism Board**.**

The TDAP was set up in 1990 for a fixed duration of 3 years and included representatives from the English Tourist Board, the Council, LDC, Yorkshire and Humberside Tourist Board and British Waterways. The partners worked together to develop and implement a plan aiming to develop tourism activity and expenditure through development, marketing and research on the land adjacent to the waterways. The plan had "two anchor tenants Armouries at one end and Granary Wharf and a footpath and events along the front to create private sector interest" in the other waterfront sites (David Andrews, 2005). During this phase the Council appointed the tourism manager from nearby Bradford, with experience in successfully developing and promoting tourism in a 'difficult area' (Buckley & Witt, 1985).

The TDAP first report in 1991 outlined its objectives to "strengthen and develop the quality and range of attractions and facilities", "create integrated interpretation for the visitor", "generate commercial interest in tourism on Leeds Waterfront" and "raise the tourism profile of Leeds Waterways through a well targeted marketing strategy and promotions programme" (BTA/ETB, 1991:14). In order to achieve its objectives it commissioned feasibility studies on sites with tourism potential, established a marketing strategy and developed projects to improve information about and access to the waterways. The final report in 1993, highlighted some success in developing a proactive partnership approach. Initially there had been some problems with funding, with only half of the projected £107,000 contribution from the private sector having materialised by the halfway stage in 1992. However the final year projects achieved targets and generated a further £150,000 in cash or kind through a pump priming allocation of £50,000 (BTA/ETB, 1993).

In 1993 the Council approved a report called Towards a Tourism Development Strategy which considered the development of local attractions, and trends in the local accommodation sector within the context of wider tourism trends and demonstrated how tourism would "produce dividends to the Leeds Economy" (LCC, 1993a:1). The report identified the rationale for a tourism development strategy, evaluated the local policy and organisational context of tourism and suggested mechanisms to develop and deliver the strategy. It was intended that this report would form the basis of a public consultation exercise after which a further report would be considered by the Council in July 1993 (LCC, 1993b). It is not clear what happened during the consultation, as there were no reports in the local press or minutes from the Council proceedings and the policy makers interviewed in 2004 and 2005 did not have a recollection of this report.

The draft tourism strategy was never considered by the Council and was therefore not adopted. Between February and July 1993, it redefined the scope of its involvement in tourism to focus on promotional and marketing activities. The tourism service was reorganised into a new promotions and tourism unit within Leisure Services (LCC, 1993c) and the development part of the service was delivered by a tourism development consultancy provided by the regional tourist board (LCC, 1993d).

Several tourism developments were completed during this phase including the hotel 42-The Calls in 1991, a craft market in Granary Wharf in 1989 and the West Yorkshire Playhouse in 1990. A number of larger projects were instigated, including a project to create a new TIC called Gateway Yorkshire at the railway station and projects to develop attractions such as Tetley Brewery Wharf (a museum dedicated to the history of the pub), The Royal Armouries (the National Museum of Arms and Armour) and Thackray Medical Museum (a museum of medical instruments and public health). During this phase a number of large hotel chains acquired and started to develop sites in Leeds.

The third phase was characterised by a focus on regeneration and the development of a specific tourism programme, with funding to develop and deliver tourism plans and initiatives. During this phase there was considerable confidence and enthusiasm for tourism development and activity as a means of enhancing the regeneration and redevelopment of Leeds' redundant industrial areas. This confidence was reinforced by the decision to locate the Royal Armouries in Leeds which was perceived to force "tourism towards the top of the City's agenda" (YP15/9/92:2).

Phase 4: Development and difficulties 1994-1998

The development of *Gateway Yorkshire*, a new TIC, reinforced the marketing and promotional role and remit of the Council's Tourism Service. Wider tourism development functions were carried out under the auspices of Economic Development, City Centre Management, Planning and Transport services in conjunction with the Leeds Initiative at a local level and the Yorkshire and Humberside Tourist Board at a regional level. The Leeds Initiative launched the City Centre Management Initiative (1998) to promote, market and manage the City Centre and to develop the waterfront and an all year entertainment programme (LI, 1999). This subsumed tourism marketing and development into the wider marketing and regeneration initiatives and narrowed the tourism service functions.

In the fourth phase there was no formal tourism development strategy and tourism was further subsumed into wider regeneration, planning, development and city centre management plans. This phase was characterised by considerable tourism development activity arising partly from the initiatives and activities in the previous phase and partly due to market conditions in the period. New hotels were developed and several major tourism projects were realised including Tetley Brewery Wharf, (1994-8), the Henry Moore Institute in the Headrow (1994), Gateway Yorkshire (1995) The Royal Armouries (1996) and Thackray Medical Museum (1997)

At the beginning of the phase there was optimism about the regeneration potential of tourism, and the development of new attractions and hotels. In 1996 Leeds won the "White Rose" award for the top tourism destination in Yorkshire (YEP,1996) and in 1998 was ranked as one of the top four visitor destinations in England (YEP,1998). However as the phase progressed several attractions experienced difficulties. Tetley Brewery Wharf failed to attract enough visitors and closed in 1998 and Granary Wharf had limited success as a craft market attraction. The Armouries did not meet projected visitor number targets and was refinanced twice in 1997 and 1998. By 1999 Royal Armouries International became insolvent with losses exceeding £10m and the Department for Culture Media and Sport stepped in to fund the running of the Museum (National Audit Office (NAO, 2001). The financial problems of the Armouries created high profile negative media coverage, which did little to enhance the image of Leeds. Also Royal Armouries International was not in a position to develop the rest of the Clarence Dock Site during this phase, which meant the attraction sat on its own surrounded by vacant sites.

Phase 5: 1999- 2006 – Adoption of a tourism strategy

Since 1999 Council policy has been led by the Vision for Leeds (1999-2009 and 2004-2020), a community strategy to guide the social, economic and environmental development of the local area. The process of creating the Vision has affected the Council's approach to tourism policy making and created a clear policy hierarchy, with a distinct formalised tourism strategy, in 2002. However tourism policies and objectives are still delivered through a wide range of policies and plans.

Some uncertainty about future strategic priorities and objectives has arisen on the basis of a change in the political leadership of the Council in June 2004. Councillor Minkin, an influential "champion" of tourism lost her role as Deputy Leader and Development Portfolio Holder (Tebbut, 2005). These uncertainties have been exacerbated by the resignation of the Tourism Manager in late 2004 and the decision not to replace her, adding this responsibility to the Inward Investment manager's role. Also there are continued uncertainties about the function and remit of 'Marketing Leeds' an organisation set up in 2005 to promote and Market the City.

Figure 2: The relationship between the tourism strategy and other local strategies
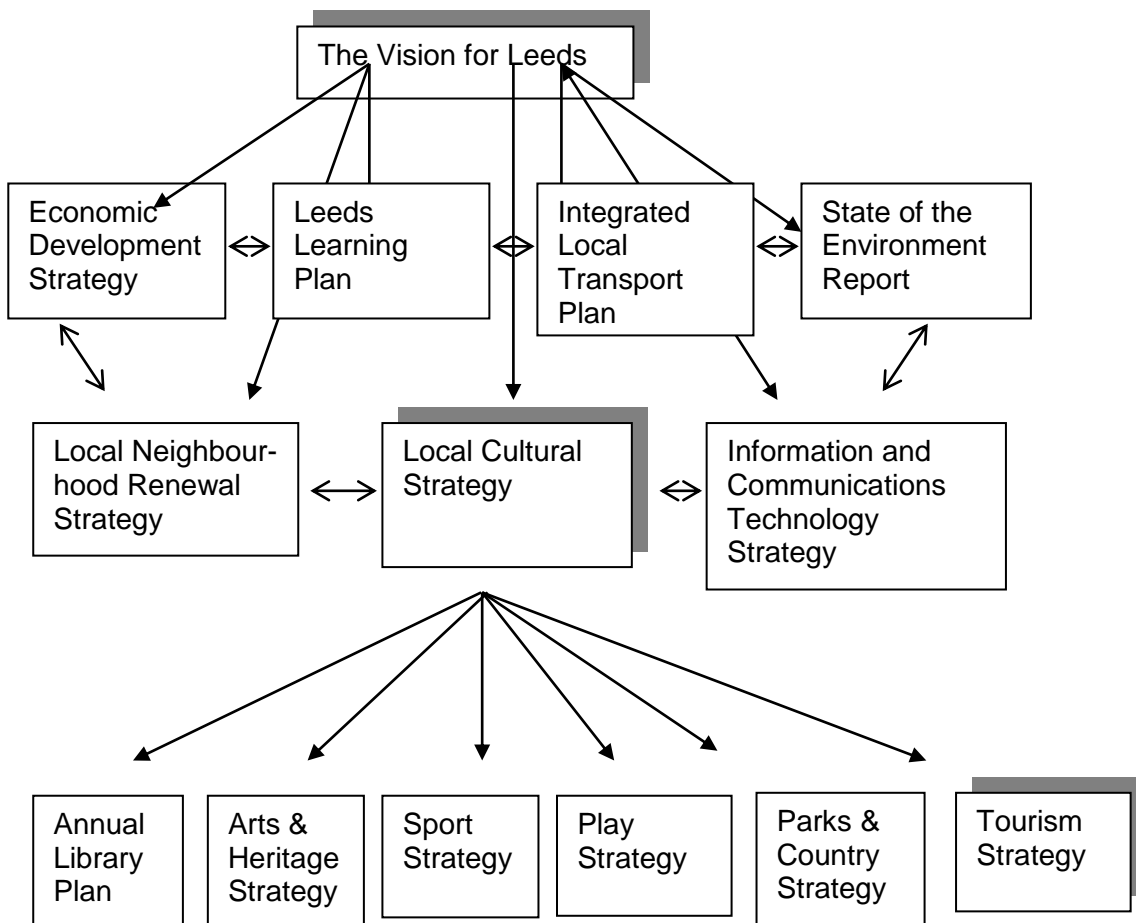
Source: Stevenson 2006: Adapted from diagrams in the Vision (LI, 1999 and 2003a) and the Cultural Strategy (LI, 2002a)

Daughter strategies

Grand - Daughter strategies
At the local level there are a number of plans and strategies that impact upon tourism that are developed under the auspices of a Vision document. Figure 2 shows the relationship between the Tourism Strategy (LI, 2002b) and other strategies in Leeds. At the top of the policy hierarchy is the Vision for Leeds, which sets out the strategic direction of the Council. At the second level lie seven 'daughter' strategies, which are linked together and are intended to deliver different aspects of the Vision. At the third level are the 'grand-daughter' strategies which include the Tourism Strategy which lies under the Local Cultural Strategy.

Figure 2 shows a simplified picture of the relationship between tourism policy and other policies. Scrutiny of the detailed plans indicates that there are a number of other Council plans and strategies which impact upon tourism, some of which are 'daughter' strategies such as the Leeds Economic Development Strategy and some of which have been developed outside the 'visioning' process such as the Leeds Unitary Development Plan. The relationships between these plans/strategies and the tourism strategy is complex. In theory the Tourism Forum reports to the Cultural Partnership on the implementation of the tourism strategy however the interviewees with policy makers in 2004 and 2005 indicate that this has not happened. In the absence of an effective formal mechanism for communication between the tiers it appears that tourism policy makers have negligible opportunities to discuss policy issues with the higher tier policy makers.

The Vision (LI, 2003a) has two strategic aims that have implications for its visitor economy, namely going "up a league" and developing its role as the "regional capital". It identifies a number of project areas, which are likely to impact on visitor numbers to Leeds including a project to improve the City's image and cultural life through developing a large scale international cultural facility, developing an arts quarter, restoring the Grand Theatre and creating a new City Museum. At this level the intent of strategic policy objectives in respect of visitors is unclear. The role of Leeds in marketing and promoting the City is clearly articulated but is broadly conceived with a focus on attracting business and investment. Although a number of projects and policies with tourism implications are identified in the Vision, specific tourism priorities are not identified and targets are not set for tourism activity.

At the second tier daughter strategy level, the Cultural Strategy (LI, 2002a) is focussed on the needs of residents and does not set specific tourism objectives. The Leeds Economic Development Strategy (LCC, 2000) includes some tourism policies under the "regional centre and cosmopolitan city" policy area. These are tied to broader objectives to raise the profile of Leeds as a business, cultural and shopping centre. At this level there is evidence that the City has some aspirations around its status as a destination, and its tourism industry. Whilst tourism is mentioned explicitly within these strategies, it should be noted they relate to a diverse range of activities within the City and include a broad range of objectives. Tourism forms only a very minor part of these strategies and is expressed at a low level i.e. it is not a headline policy area.

At the third tier grand-daughter strategy level the Tourism Strategy outlines a vision for Leeds to "become known nationally and internationally as a dynamic friendly and cosmopolitan European city" (LI, 2002b:17) within 5 years. This vision is supported by nine aims which relate to marketing and marketing intelligence, sustainable development and management, improving communication by developing ICT and partnership working,

quality enhancement and business support. This strategy outlines implementation arrangements that are complex and require extensive partnership activity, with different groupings of partners to deliver each project. Many of these projects are also outlined in other strategy documents and are delivered and led by other parts of the organisation such as Leeds Initiative and other parts of the Council. These projects are not identified as tourism projects when they appear in other documents i.e. the target to explore the feasibility of a major purpose built conference or exhibition centre is conceptualised in terms of broad economic development and City Region objectives. The dimensions and implementation of policy around the sustainable development objectives of the plan are unclear as there is no discussion about these aims and no targets are identified.

There are a number of regeneration projects which have implications for tourism in the City but these are identified and discussed in terms of the wider economy. Projects with tourism implications include the development of a museum, the Private Finance Initiative bid to improve the Art Gallery, a new arts centre and civic theatre, a new International Cultural Festival to mark the UK European Cultural Capital Year in 2008, the renovation of attractions including Temple Newsam, Roundhay Park and Kirkstall Abbey, the development of South Leeds Stadium as a sports venue and developments in the cultural quarter in Quarry Hill, including a dance centre and an International Hotel. The Vision (LI, 2003b) states a commitment to developing an "international" cultural facility such as a concert hall, arena, exhibition or conference facility and a feasibility study was completed in August 2005 recommending the development of an arena by the Council in collaboration with a private sector partner. The provision of the facilities outlined above will impact on the nature and scale of tourism in the City (LCC, 2003, LI, 2003b and LI, 2006b).

Tourism policy making in Leeds

The context
The development and delivery of tourism policies at local level is influenced by a wide range of initiatives and policies developed at the national and regional level. The national and regional policy framework is characterised by considerable change. At the regional level, the creation of Regional Development Agencies in 1998 results in the rapid development of policy. The major regional policies, such as the Regional Spatial Strategy and the Regional Economic Strategy, are articulated in several different documents as they emerge and change which leads to uncertainty and lack of clarity. Policy development at the regional level is made more complex because the boundaries of different regional initiatives have been drawn up differently and new initiatives are constantly emerging throughout the research process such as the City Region, the Northern Way, the RDA and the sub regions.

The characteristics
Between 1977 and 2006 the Council's support and engagement in tourism as a policy and service activity is inconsistent. This paper illustrates a continued lack of clarity about the role and remit of tourism services and the difficulties in separating tourism policy activities from other activities of the Council. Over the study period there is uncertainty about where tourism fits within local structures and services and this is illustrated by the extent that tourism activities move around within the Council organisation and between mainstream policy areas.

There are several consistent characteristics of tourism policy making during the study period. The first is that tourism continues to be a non-statutory activity and remains on the

margins of mainstream policy making. This perhaps underlies the Council's reluctance to engage in tourism policy making as a distinct activity and helps to explain the persistence of problems around funding of tourism services and policy.

The second is that the development and delivery of tourism services is characterised by partnership working which occurs in all phases except phase 2. In phases 1 and 3 distinct tourism partnerships can be identified and in phases 4 and 5 tourism activities become subsumed into the wider strategic policy processes headed by the Leeds Initiative. The nature of partnership working changes over the study period reflects wider changes to local authority tourism policy making in England (Stevenson & Lovatt 2001, Stevenson 2002).

The marginal nature of tourism policy means that it has a low status. This has major implications in terms of its engagement in partnership activities and mainstream policy making. The tourism manager is a weak partner in any negotiations and has no 'voice' in a number of relevant and powerful policy groups feeding into wider policy discussions in connection with the Vision and the 'daughter' level strategies. In this context it is very difficult to sustain the Tourism Forum, the official partnership between the tourism manager and the tourism industry, because this partnership is powerless.

Ebbs and flows
The historical analysis has been split into five phases each of which are characterised by enthusiasm and energy at the beginning, followed by a setback. In this section the terms *ebbs* and *flows* are used to emphasise the fluidity of tourism policy making and to highlight the difficulties of separating tourism policy from other policy areas such as economic policy. Tourism policy overlaps and to an extent duplicates other policy in Leeds and fluctuates and adapts as the local and the wider policy environment changes. Ebbing and flowing also encompasses a conceptualisation of policies in terms of constant movement and change, emphasising their impermanence and the transience of the relationships between policy makers as they work in partnerships to create and enact policy.

A complex range of factors combine in each of the phases to create these waves of enthusiasm which are closely followed by an ebb as fatigue sets in, interest fades and another initiative takes over. In the earlier phases it is possible to identify key factors that explain the ebbs such as the end of a partnership in phase 1, the loss of a "champion" in phase 2 and the end of a programme in phase 3. However the ebbs and flows can not be explained by just one key factor and are the result of a multitude of interrelated factors i.e. the ebb at the end of phase 2 can be attributed to the tourism manager leaving, but this is triggered by what he perceived to be chronic under funding for the marketing and promotion of the City, at the wider policy level. The end of this phase coincides with the development of the LDC, a major regeneration initiative, which is likely to have refocused the political leadership's interest towards redevelopment and the waterfront.

Factors that explain the ebbs and flows become more interwoven and complex in phase 4 where the flow in terms of the development and operation of new tourism attractions and a new TIC are largely the result of activities that occurred in phase 3 rather than a renewed interest in tourism by the Council. The ebb at the end of the phase can be attributed locally to the perceived failure of several major tourism projects and at a wider level to the decision of a number of cities to engage in tourism regeneration projects at the same time, creating competition between these new urban destinations.

In phase 5 the development of a tourism strategy which is integrated into the mainstream policy hierarchy appears to represent a major flow. However a number of factors undermine the strength and effectiveness of that flow i.e. it is a third tier 'grand-daughter' strategy, it involves a complex range of partnerships to develop and deliver initiatives, it duplicates aims and initiatives in higher level documents, it is not effectively linked into the main policy hierarchy and the tourism manager does not have sufficiently high status to influence key policy makers. Thus in phase 5 there is evidence of a flow as tourism policy emerges but as tourism activities become subsumed into other initiatives a number of factors combine to produce an ebb. These include the loss of a 'champion' when a key councillor loses her executive role in the Council, and the Tourism Managers post is frozen, the lack of clarity about the nature and place of tourism marketing activities, the uncertainties arising from the organisational and political change and the rapid development of policies at local and regional level.

Over the research period there have been a number of changes in the Council's organisational structure and tourism activities have been linked with a variety of different mainstream policy areas. This may have also led to ebbs and flows i.e. in phase 2 tourism is associated with music, marketing and promotions, in phase 3 with development and regeneration, in phase 4 and part of phase 5 it is located in a leisure department but has a marketing focus and in the latter part of phase 5 it is located with economic development (specifically inward investment) with a marketing focus. The lack of a specific formal tourism plan appears to have minimal impact on the delivery of tourism services in some of the earlier phases i.e. marketing and development activity are intense in periods without a plan i.e. phases 2 and 3.

The tourism policy making process reflects the wider power structures, cultures and relationships within the Council and its partner organisations. The dynamics and relationships within the policy community are constantly changing as new people join and new initiatives are launched. In discretionary areas like tourism, the individual personalities, characteristics and alliances of tourism policy makers can push tourism up or down the political agenda. Ebbs and flows of tourism policy might be linked to 'champions' who have been particularly successful in communicating the benefits of tourism to a wider audience in the Council, local businesses and the local community.

Tourism policy making is characterised by its complexity and intangibility. Its boundaries are difficult to identify as it is articulated through a plethora of plans, policies, strategies and initiatives. Tourism policy and activities are implicit and explicit within wider policy documents. The existence of a separate tourism strategy in phase 5 appears to create a more concrete and solid basis for tourism policy making, giving it a clear place in a policy hierarchy. However the ebbs and flows in the wider policy documents create waves that effectively erode the solidity of this plan. A document exists but by 2006 it is unrecognised by key policy makers who perceive tourism policy in terms of the higher level policies.

Conclusions

This paper illustrates that in Leeds tourism policy making and service provision has fluctuated and changed over the past 30 years, identifying 5 phases of activity. It has identified some characteristics that are constant (such as the non-statutory nature of tourism) and some that fluctuate (such as the end of a programme or the loss of a champion). The characteristics that fluctuate have been characterised as ebbs and flows and have been influenced by a broad range of contextual factors. The study illustrates the complex relationship between tourism services and other policy areas, the changing policy

environment at the regional level, changing relationships between organisations and key individuals. There are some recurring explanations of the ebbs and flows but they occur at different times and some of the contextual circumstances differ which means that the tangible outcomes are different. The tourism policy process appears to be characterised by opportunism, reaction or response to events in the wider environment and ebbs and flows as tourism moves up and down the policy agenda.

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Euro-Asia Foundation
University of Lucian Blaga Sibiu
Academy of Economic Studies
"Dimitrie Cantemir" Christian University
    Timisoara

Russia
Smolensk Humanitarian University
Russian International Academy for
    Tourism (RIAT)
St.-Petersburg Academy of management
    and Economics

São Tomé e Principe
Instituto Superior Politécnico

Serbia and Montenegro
Geographical Institute "J.Cvijic" SASA
The College of Hotel Management
    Belgrade
College of Tourism
Faculty of Sport and Tourism

Slovakia
Slovak Agricultural University
University of Matej Bel

Slovenia
Turistica - College of Tourism Studies
University of Maribor

South Africa
University of Pretoria
UNISA - University of South Africa
University of Johannesburg
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Cape Peninsula University of Technology
University of the Witwatersrand
Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa
Tshwane University of Technology
Walter Sisulu University
Living Waters Foundation

Spain
Equity Point
EUT Mediterrani
Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran
    Canaria (ULPGC)
Universidad de Sevilla
Universidad de Deusto
University of Girona
ESADE - E.U. de Turismo Sant Ignasi
Universidad de Jaén
TRAM - Tourism Research and Marketing
Science Park for Tourism and Leisure,
    ltd. (PCT-TOURISM)
Universitat de Barcelona

Sweden
Dalarna University
University of Kalmar
Mid Sweden University

Switzerland
Ecole Hotelière de Lausanne
IMI - International Hotel Management
    Institute
Swiss Hotel Management School (SHMS)
    University Centre

Taiwan
National Chiayi University

Tanzania
The Professional Tourguide School
Peace Through Tourism Promotion
    Programme

Thailand
Chiang Mai University
Kasetsart University

Trinidad
University of the West Indies

Turkey
Akdeniz University
Akdeniz University - Alanya Faculty of
    Business
Eastern Mediterranean University
Anadolu University
Istanbul University
Bilkent University

Uganda
Jimmy Sekasi Institute of Catering
UCOTA
Makerere University

Ukraine
Institute for Local Development of
    Chernihiv Oblast

United Arab Emirates
Arabian Cultural Connection
Emirates Academy of Hospitality
    Management

United Kingdom
University of Surrey
Liverpool John Moores University
University of Hull
Coventry University
Oxford Brookes University
University of Nottingham
Scottish Agricultural College (SAC)
UWE - University of West England
University of Brighton
University of Plymouth
Canterbury Christ Church University
University of Hertfordshire
University of Derby
London Metropolitan University
WA Consultants
University of Lincoln
University of Gloucestershire
University of Sunderland
Bournemouth University
University of Chester
Leeds Metropolitan University
Manchester Metropolitan University
Swansea Institute, SIHE - University of
    Wales
University of Wales Institute Cardiff
University of Strathclyde
Queen Margaret University College
Napier University Edinburgh
Glasgow Caledonian University
University of Wolverhampton
University of Birmingham
University of Greenwich
Khalsa College London
University of Westminster
University of Bedfordshire
University of Glamorgan
University College Birmingham
University of Salford
Nottingham Trent University
St. Mary's College
Sheffield Hallam University

United States of America
Clemson University
Colorado State University
Virginia Tech

Zimbabwe
National University of Science and
Technology

ATLAS regional groups

ATLAS Africa

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Introduction

ATLAS-Africa was established in the year 2000 with the main goal of promoting tourism and leisure education in Africa. This was envisioned to be achieved through various initiatives such as the creation of collaborative partnership and networking between Africanist academicians and practitioners in the tourism and leisure industry, conducting of state-of-the-art research on African tourism, sharing and dissemination of information, tourism curricula development, staff and student exchange programmes, and holding of regular conferences and symposia.

Currently, ATLAS-Africa has a membership of over 50 institutions spread over different countries in Africa. However, it should be noted that most of the ATLAS-Africa membership is concentrated in Anglophone countries in Eastern and Southern Africa, whereas there is relatively poor representation of Francophone countries especially in Central and Western Africa. Presently, the ATLAS-Africa Board is engaged in a vigorous campaign of marketing and recruiting new membership from the Francophone countries. This initiative is based on the realization that the future versatility of ATLAS-Africa depends on aggressive marketing and recruitment of new membership from different Africa countries.
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Conference activities

One area in which ATLAS-Africa has been fairly successful is the holding of conferences and symposia. Since its inauguration, the association has managed to hold yearly conferences in different African countries. These conferences have managed to draw delegates from different parts of the World including Africa, Europe, North America, Asia and Australia. On average each of these conferences have attracted not less the 100 delegates.

The most recent ATLAS-Africa conference was held in the green capital city of Uganda, Kampala, from 27th to 29th October 2007. The conference venue was at Makerere University, one of the oldest and prestigious centres of higher learning in Africa. The venue provided a serene and congenial environment for conference deliberations and participation in various social activities amongst scholars and practitioners in the tourism and leisure industry. The Kampala conference attracted over 100 participants.

The ATLAS secretariat led by Leontine Onderwater and the Makerere University team led by Jocky Nyakaana did a fantastic job in undertaking legwork and organization of various

conference activities. Also, at this juncture, it is appropriate to commend Moi University for sending over 15 delegates to the conference. We also compliment SNV for sending over 10 delegates, from its various offices in Africa, to the conference apart from being one of the main sponsors of the conference.

The Kampala conference was officially opened by the Uganda Government Minister for Tourism. In his opening remarks the Minister emphasized the role played by tourism in the national economy of Uganda in particular and Africa in general. However notwithstanding the significant role of tourism in Uganda's economic development, the Minister pinpointed the fact that, as the case is with most African countries, Uganda has not maximized its huge tourism potentials for the benefit of its people. The Minister further indicated that the main constraints confronting the development of tourism in Uganda include underdeveloped infrastructure, limited financial and investment capacity, lack of entrepreneurial expertise and human resource development.

In the overall, there was a rich diversity of paper presentation based on the broader conference theme – "Tourism and Wealth Creation in Africa". There were papers covering critical areas including pro-poor tourism, ecotourism, community tourism, local community and private sector partnerships, innovative cultural tourism product development, rural tourism, agrotourism, tourism development in protected areas, sport tourism, tourism marketing and the role of IT in tourism development. Most of the presentations captured key aspects of tourism and wealth creation in the African context.

The following are some of the principal issues that emerged as regards to the role of tourism in wealth creation and poverty reduction in Africa:
- There is critical need for increased participation of the rural poor in tourism development initiatives.
- There is urgent need for the initiation of various mitigation mechanisms to minimize the negative social and environmental impacts of tourism on rural areas where the majority of the African people live.
- There is need for the initiation of innovative tourism developmental strategies that enhance increased multiple effects, forward and backward linkages of the tourism industry with other economic sectors especially in rural areas.
- Increased stimulation in the development of micro and smallscale (MSEs) tourism enterprises.
- Diversification of tourism products and expansion of the various tourism market niches.
- Increased marketing and promotion of pro-poor tourism
- Improvement of legal and policy framework as relates to sustainable tourism development and community participation in tourism

As has been the tradition of ATLAS-Africa, at the end of the Kampala conference, there was a post-conference tour to parts of Eastern Uganda. Most of the delegates participated in the excursion to Mabira Nature Reserve and the City of Jinja and its environs in Eastern Uganda. While in the Mabira Nature Reserve delegates had unique touristic experiences including scenic landscape viewing and photographing of the diverse tropical floral and faunal species, observation of various agroforest projects and community participation in rural tourism and forest conservation initiatives. At Jinja, the delegates had a unique experience of canoeing and seeing the legendry source of the River Nile as it cascades out of the magnificent Lake Victoria – the largest inland fresh water lake in the world. The very adventurous delegates had the opportunity to participate in white water rafting in the shift flowing water of the Nile as it meanders its way through Eastern Uganda.

Publications

The ATLAS-Africa Board is pleased to announce a number of publications that have been published recently under the association's auspices. Last year (2007), a new book entitled, "Culture and Community: Tourism Studies in Eastern and Southern Africa (edited by B. Wishitemi, A. Spenceley and H. Wels, (Amsterdam: Rozenberg Publishers) came out of press. The book contains selected papers that have been presented in previous ATLAS Africa conferences. Also, in the last two years, ATLAS-Africa with the help of Marjolein E. Kleok and Rene van der Duim has managed to produce series of thematic publications under the following headings:
- Tourism and Nature in Africa
- Aspects of Tourism in Kenya
- Local Communities and Participation in African Tourism

These publications provide valuable insights in the development of tourism in Eastern and Southern Africa. They form a source of great inspiration for academicians, practitioners and advocators of tourism development in Africa.

Acknowledgements

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Last but not least, we would like to acknowledge the following individuals for their distinctive role in the promotion of the various activities of ATLAS- Africa: Bob Wishitemi (Moi University), Leontine Onderwater (ATLAS Secretariat), Rene van der Duim (Wageningen University), Marjolein E. Kloek (Wageningen University), Karel Werdler (New Holland University), Chris Boonzaaier (University of Pretoria), Jocky Nyakaana (Makerere University), Pius Odunga (Moi University), Roselyne Okech (Maseno University), Harry Wels (University of Amsterdam).

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No report available.

ATLAS Europe

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At the last ATLAS Europe board meeting in Viana do Castelo, it was decided to leave the ETAG (European Action travel Group) as – in spite of regular ATLAS presence at ETAG meetings – nothing really came out for ATLAS. ETAG being a lobbying association from the tourism industry, our role and its impact on our activities has been extremely limited. The saving in the future of the 1000 Euros membership fee taken from the already tight ATLAS budget helped this decision.

However, after officially leaving ETAG, we (Université Libre de Bruxelles) entered a bid for a research project concerning 'Employment in the social tourism sector' integrating 7 ATLAS partners for qualitative research and received the research project. The idea of a network behind the contractor seemed to have been a convincing argument. Although, it is a small project in terms of money and time, it shows that ATLAS as a network could play a role within European funded research as it has done many times in the past.

European Union Update

The EU tourism unit has launched the second phase of the EDEN (European Destinations of Excellence) Project aimed to draw attention to the value, diversity and shared characteristics of European tourist destinations, and to promote destinations where the economic growth objective is pursued in such a way as to ensure the social, cultural and environmental sustainability of tourism. The Commission also published the final report of the sustainable tourism steering group in 2007 providing recommendations on sustainable tourism management, which can be downloaded from the Tourism Unit website (see below).

In collaboration with BITS (Bureau International du Tourism Social) the EU Tourism Unit organized three conferences (since 2006) on social tourism with the latest one (23 March 08) focusing on youth and senior travellers. Relating to social tourism, networking and transfer of knowledge, the DG Regional Policies will launch within its INTERREG 4c program a second call for tenders around September. The latest study to have been published on the EU Tourism website is THE IMPACT OF MAJOR CULTURAL AND SPORTING EVENTS ON TOURISM-ORIENTED SMEs (2007).

Detailed information on all these issues can be found on the Tourism Unit website:

http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/services/tourism/index_en.htm

ATLAS Americas

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Those of you who have been involved with ATLAS for a number of years will be aware that the intention has always been to make ATLAS a truly global organisation. Now that we have active ATLAS chapters in Europe, Asia-Pacific, and Africa , the only remaining gap is the lack of a chapter in the Americas.

ATLAS has a number of excellent members in the Americas but there is not yet a formal organisation covering North America, Central America and South America. The decision has been taken therefore to try to set up a chapter in the Americas that brings together colleagues in the region and across the world. This is a very exciting initiative that should lead to some really innovative opportunities for conferences, research, and staff and student exchanges. It is hoped that an exploratory meeting of those people interested in establishing ATLAS Americas will take place on 2 July during the conference in Brighton.

Anyone interested in becoming involved in ATLAS Americas should contact Leontine Onderwater (leontine.onderwater@atlas-euro.org) in the first instance.

June 2008

ATLAS events

ATLAS Africa conference 2007 – Report
Tourism and wealth creation
Kampala, Uganda
October 27-29, 2007

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The Fifth Atlas Africa conference in Kampala, Uganda 27th - 29th October 2007 was co-organized by ATLAS Africa, Makerere University, and SNV-UGANDA. The conference was very successful with over 120 delegates in attendance at Makerere University-The conference venue.

Dr. *Dorothea Meyer,* and Prof. *Rosaleen Duffy delivered* key note speeches. The Minister of Tourism, Uganda government officially opened the conference and delivered a speech on behalf of the Vice President of the Republic of Uganda. The importance of tourism in wealth creation was emphasized and Uganda's tourism stand given in the minister's speech. He concluded by thanking every body who contributed to the organization of the conference.

On the evening of the first day, all the delegates were hosted to a cocktail at Ndere Center which was a fantastic accession sponsored by SNV Eastern and Southern Africa.

A- and B- type of papers were presented crosscutting the following themes;
- Poverty, tourism and use of tourism in poverty alleviation;
- Different approaches of wealth creation and their application in tourism industry;
- Small and medium tourism enterprises and their role in income generation and wealth creation;
- Mass - sustainable - pro poor tourism: The changing faces and their implications in poverty eradication and wealth creation;
- Tourism, private enterprises and community benefits;
- Tourism in protected areas, local community participation and wealth sharing;
- Entrepreneurial development and investment in tourism sector;
- Tourism, economic policies and planning; the implications on wealth generation;
- Tourism in rural development;
- Tourism, gender and wealth creation;
- Local-global relations in tourism and its impact on wealth creation;
- Tourism organizations, NGOs and public in tourism development and poverty alleviation;
- Tourism, vulnerable groups and their empowerment;
- Sustainable tourism resource management and wealth creation

The conference was closed on 29th, with an excursion to one of model eco-lodges in Uganda at Mabira Forest- Mukono district, the source of the Nile, and Bujagali falls where delegates relaxed. Special thanks to Rene, Leontine, Dominique, Jockey and Wilber, staff and students at Makerere University who made the conference a success.

Backpacker Research Group Meeting – Report
Backpacker mobilities? An expert conference on backpacker tourism
Shimla, India
March 26-28, 2008

Anya Diekmann
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The second conference, I attended for ATLAS, was the Backpacker meeting in Shimla (26-28th March), organised by Kevin Hannam in collaboration with the Himachal Pradesh University, represented by C.P. Bansal. It was the first conference that ATLAS organised in India and therefore quite an experience for all the delegates.
Not only in terms of transport, but also in terms of location: Shimla is a very beautiful place in the mountains (2200m above sea level) chosen by the British in the beginning of the 19th century to withdraw for the summer period from the extreme heat down in Delhi. To arrive there, one has to take the plane, hire a car (taxi) or take the 'toy train'. This train takes 5 hours from Kalka to Shimla and seats are rather small and not very comfortable, especially when travelling with luggage! Some of the delegates had the misfortune that the train broke down and they had to walk on the rails surrounded by 'not always friendly' monkeys.

The highest authorities of the state of Himachal Pradesh in the person of the Chief minister Prof. Prem Kumar Dhumal, who attended the opening ceremony accompanied by about 100 people, welcomed us. Traditional welcome, dancing and media were present at the opening which took place in a state run hotel, the 'Peterhoff', a former residence of the British viceroys in India.

Mark Hampton from the University of Kent gave the keynote on followed by 25 presentations by researchers from diverse countries, such as New Zealand, Australia, UK, USA, Germany, Finland and the Netherlands. The majority of papers focused on qualitative research on backpackers, their experiences and travel motivations. Furthermore, gap years, volunteer and community based tourism were discussed.

ATLAS SIG meeting Spa Tourism – Report
The future of historic spa towns. The role of cultural heritage in the process of urban revitalisation and re-imaging
Spa Balmoral, Belgium
March 13-14, 2008

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A symposium on 'the future of historic spa towns' was held in Spa (Belgium) (12 -14 March 08). This was organised by four universities in collaboration with ATLAS: KuLeuven, Université Libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Zyyduniversteit Limburg and Universiteit of Hasselt. The success of this meeting is in particular due to the scientific input and professional experience of Myriam Jansen Verbeke (KuLeuven). The city of Spa sponsored the meeting as they considered it as being an important event for the application of their historic city centre as World Heritage Site. The conference itself was organised in one of the traditional hotels in Spa (the Balmoral) and included a tour of the city and encounters with public authorities and private stakeholders.

Many members of the ATLAS-SIG Spa and Wellness participated in the meeting. In contrast to a conventional conference with paper presentations, the symposium wished to foster greater discussion and exchange of experiences, based on some broader keynotes approaching the key issue from different viewpoints. One of the keynote speakers was Melanie Smith, who presented the outcome of the spa and wellness research led by the SIG members which will be published in a book in the near future. Other keynote speakers included G. Zouian (Gaia heritage), A. Goslar (Croatia), W. Nahrsted (Germany).

For further information and conclusions of the symposium please check the website www.tt4d.eu

ATLAS Business Tourism Education SIG Meeting
Educating the next generation of business tourism professionals: challenges and solutions
Warsaw, Poland
November 23-26, 2008

Call for papers

Paper proposals are welcome on the following topics:
1.   Original research into any aspect of Conferences, Exhibitions, Incentive Travel, or Business Travel, including:
-   Trends in business tourism
-   Business tourism statistics
-   Emerging destinations for business tourism

- Education and training for business tourism
- Challenges and issues in business tourism
- Destination marketing for business tourism

2.   Examples of original initiatives in the field of teaching or in research relating to meetings and other business events.

3.   Examples of co-operation between business tourism employers and educational institutions.

4.   Case-study material, illustrating best practice and key issues in the development and management of business events or business tourism venues.

Abstracts should be submitted via the ATLAS website at www.atlas-euro.org, no later than September 12th, 2008. Abstracts (approximately 300-500 words) should indicate background, theoretical / practical implications, methods and / or data sources, and indicative findings of the paper. The title should be no more than 12 words. Up to 3 keywords / themes should be selected to indicate clearly to which theme(s) of the conference their proposed paper relates to. Abstracts not clearly related to the theme of the conference will not be accepted.

More information

More information is available at the ATLAS website at www.atlas-euro.org.

ATLAS annual conference 2009
Experiencing difference. Changing tourism and tourists experiences
Aalborg, Denmark
May 27-29, 2009

Conference theme

Experiencing Difference
Changing Tourism and Tourists' Experiences

Experiences have always been a central part of tourism - from the educational pursuits of the 17th century Grand Tours and up until extreme sport endeavours of the present day. What seems to have changed most significantly within recent years is, however, the efforts and ingenuity that tourism marketers put into creating experience possibilities that set their tourism destination, attraction, accommodation facility or other types of tourism services apart from competitors' and make their offers the favoured choice among tourists. And though the tourism experience is personal - a marriage between expectations, actual encounter and memories - the tourism marketer still has the possibility to heavily influence the experience in a given direction provided that market research has been central in forming the experience offer. A market-driven approach as described here, or outside-in approach in which the market determines the offers of the destination or attraction, may, however, be questioned, as it can be argued that tourism marketers should rather focus on developing experience possibilities that are closely tied to the identity and cultural heritage from which they originate. Hence an inside-out approach is also traceable in the

experience literature which is tied up closely with the discussions on authenticity that repeatedly appears in a tourism context. Rather than seeing these two approaches as incompatible opposites, it may make more sense to see them as the two ends on a continuum, which also suggests that various degrees of combinations of the two may be adopted both by scholars and practitioners.

Call for papers

The theme of the 2009 annual ATLAS conference has been inspired by the recent surge of interest in tourism and experiences, and papers are expected to reflect the many different roles of experiences in tourism. Abstracts for presentations are invited on the following streams:

1. Changing tourist experiences
If experiences have always been a central part of tourism – from the educational pursuits of the 17th century Grand Tours and up until extreme sport endeavours of the present day – to what extent are experiences new reasons to go from the perspective of tourists? What role does the tourist see him/herself as having in the experience, how does past tourist experiences influence tourist preferences and behaviour, and how does the quest for authenticity relate to the notion of experience? Papers in this stream will include perspectives from sociology, consumer studies, leisure studies and cultural studies, but are also likely to explore the interplay between supply and demand in shaping new directions in tourism experiences.

2. Tourist enterprises and production of experiences
The increasing focus on providing experiences as a selling point rather than just services creates a pressure on private firms to innovate in terms of products and branding, and these pressures are likely to be handled differently by large, small and micro enterprises, depending on the cultural setting and the character of the tourist product (nature-based, cultural, events-based, etc.). At the same time the issue of demand for experiences is also salient: what do firms know about their prospective customers' preferences, including those who may want the tourism offer to stay 'the way it has always been'? Papers in this stream will include perspectives from marketing, business studies and hospitality studies, but are also likely to include approaches which focus on the role of customers in producing experiences and innovation.

3. Destination management organisations and experience development
The notion of experience development can function as a convenient buzzword for destination management organisations who can strengthen their role as coordinators of fragmented tourism offers through by supporting networks, hallmark events, place branding and private-sector innovation and entrepreneurialism. A focus on experiences may be able to build bridges between a wide range of activities have not traditionally been associated tourism, such as fashion, architecture, design, sport, edutainment, but may also help to blur further the line between tourism and leisure as social activities. Papers in this stream will include perspectives from policy studies and organisational studies, but are also likely to include other approaches to the creation of public-private partnerships and their role in the making of tourist experiences.

4. Local experiences of tourism
With the conscious creation of 'experience places', is tourism becoming ever more invasive from the perspective of the everyday lives of local inhabitants, or does the new destinations involve physical or mental segregation between tourists and locals? Issues of

place attachment and a local sense of cultural heritage and authenticity are potentially in conflict with the creation of innovative tourism experiences, but at the same time also in many cases a provider of additional jobs and income. Papers in this stream will include perspectives from geography, sociology and cultural studies.

5. *Analytical perspective on experiences in tourism and leisure studies*
What are the consequences of different scientific approaches (e.g. economic, sociological) for the understanding of experiences? And, not least, after the dust of the debates has settled, what is new, useful and exciting compared to existing ways of conceptualising tourism? Papers in this stream are likely to be interdisciplinary in their outlook, although often reflecting on the role of experiences in particular parts of the literature.

Abstracts should be submitted to ATLAS using the form at the ATLAS conference website at www.atlas-euro.org no later than February 15th 2009.

Conference setting

Aalborg is the capital of North Jutland, the main international summer holiday region of Denmark, and a city which has undergone a rapid transition from traditional industries towards a high-tech and service-oriented economy. Aalborg was founded by the Vikings alongside the largest Danish fjord, and today Scandinavia's largest Viking burial place competes with the sardine-tin-style Aalborg Tower in providing the best view over a city in which the experience economy in the shape of a burgeoning conference industry, video games production, and one of the longest streets of bars in Europe, Jomfru Ane Gade. See the city's website http://www.visitaalborg.com for further information and http://www.visitnordjylland.dk for the region's official tourism website.

The conference will take place at the main campus of Aalborg University which since 1974 has played a major role in reshaping Aalborg and the region of North Jutland by producing a steady stream of graduates, and undertaking research and development projects in collaboration with local firms on the basis of innovative research profiles in engineering, social science and the humanities. The social programme of the conference will make full use of the city and its facilities as a backdrop for what will hopefully be an interesting and pleasurable experience.

More information

More information is available at the ATLAS website at www.atlas-euro.org.

ATLAS Special Interest Groups

Cultural Tourism Research Group

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The ATLAS Cultural Tourism Special Interest Group continues to be active in terms of both publications and research.

The most recent publication of the group was *Cultural Tourism: Negotiating Identities*, edited by Greg Richards and Xerardo Pereiro from the proceedings of the Expert Meeting on held in Chaves, Portugal in November 2006. This volume contains a total of 14 of the 16 papers presented in Chaves. The publication was produced by the Universidade de Trás-Os-Montes e Alto Douro – Pólo De Chaves, largely thanks to the hard work of Xerado and his team. The volume will shortly be available via the ATLAS website.

At the last SIG meeting held at the ATLAS conference in Viana de Castelo in September 2007, it was agreed that a publication should be produced on *Research Methods in Cultural Tourism*, to be edited by Greg Richards and Wil Munsters. CABI have now agreed to publish this volume and a total of 17 contributions have been received. The volume will examine a wide range of different approaches to research in the cultural tourism field, including a wide range of qualitative techniques.

The ATLAS Cultural Tourism Research Project continued with the participation of members in Latvia, Italy, Greece, Spain, Mexico, Romania, Vietnam and Austria and Portugal in 2007. A further 5000 questionnaires were added to the database in 2007, bringing the total number of surveys completed since the inception of the project in 1992 to almost 40,000. As agreed by the group at the last meeting, participants in the survey will be given access to data from previous surveys as well, increasing the range of comparative data available and making longitudinal comparisons possible in many areas.

Initial results of the 2007 survey round indicate that the proportion of 'cultural tourists' visiting the cultural attractions surveyed is continuing to rise, confirming the general impression that cultural tourism is a global growth market.

The ATLAS Cultural Tourism Website (www.tram-research.com/atlas) has also been updated with new publications from members, including a paper on 'Delphi techniques applied to urban and cultural tourism research in the Algarve, Portugal' by Alexandra Rodrigues. A number of presentations have also been made to international conferences on the work of the Cultural Tourism Group in the past year, including the Assembly of European Regions conference in Poland, the European Cultural Tourism Network conference in Barcelona, The European Cities Marketing conference in Barcelona and the Croatian National Tourism Day conference.

Proportion visitors on a cultural holiday, 1992-2007
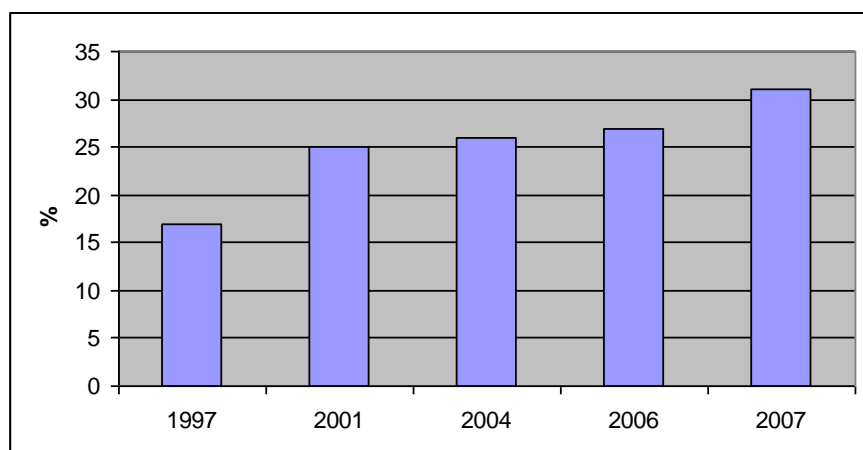
It was agreed at the group meeting in Viana do Castelo that the research programme would continue in 2008, using the same basic questionnaire as in 2007. This questionnaire will remain current until at least the end of 2009, allowing partners the opportunity to time the research to suit their own schedule. A number of partners have already indicated that they will be undertaking research in 2008. New members are always welcome to join the group and participate in the research programme. A number of different language versions of the questionnaires and full survey instructions are available on the website, and the survey is easy to use with student groups.

Backpackers Research Group

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2007-8 has been a busy year for the BRG. Firstly, in December 2007 we successfully published *Backpacker Tourism: Concepts and profiles* with Channel View, a collection of papers based upon those given at the BRG meeting held in Bangkok in 2006. Edited by Kevin Hannam and Irena Ateljevic this book features an up to date assessment of the backpacker market and draws upon various disciplines in its analysis. With fourteen chapters plus the introduction and conclusion this book is a significant output for the BRG. Secondly in March 2008 the BRG organised its third meeting in Shimla, India in conjunction with Himachal Pradesh University. Entitled *Backpacker Mobilities*, following a keynote presentation from Dr Mark Hampton, 25 individual papers were delivered at his conference. A publication is planned based upon these presentations. Special thanks go to Professor Bansal from Himachal Pradesh University and his team for the help in organising this conference, as well as to the scientific committee and ATLAS administrative support. The next BRG meeting is planned for 2010 however interim meetings will take place at the ATLAS annual conferences.

Spa and Wellness Research Group

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Follwing the success of the first official meeting of the Spa and Wellness SIG last June in Budapest (2007), group members submitted a number of interesting case studies to the SIG Co-ordinators' book *Health and Wellness Tourism* (M. Smith & L. Puczkó, Butterworth-Heinemann, forthcoming 2008). In total, there were 17 research-based case studies from around the world, including Australia, Japan, Israel, India, Malaysia and much of Europe. The interests of the group span a broad range of subjects, including:
- Historic spa tourism and regeneration
- Product development and innovation
- Market segmentation and diversification
- Combining ancient traditions and new developments
- Marketing and branding
- Managing health and wellness tourism businesses

Following the publication of this book, it is hoped that the group will go on to produce a series of reports for the health and wellness tourism industry. One suggestion is that we edit a series of small reports aimed at practitioners on each of the typologies of health and wellness tourism, and these would be sold through ATLAS, for example:
- Historic spa tourism
- Hotel and resort spa tourism
- Medical spa tourism
- Holistic and retreat-based tourism
- Occupational wellness and business tourism
- Spiritual tourism

It is possible that we could work together with members of other SIG groups (e.g. Business Tourism and Religious Tourism) to produce the last two reports, or even the SME SIG to discuss small holistic businesses.

In terms of events, Myriam Jansen-Verbecke and Anya Diekmann organised an excellent symposium entitled *The Future of Historic Spa Towns* 13th-14th March in Spa in Belgium. Many SIG members attended and we spent the first day listening to Keynote presentations about the current issues and challenges for health and wellness tourism, especially the regeneration and diversification of historic spa towns in Europe. This was following by a guided tour of Spa itself and a visit to the new Thermal Spa. On Friday, we discussed a range of different subjects as participants presented their own notes for discussion based on research in their own country. This included Finland, Estonia, Greece, Japan, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Israel, Dubai, amongst others. It is hoped that some of the recommendations from this symposium will be used to compile a report, as discussed above.

Future events may be held in Israel and Slovenia. We discussed with Alon Gelbman the possibility of focusing on the subject of spiritual wellness tourism, and possibly organising a joint meeting with the Religious Tourism SIG next year in Israel. There have also been discussions with Sonja Sibila Lebe from Maribor in Slovenia about a possible Expert meeting there.

Some members have already been involved in the distribution of a visitor profile and motivation questionnaire which will be carried out at different health and wellness sites around the world. We hope to collect extensive data from a range of countries, therefore the questionnaire is being translated into a number of languages.

Overall, this group is flourishing and the members have been quite active in research and event organisation. We hope this year to extend some of our work on curriculum development and education, as well as producing some research reports.

Capital City Tourism Research Group

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Introduction

This new Group was launched at a successful and well attended meeting during the ATLAS annual conference in Portugal in September. It follows the considerable interest shown when we called for papers for the special National Capitals issue of Journal of Tourism and Travel Marketing which we edited (published in 2007). People at the meeting supported a SIG focused on national capital tourism and agreed that there is a topical and interesting research agenda to explore. A number of people wanted to go further, and broaden the SIG to encompass city tourism more generally. After consultations, there proved to be support for this and so we now have City and National Capital Tourism (CNTC) Special Interest Group. There are more than 50 people interested in developing the SIG and although it was launched at the ATLAS Europe conference, we envisage it operating on a global basis.

Why national capitals, why now?

National capitals provide key tourism resources and are often a unique selling point for place marketing, yet the role of 'capitalness' in the development and marketing of tourism in capital cities has been neglected; it is little researched and poorly understood.

Now is a fascinating time to remedy that neglect. The heritage on which capital city tourism often depends is contested. Some cities are asserting or re-asserting their status as national capitals as ideas of national identity change and political power is devolved. Budapest, Tallinn, Barcelona and Cardiff are all, in their different ways, examples of this change. 'Capitalness' can give cities a distinctive edge in a competitive environment, but is increasingly fluid. And national capitals often operate in a capital region providing the need for cross border co-operation as well as co-operation between local, regional and national government agencies as they often serve local, national and even international interests.

Capitals share a range of tourism issues that should be examined systematically with international comparative research that goes beyond a case by case basis.

Next steps: Tourism in national capitals project

We have been asked to edit a book on national capital tourism. We see this as a good opportunity for us to work together in the SIG to develop some of the ideas and themes around the topic, to establish our agenda and raise the profile of national capital tourism. It will define and explore

Four overarching (research) themes in national capital tourism
- Identity, representation and branding - encompassing branding / positioning; media and reporting; visual representation; capitals and national identity
- Planning and development – development and marketing; particular planning issues; comparative studies; politicians and marketing (or de-marketing …); gateway role
- Image and visitor perceptions - nation / capital interactions on image; visitor perceptions of national capitals; capital tourism precincts; host population perceptions
- Distinctive offers and markets – educational tourism; 'government tourism' (governmental conferences, meetings, events); 'power business tourism' (where capital role key to location of meeting, event etc); creation of new offers and attractions – e.g. national museums etc

and distinguish

Types of capital
- Planned capitals (normally in federal states) – for example, Canberra, Brasilia
- Historic capitals – for example London, Beijing, Paris,
- (Re)Emerging capitals. In Europe this ranges through historic capitals regaining capital status after Soviet rule (e.g. Baltic states) though those reasserting / reframing status post-communism (e.g. Budapest), through new political capitals in varying stage of development as nation states fragment (ranging through capitals in former Yugoslavia, Bratislava, Barcelona, Cardiff, Edinburgh etc).

These categories are of course debateable – and in many ways that is their value: they providing a starting point for us to develop concepts and ideas about national capital tourism.

Our call for contributions produced a very good response, with very interesting proposals for chapters. We are in the process providing comments to authors.

Tourism Geographies: Space, place and lifestyle mobilities

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The inaugural seminar of the ATLAS Tourism Geographies SIG was hosted in Bristol, UK by the Centre for Leisure, Tourism and Society (CeLTS) at the University of the West of England, Bristol on 6th March 2008. The event was entitled *Tourism Geographies: Space, Place and Lifestyle Mobilities* and was hosted in conjunction with the Geography of Leisure and Tourism Research Group of the Royal Geographical Society (with the Institute of British Geographers) and the International Geographical Union (IGU) Commission on the Geography of Tourism, Leisure and Global Change.

The Tourism Geographies SIG convenors decided to stage such an event having noted an increase in academic attention to lifestyle-related mobility and the use, creation and (re)presentation of space and place in tourism – pushing the geographical analysis of tourism activity to the fore. As such, the main aim of the event was to review of the state of the art in tourism geographies and create a debate forum. It was felt that there had not been much discussion to date reflecting the cultural turn in geography (in particular, culture and space in terms of encounter, embodiment, [inter]subjectivities, lifestyle and identity in tourism) not to mention the spatial turn in social sciences more generally, which now calls for fresh examination of existing debates in tourism (Crang, 2004, 2006; Sheller and Urry, 2006). In addition, the recent excellent report by Chris Gibson of the University of Wollongong (Gibson, 2008) in Progress in Human Geography was key in setting the context for the event, insofar as it is a generally positive piece which, among other things, highlights tourism geography's inherent 'criticality, pervasiveness and scope to catalyse cutting-edge research' (p.13).

Thirty five participants attended the seminar, most of whom were UK-based academic researchers working in the field of tourism geographies although intrepid researchers from Belgium, Finland, Hungary, Latvia and Spain also made it to Bristol especially for the event. As well as attracting some well-known, established researchers working in the tourism geographies area, there was also a strong representation of PhD candidates which very much added to the discussion-based atmosphere of the day.

Following an opening session from CeLTS Director Professor Cara Aitchison and seminar organisers Dr Julie Wilson and Dr María Angeles Casado-Díaz, the first academic session of the day was a highly thought-provoking presentation from Professor Richard Butler from Strathclyde University entitled 'Tourism Geographies – Geographies of Tourism – Where the Bloody Hell are You/We?'. Continuing this analytical review of the state of the field, Dr Tim Gale of CeLTS presented his research on urban beaches, virtual worlds and 'the end of tourism' and Dr Jim Butcher of Canterbury Christ Church University gave a presentation on life politics and 'ethical' tourism.

In the first afternoon session, Adi Weidenfeld (University of Exeter), Susanna Curtin (Bournemouth University) and Dr Sheena Carlisle-Gaye (University of Wales Institute,

Cardiff) gave some excellent insights from their recent research, ranging from competition, cooperation and knowledge transfer between visitor attractions to tourist-wildlife encounters and the conflicting dynamics of beach tourism in The Gambia. Unfortunately, scheduled presentations from Stephen Page (Stirling; keynote), Gordon Waitt (Wollongong) and Antonio Paolo Russo / Salvador Anton Clavé (Rovira i Virgili Tarragona) did not go ahead at the last minute and we hope to be able to include these in future ATLAS TG SIG events.

The second afternoon session was a participative round table panel debate on the current state of research and scholarship in tourism geographies, chaired by Dr Greg Richards of CeLTS. The panel comprised four very prominent names in the field of tourism geographies – Prof. Jarkko Saarinen of the University of Oulu and chair of the IGU Commission on the Geography of Tourism, Leisure and Global Change; Dr Jacky Tivers of Nottingham Trent University and chair of the Geography of Leisure and Tourism Research Group (IBG-RGS); Dr Erlet Cater of the University of Reading and tourism adviser to the Royal Geographical Society and Prof. Kevin Hannam of the University of Sunderland and editor of the journal 'Mobilities'.

Following these brief individual inputs from each panellist, the discussion was opened up to the floor leading to some salient and timely debate among participants. In the final session of the day, CeLTS director Prof. Cara Aitchison provided an insightful and detailed round-up of the day's presentations and discussions.

After the close of the academic sessions, an informal meeting was held of the new ATLAS Tourism Geographies SIG where the potential activities of the group were discussed and interest was flagged for the hosting of future TG SIG events.

Finally, there was an early evening wine reception to celebrate the CeLTS book launch. We would like to thank everyone who attended the day and especially thanks to the CeLTS team – Cara Aitchison, Tim Gale, Stroma Cole, Greg Richards, Sally Everett, Jennifer Hill, Fiona Jordan, Anja Dalton and Julie Triggle. Thanks also to Elinor Robertson / Channel View Publications and IB Tauris Publishers for supporting the event.

As well as hosting this ATLAS event, CeLTS was also recently jointly awarded an ESRC grant for a Seminar Series on 'Tourism, Inequality and Social Justice' along with UWIC and Stirling, the first seminar of which was hosted at UWE in February of this year. For more information on future events or other CeLTS activities, please visit www.celts.uwe.ac.uk

For further information about the ATLAS Tourism Geographies SIG or to join the group please contact us (details below). We would be delighted to hear from any ATLAS members with an interest in the geographical / spatial / mobilities aspects of tourism or indeed from those who would like to be involved in this new SIG in some way.

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Volunteer Tourism Research Group

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Proposal for new ATLAS Special Interest Group

The concept of volunteering has a long and established history in many subject areas; the volunteering literatures closest to (and often overlapping) tourism are: Leisure (Parker 1992; Stebbins 1992; Stebbins and Graham 2004); Sport (Sport England 1996; Cuskelly and Harrington 1997; Gratton and Kokolakakis 1999; Coleman 2002; Sport England 2003) and Events (Johnston, Twynam et al. 1999; Solberg 2003; Ralston, Lumsdon et al. 2005). The volunteering experience from these subject areas tends to be from the concept of 'traditional volunteering'. The notion of traditional volunteering is supported by Cnaan *et al.,* (1996) who outline four key dimensions: free choice, remuneration, structure and intended beneficiaries. The definition offered by Stebbins and Graham (2004:5) is built from these four dimensions

> *Volunteering is uncoerced help offered either formally or informally with no or, at most token pay done for the benefit of both other people and the volunteer*

Volunteering in tourism also has examples in the literature from this traditional route. For example Graham and Foley (1998) discuss volunteers working in museums in Glasgow and similar work has been done by Orr (2006). Unlike volunteering in other sectors, the opportunities available for volunteering in the tourism domain usually encompass the notion of 'payment' ((Wearing 2003; Benson 2004; Tourism Research and Marketing (TRAM) 2008). The extent to which this influences the concept of 'volunteering' from both the demand and supply side has yet to be fully theorised.

The growth in volunteer tourism has produced a range of resources and publications from descriptive books that offer lists of companies offering volunteer projects; to an extensive range of websites offering information, support services and projects. More recently academic activity has grown with the emergence of academic books, journal articles and the recently launched (2007) *Journal of International Volunteer Tourism and Social Development.*

This sector has seen a proliferation of organisations moving into this market place. Whilst many of the volunteering opportunities are often linked to charitable organisations, it is also evident that some of the growth in this sector is by profit-making companies, and whilst some of these can be linked to social entrepreneurship others are purely commercial. The projects on offer are wide ranging: social, community conservation, ecological health and educational. The marketplace is already becoming segmented with programmes being directed towards, individuals, families, groups, students (in particular

the gap year students), career breaks and the corporate market. With an ever growing myriad of pricing structures, for example, organisations are now advertising: free projects (although you have to buy your own flights); discounted projects; and low cost projects, whilst other organisations just quote a price.

There are concerns that this growth brings ethical and moral dilemmas. Volunteer tourism has tended to concentrate on international tourism from rich western countries (UK, USA and Australia) to developing countries. To what extent is it beneficial to host communities? Do volunteers possess the skills to 'make a difference'? Or is any advice/help better than not at all? To what extent is volunteer tourism subject to 'green wash' marketing by industry in order to capture a larger percentage of the travel market?

The voice of the volunteer will be important in such (and many other) discussions; already there is growing evidence that volunteers are concerned over what their payment contributes towards. Does it aid host communities development? Concerns over the type of organisation they travel with and the extent to which these organisations consider surplus profits or the triple bottom line. The role of fundraising within the payment made to organisations and the extent to which this is ethically sound are all part of a growing rhetoric by volunteers.

Consequently, the Volunteer Tourism Special Interest Group's overall purpose is: To provide a network for critical discussion on volunteering within the tourism sector
Main Aims:
- To identify, synthesise and discuss problem areas
- To advance volunteer tourism research
- To develop best practice case study material
- To provide a platform for critical discussion
- To disseminate research findings

Possible topics:
- Ambiguities and boundaries of volunteer tourism – theoretical framework
- Traditional volunteering in tourism and volunteer tourism (Voluntourism)
- Exploring ethical boundaries
- Reviewing / developing sets of guidelines / advice notes on ethics in volunteerism
- Interaction between Profit and Non-profit organisations
- Corporate Philanthropy and its role in volunteer tourism
- Volunteer typologies, motivations and behaviour
- Host – guest (volunteer) encounters
- The development and marketing of volunteer tourism
- Volunteer tourism in domestic markets

Refinement of the above topics and identification of additional topics will be developed through SIG meetings

Main activities
- Inaugural meeting
- Expert meetings and special conference sessions
- Call for papers – journal special issue
- Publication from conference sessions

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Volume 1: Tourism and Nature in Africa (160 pp.)
Volume 2: Local communities and participation in African tourism (117 pp.)
Volume 3: Aspect of tourism in Kenya (117 pp.)
Arnhem: ATLAS

Richards G. and Wilson J. (eds) (2008)
From cultural tourism to creative tourism – Part 1, 2, 3 and 4
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