CHAPTER II

DEFINITION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 DEFINING TOURISM

As any complex phenomenon, tourism also lends itself to a wide variety of definitions. Within the literature on the subject, debates exist over definitions of tourism components, as well as its definition in a more holistic sense. Ultimately, these differences are rooted in the necessity to develop definitions of tourism for measurement and statistical purposes while at the same time considering the concepts required for understanding the phenomenon as a whole. One important clarification that one must be made clear, prior to any further discussion on this topic, centers on the meanings of tourism planning and tourism development. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably; this thesis considers tourism planning and tourism development to be different.

This difference is noted and demonstrated by Sheehan (1991). In Sheehan’s opinion, tourism planning, in most cases, refers to the activities of the public sector in promoting and managing tourism growth. Like traditional land-use planning, these promotion and management activities are viewed as being in the public good. However, Sheehan (1991) also argues that tourism development can occur with or without formal planning activities and goes on to suggest that the presence of tourism development and the absence of tourism planning is one explanation behind many of the failures that tourism has encountered. The researcher acknowledges and agrees with the difference between tourism planning and tourism development. To provide clarity to the remainder of the thesis with respect to the meanings of tourism planning and tourism development, the following definitions have been developed:

Tourism Development: growth in tourism that is facilitated by groups or individuals but is uncontrolled, has no specific goals, and occurs without regard to specific tourism plans.
Tourism Planning: growth of tourism that is facilitated and occurs through the deliberate actions of groups or individuals, that is controlled has specific goals, that make reference to specific tourism plans, and that through its growth will contribute to the general good of the community.

2.2 PURPORTS OF TOURIST, TOURISM

Although tourism is economically, socially and politically important, there is still debate over what tourism exactly is and who a tourist is. This can be seen in the range of definitions of tourism that can be found in the literature.

Tourism is defined as a composite of activities, services and industries that delivers a travel experience to individuals and groups travelling fifty miles or more from their homes for purposes of pleasure.

The business sectors comprising the tourism industry include: transportation, accommodations, eating and drinking establishments, shops, entertainment venues, activity facilities and a variety of hospitality service providers who cater to individuals or groups travelling away from home.

Tourism product is not produced by a single business, non-profit organization or government agency; rather, it is defined as “a satisfying visitor experience”. This definition encompasses every activity and experience that a tourist encounters during his or her entire trip away from home.

2.2.1 Tourist:

In 1925, the UN Committee of Census recognized the following people as tourists.

1. Those who travel for recreation, personal or medical purposes.
2. Those who travel to overseas countries to attend conferences, visit habitations, attend religious ceremonies; participate in sporting events and competitions, etc.
3. Those who travel for marketing and commercial purposes.
4. Those who travel by sea and stay in a port for 24 hours.
In 1933, in one of the first books that was published about Tourism, a tourist is defined as a person who has two conditions, first he/she stays for less than one year in a different place than his own place, and second he/she does not have any income in that place.

In 1936, in the book ‘tourism Industry’, ‘tourist’ referred to an individual who travels all around overseas with an aim of business other than what he does in his home and spends some portion of his income there.

One commonly used definition of a tourist (and hence tourism) is that of the World Tourism Organization (WTO).

“Persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (WTO, 2002).

This is a technical definition, which was created to harmonise the different national tourism statistics. Furthermore, it is a demand side definition. Attempts at a supply-side definition have been made but these are also disputed. For example, Smith has developed a definition:

“Tourism is the aggregate of all business that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment” (Smith, 1988).

Domestic tourism “is the tourism of resident visitors within the economic territory of the country of reference” (WTO, 2000). International tourism, on the other hand, consists of all trips that tourists make to a country other than that in which they are residents (WTO, 2000)

The demand and supply sides of tourism can also be mapped spatially. Leiper (1979) describes tourism as a system consisting of a generating region, a destination region and a transit zone. Tourists and the tourism industry can be found in all of the regions in the system. At the generating region a tourist’s need or motivation to go on holiday develops, which leads the potential tourist to gather information about destinations and activities, and to book or purchase elements of the holiday. The tourism industry is also present in the generating region, for example travel agents, tour operators
and transport providers. The tourism industry in the transit zone will mainly consist of transport operators but also of hospitality services. At the destination, the tourist uses the hospitality services, participates in activities and visits attractions. Attractions can range from the natural to the artificial. Artificial attractions may be historical, cultural or purpose built for tourism. Aspects of the natural environment that are attractions for tourism include climate, landscape, beaches, the sea and lakes and mountains (Mieczkowski, 1990). Smith (1979), states that his definition depicts tourism as a retail-service industry. Nonetheless, the supply-side of tourism embodies more than just businesses; inherent features of destinations are also “supplied” to tourists.

Gilvie, one of the eminent economic exports of Europe defines ‘tourist’ as all the individuals who leave their own country for other countries and stay there for less than a year and earn no money or income for their expenditure.

There are various definitions of ‘tourist’ from different perspectives of sociologists and geographers. To keep a unitary definition, in 1963, in the UN Conference of Rome, the following definition was used: “Tourist is a person who visits a country other than his country provided that he/she is not to start a job or earn an income, and that he stays there for at least 24 hours and at most 3 months. The reasons of his travel shall not exclude recreation, rest, spending vacation, medical purposes, treatment, religious purposes, sporting, family affairs, mission, and participating in conferences.

2.2.2 Tourism:

The word ‘tourism’ in French refers to expedition and touring around in a foreign country. This word is derived from the term ‘tourist’

The World Tourism Organization has defined tourism in the form of a visitor: visitors are the people who travel to the other countries other than their home country and follow goals other than what they have back at home. This group includes tourists and those who go on short vacation and recreational trips.

In March 1993, the UN Statistical Commission accepted the definition given by the World Tourism Organization. Based on the above definition, tourism is a set of
activities of the people who travel to places out of their home country for recreation, rest and other affairs and do not stay there for more than one whole year.

2.2.3 Tourism Typology:

Considering the time of travelling facilities and services the tourists have in mind, different seasons of travelling, and different motivations have developed different kinds of touring, and the tourism agencies to attract more and more tourists with different interests have innovatively launched different tours. Therefore, one can face different forms of tourism whose types are distinguishable. For example, time, place, motivation, purpose, and visiting methods are among these factors that create variety of forms in tourism. For instance, the factor of time can develop two types of tours: winter tours and summer tours; the how of travelling identifies another type of touring: by boat, by ship, by car, by motorcycle, by bicycle, by air …etc. The facilities and services which tourists demand have created new ideas and much improvement in entertainment and activities in this industry.

Defining tourist types have also been called segmentation, classification and clustering. “Identifying distinct tourist types is beneficial for the planning, management and marketing of tourism” (Glen T.Hvenegaard, 2002).

“Tourist typology information allows managers to address different motivations, experiences, and imports of tourist types and to understand which tourist types are more likely to be found at different stages in the evolution of tourism area” (Glen T.Hvenegaard, 2002). Furthermore, in terms of sustainability, it is necessary to use a tourism typology to match tourism types to resource capabilities.

Theoretically, Murphy (1985) identifies two general categories of tourist typologies, international and cognitive-normative (Lowyck et.al, 1992). Make a parallel distinction between typologies of the tourist per se, and the typologies of tourist lifestyles. First, interactional tourist typologies are primarily based on the interactions between the tourists and the destination. Second, cognitive-normative tourist typologies focus on the travel motivation of tourists. For the former, we can point to Cohen’s proposal (1972); he proposes a four-part tourist typology, based on the tourist’s desire for familiarity and the level of institutionalization preferred.
We can use Plog’s (1972) typology approach as an example for the latter. He recognized Allocentric (adventuresome, individual travel), mid-centric (individual travel to destinations with facilities), and psychocentric (packaged holidays to popular destinations), depending on how tourists conform to societal or individual desires.

One of the main concerns in tourism debate is the difference that exists in tourism Typology. These differences have created a variety of patterns in tourism, in spite of the complications, it greatly aids in understanding the classification of tourists, their motives, behavior and choice of destination.

Williams (Stephan Williams 2001) lists four kinds of tourists in the field of tourist typology, which are listed as below:

- Packaged tourists.
- Small group or individual tourists.
- Individual travelers and exploratory.
- Drifters.

There is another classification of tourism to explain tourism more appropriately nominal classification that focuses on tourist and recreational attractions including:

- Ecotourism
- Adventure Tourism
- Cultural Tourism
- Getaway and stay

Therefore, a combination of such factors, along with other demands, needs and purposes, forms various types of tours the most important of which under nominal classification will be discussed here under:

2.2.4 Ecotourism:

Nature-based tourism, increasingly called ‘ecotourism’ one of the fastest growing sectors of tourism worldwide is fast gaining the attention of developed and developing countries as a potential means to conserve natural resources and support sustainable
economic progress. Particularly in areas with stagnant or recessionary economics, ecotourism is being looked at as a promising means to protect wildlife and ecosystems, to maintain rural aesthetic character, to provide economic alternatives to resource extraction activities, and to gain income for local communities.

Ecotourism is often used to describe any enterprise or initiative that links tourism and nature and is used interchangeably with phrases such as ‘green tourism’, ‘wildness tourism’, ‘adventure tourism’, ‘ecological tourism’ and even ‘sustainable tourism’. Some authors are skeptical about the authenticity of the word ‘ecotourism’, acknowledging the temptation for tour operators to use the ecotag as a means of identifying ecotourism with responsible consumerism, in the interests of increased sales (Wight, 1994).

2.2.5 Health Tourism:

The intention of these trips is to go to places that can provide all medical and health care services for the tourists. The centers which have the ability to offer these services will be very successful in attracting a lot of visitors.

Health tourism is the attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract tourists by deliberately promoting health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular tourist amenities. These health-care services may include medical exams, hydrotherapy, special diet, etc. Based on this explanation, there are many countries with health-care tourism facilities, such as Switzerland, Germany, Australia, Hungary, Britain, and the U.S.A. Many health tourism facilities have been developed around mineral/thermal springs and health spas. Today, the health tourism market in Europe spans two different segments-those visiting spas and health resorts for primarily medical reasons, and those for purposes more akin to traditional tourism.

The factors that most influence a consumer’s choice of a spa are: a) ambience of the destination, b) location and access, c) spa programs and facilities, d) characteristics of the visitors to this destination (e.g. average age of the visitors).

Health tourism facilities may function 12 months a year, giving services such as: medical examinations, hydrotherapy (e.g. bathing, inhalations, and note risings), aquatics, physiotherapy, exercise or movement, natural therapeutics Auxiliary facilities are now
having a major impact on the preference of a tourist destination, and as a result they are very important elements for the future development of spa/health resorts. Treatment facilities can be used not only for spa treatments and cures but also for programs that refresh and revitalize the body and mind. Those programs refer to: reducing weight, quitting smoking and drinking, eliminating or reducing stress, skin treatment, muscle development, etc.

The nature of the services provided by spa/health resorts are not only defined by the chemical characteristics of water, but also by the geographical position of the springs. The chemical characteristics are closely related to the specific treatment offered, whereas the geographical position is related to the characteristics of the auxiliary facilities, which should help in the creation of a special identity for the resort.

2.2.6 Cultural Tourism:

Travel to experience the arts or history of a location or travel to immerse oneself in the language, society or culture of a religion. It generally focuses on traditional communities who have diverse custom, unique form of art and distinct social practices, which basically distinguishes it from other types/forms of culture. Cultural tourism in urban area particularly includes historic or large cities and their cultural facilities such as museums and theatres.

2.2.7 Social Tourism:

In this type of tourism, the main objective is cultural cultivation, anthropology and sociology. Furthermore, visiting relatives is another purpose that is followed.

2.2.8 Sustainable tourism:

"Sustainable tourism is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological and diversity and life support systems." (World Tourism Organization)

Sustainable development implies "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) (Retrieved, 2009)
2.2.9 Pro-poor tourism:

The pro poor tourism has to help the very poorest. In developing countries it has been receiving increasing attention by those involved in development and the issue has been addressed either through small scale projects in local communities and by Ministries of Tourism attempting to attract huge numbers of tourists. Research by the Overseas Development Institute suggests that neither is the best way to encourage tourists' money to reach the poorest as only 25% or less (far less in some cases) ever reaches the poor; successful examples of money reaching the poor include mountain climbing in Tanzania or cultural tourism in Luang Prabang, Laos.(Jonathan Michel,2009)

2.2.10 Recession tourism:

Recession tourism is a travel trend, which evolved by way of the world economic crisis. Identified by American entrepreneur Matt Landau (2007), recession tourism is defined by low-cost, high-value experiences taking place in once-popular generic retreats. Various recession tourism hotspots have seen business boom during the recession thanks to comparatively low costs of living and a slow world job market suggesting travelers are elongating trips where their money travels further.

2.2.11 Medical tourism:

When there is a significant price difference between countries for a given medical procedure, particularly in Southeast Asia, India, Eastern Europe and where there are different regulatory regimes, in relation to particular medical procedures (e.g. dentistry), traveling to take advantage of the price or regulatory differences is often referred to as "medical tourism"

2.2.12 Educational tourism:

Educational tourism developed, because of the growing popularity of teaching and learning of knowledge and the enhancing of technical competency outside of the classroom environment. In educational tourism, the main focus of the tour or leisure activity includes visiting another country to learn about the culture, such as in Student Exchange Programs and Study Tours, or to work and apply skills learned inside the
classroom in a different environment, such as in the International Practicum Training Program

2.2.13 **Creative tourism:**

Creative tourism has existed as a form of cultural tourism, since the early beginnings of tourism itself. Its European roots date back to the time of the Grand Tour, which saw the sons of aristocratic families traveling for the purpose of mostly interactive, educational experiences. More recently, creative tourism has been given its own name by Crispin Raymond and Greg Richards,(2009) who as members of the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS), have directed a number of projects for the European Commission, including cultural and crafts tourism, known as sustainable tourism. They have defined "creative tourism" as tourism related to the active participation of travelers in the culture of the host community, through interactive workshops and informal learning experiences.(Wurzburger ,Redecca,2009)

2.2.14 **Dark tourism:**

One emerging area of special interest has been identified by Lennon and Foley (2000) as "dark" tourism. This type of tourism involves visits to "dark" sites, such as battlegrounds, scenes of horrific crimes or acts of genocide, for example: concentration camps. Dark tourism remains a small niche market, driven by varied motivations, such as mourning, remembrance, education, macabre curiosity or even entertainment. Its early origins are rooted in fairgrounds and medieval fairs (Cooper, Chris, 2005).

2.2.15 **Doom tourism:**

Also known as "Tourism of Doom," or "Last Chance Tourism" this emerging trend involves traveling to places that are environmentally or otherwise threatened (the ice caps of Mount Kilimanjaro, the melting glaciers of Patagonia, The coral of the Great Barrier Reef ) before it is too late. Identified by travel trade magazine Travel Age West editor-in-chief Kenneth Shapiro in 2007 and later explored in The New York Times, this type of tourism is believed to be on the rise. Some see the trend as related to sustainable tourism or ecotourism due to the fact that a number of these tourist destinations are considered threatened by environmental factors such as global warming, over population
or climate change. Others worry that travel to many of these threatened locations increases an individual’s carbon footprint and only hastens the problems the threatened locations are already facing.

2.2.16 Pilgrims and Religious Tourism:

One of the wide spread tourism is religious tourism. The religious attraction and ceremonies of people is much related to their culture. Some religions have special places for doing the required ceremonies, such as Macca and Madina.

2.2.17 Business Tourism:

The tips which are taken for commercial and economic reasons are named business tourism. Participation in these activities and visiting the different national or international exhibitions makes some opportunities for those participatnts to visit the city and its tourist attraction places.

2.2.18 Political Tourism:

This has been defined as diplomatic travelling of state or country’s officials to participate in international assemblies and conferences, national and burial ceremonies of state leaders, political leaders and ceremonies of independence of the countries and swearing - in ceremonies.

2.2.19 Sports Tourism:

The term ‘sports tourism’ has been defined as “travel away from home to play or watch sport or to visit a sports attraction and including both competitive and non-competitive activities”. It might be said to comprise two main areas:

1. Participation in individual or team sporting events. Whilst sport is a major element of recreation, many regular participants of sports seek to enjoy their sport in a different setting while on holiday. For example, they may seek to play on a different golf course, or to devote more time to their sport. For many people a holiday is also seen as an excellent opportunity to try out a new sport, perhaps one that is water-based and not available at home, or to learn a new skill (e.g. deep sea diving).
2. Sport spectator travel. This may be to regular annual events (such as the Monaco Grand Prix, French Open Tennis) or to occasional events (such as the Olympic Games, Rugby World Cup, International Cricket Tours, etc). Fans want to see just the sporting spectacle but also their heroes in action. Audience participation in sport certainly extends back to the Ancient Greeks.

2.2.20 Urban Tourism:

Based on the environment resulting from the type of activities that in turn influence other civil activities through which the city gets its fame and name cities are divided: Vacation cities, artistic museum cities, festival and conference cities, cultural cities, religious cities, pilgrim cities, recovery and healing cities, snow cities and retirement cities.

2.2.21 Rural Tourism:

The characteristics of such travels are the experience which tourists gain by living a new and totally different life. Tourists learn the way people live their life and keep themselves away from the hectic life of cities.

2.2.22 Adventure Tourism:

A form of natural-based tourism that incorporates an element of risk, higher levels of physical exertion, and the need for specialized skill.

2.3 NEW ERA TRAVELS

Some tourist managers of collective tours arrange programs to make passengers (tourists) think about transcendentalist world of being and get away from the material world and reflect on the profound meaning of life. The new era travels include those with cultural, healthcare, and sightseeing purposes to gain energy.
2.3.1 The Kinds of Tourists:

Valence Smith in 1977 divides tourists into six groups:

1. Ethnic Tourist
2. Historical Tourist
3. Resting Tourist
4. Artistic Tourist
5. Naturist Tourist
6. Business Tourist

Most tourists have a combination of purpose and travel i.e multipurpose.

The Kinds of Tourism Based on Political and Geographical Limitation

Accordingly, tourism can be divided into two general groups: Overseas tours and Domestic tours, though the phrase ‘Domestic Tours’ might not look proper, and perhaps ‘Domestic Journeys’ can best replace it.

2.3.2 Foreign Tourism:

When the activities of tourism whose vectors, that is the tourists, either from the source or the destination, deal with expanses outside the political domain of a country. In other words, the entrance of foreign people to a country and the exit of residents of a country to another or other countries with the tourist targets compose international or foreign tourism of that country.

2.3.3 Domestic Tourism:

Unlike foreign tourism, the domestic one refers to a set of journeys with a motivation and objectives of touring around in the defined framework of scientific definition in the domestic political territory and borders by the citizens of that country. The governments’ policies of tourism on these two groups of tourists are different because foreign tourists have a spectrum of demands and expectations which the domestic tourist may not have developed or which they do not consider important as the foreign tourists do.
2.4 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

About 233 years has passed since the first book was written on tourism entitled “the first tourist guidebook” in 1778 by Thomas Nognet. Most of the work in tourism for first time was done from 1950 onwards. In the United States research was conducted on the effect of tourism on economy in 1930s during post-war. In the United Kingdom little research was done on tourism and entertainment until 1960.

One of the most important studies conducted in the field of tourism is the research by Gilbert (1939-1949) on the recreational places near sea. In Canada in the same period of time geographical studies in tourism were performed mainly by Wolf (1964). He was the one whose primary work on housing in Ontario was the basis of his later geographical studies on second house (Coppack, 1997).

However, Williams and Zelinsky (1970) stated that all the studies in the field of tourism are basically limited to description and analysis of the internal aspect of the region. They, in fact, stipulated that studies in tourism should be conducted concerning economic development. Increasing rate of tourism, importance of tourism in combining information and the attitudes, and also the potential power of tourism in the future for changing the patterns of immigration, money equilibrium, using the land and social-economic structure, developing transportation by the third millennium jet and all the other development in travels should be taken into account and that little heed is presently paid to transportation of tourist by geographers, anthropologists, demographists and other social scientists.

In the last 35 years, there has been a proliferation of tourism impacts studies in a variety of destinations. This attention to tourism impacts is warranted as it aids those individuals involved in the planning, policymaking, and marketing strategies for tourism destinations make informed decisions that benefit not only the visitors to a destination but also the host community (Ap, 1992). Moreover, the understanding of host community’s perception of tourism impacts is important as these attitudes can be both positive and negative in nature (Ali Movahed, 2002).

Tourism Impacts on Host Communities as communities turn to tourism as the means to raising income, increase employment and living standards; they have begun to
feel the diverse effects of the industry (Akis, Peristatnis & Warner, 1996). Davison (1996) notes that tourism production and consumption take place in the same location. Therefore, the tourist consumes the product in the tourist destination. As a result, tourism impacts are spatially concentrated in the host community. These impacts are very visible as tourists interact with the local environment, economy, and society. Hence, it is conventional to consider the impacts of tourism under the headings of social, economic and environmental impacts.

The impacts of tourism can be either positive and beneficial, or negative and detrimental to the host community. Whether impacts are perceived as positive or negative depends on the judgment an observer of the impacts places upon it. For example, it is possible for a local resident to view large number of tourists in one place as socially exciting and good for the economy. However, for another, large numbers of tourists creates feelings of crowding and therefore undesirable.

It is standard practice for researchers and policy makers to consider both the positive and negative effects of tourism. Wall (1997) suggested that negative impacts of tourism will always outweigh the positive effects; however residents still want visitors to their community for the economic benefits of job creation and an increased tax base for increased city services. Thus, residents will prepare themselves to tolerate some negative impacts in return for what they regard as desirable positive impacts. Thus, trade-offs are often involved in relation to tourism impacts.

The economic impacts of tourism are the most widely researched impacts of tourism on a destination (Mason, 2003; Pearce, 1989). The multiplier effect has been widely used to access the positive effects of tourism. The multiplier can be defined as secondary economic impacts beyond the original expenditure made by the visitor (Starr, 2002). Thus, tourism dollars are cycled in the immediate community. The higher the multiplier, the more successful the tourism economy is in the host community. The antithesis to the multiplier effect is the concept of leakage. Leakage suggests the existence of a weak tourism economy or a lack of control on its performance (WTO, 2004). An example of leakage is foreign ownership of a lodging business where the dollars spent by guests do not benefit a local resident owner.
More specific positive economic impacts of tourism also can include an increased standard of living for residents, contributions to government revenues through an increased tax base, and creation of local jobs. Further negative economic impacts include inflation of goods and services. Prices for goods increase when tourists place extra demands on local services. These higher prices may make many goods and services unaffordable for locals in the host community (Mason, 2003). There is also a fear of over dependence on tourism which is a negative impact of tourism. Over dependence can occur when tourism is seen by the government as the best method of economic development. Over time, the emphasis on tourism becomes such that there is no other possible approach to economic development. As a result, the host community becomes greatly dependent on tourism revenue to the extent that any change is likely to lead to a major economic crisis (Mason, 2003).

Society and culture also play important roles in the consideration of tourism impacts upon a host community. The social impacts of tourism can be more difficult to assess as they are more of a subjective or qualitative measure of impacts on a destination as opposed to quantitative economic measurement (Mason, 2003). Social impacts address how the host community perceives tourism in relation to various social and cultural issues (Akis et.al., 1996). One of the more significant social effects of tourism is referred to as the demonstration effect. This hypothesizes that by simply viewing or interacting with tourists in their communities, individuals will change their own behaviors. At the dawn of the mass tourism age in the early 1970s, researchers believed interaction between host communities and tourists to be a positive force (Mason, 2003). Tourism was viewed as a “noble instrument” for achieving global and national understanding among the people from different backgrounds, cultures and societies (WTO, 2004). Thus, social interaction is a valuable experience for the host community (Akis, Peristants & Warner, 1996). Other positive social and culture tourism impacts include the renewal in cultural through interactions with local residents. Thus, this social interaction can lead to a rebirth of cultural pride and heritage.

However, this also can have negative social implications through the process of accusation. This theory states “when cultures come into contact for any length of time, an exchange of ideas and products will take place that, through time, produce varying levels
of convergence between the cultures; that is they become similar” (William, 1998, p.153). Thus, a loss of the unique cultural identity in a host community may occur as a result of the interactions with tourists. Crowing, noise and crime are also considered to be negative consequences of tourism (Akis et.al., 1996; Chen, 2001; WTO, 2004). Large numbers of tourists to a host community can also bring feelings of crowding and increased noise; tourists can also be viewed as vulnerable targets for crime and may suffer undesirable behaviors by residents.

The environment is being increasingly recognized as a key factor in tourism (Liu et. al., 1987). Many host community attractions and tourism offerings have a reliance on the natural and man-made resources (Starr, 2002). The environmental impacts of tourism on a destination can take the form of both the quality of the physical environment and access to these resources (Mason, 2003). Conventionally, positive environmental impacts of tourism on a host community include increased awareness of the environment and measures to protect the natural resources, the establishment of national parks or wildlife preserves, the preservation of historical buildings and monuments, and improved roads and other public facilities (Liu et.al., 1987; Mason, 2003).

The funds to maintain or improve the quality of these resources usually come in the form of entrance or user fees. These fees can limit resident access and therefore are an example of a negative environmental impact of tourism. Formally public areas such as trails, roads, or natural areas which may have restrictions on use, may now require a use fee, or are prohibited to public access altogether (WTO, 2004). Additional negative environmental impacts frequently considered are litter, overcrowding, traffic congestion and noise, water and soil pollution and the deterioration of natural resources due to the construction of tourism services, such as hotels (Liu et.al., 1987; Mason, 2003).

2.5 THEORETICAL APPROACHES

A number of theoretical approaches have been offered to explain why host communities respond to tourism impacts as they do and under what conditions they react to these impacts (Ap, 1992). The main theories driving the literature in tourism impacts are community attachment, growth machine theory, and social exchange theory.
2.6 COMMUNITY ATTACHMENT

The theory of community attachment can be defined as the “extent and pattern of social participation and integration into community life, and sentiment or affect towards the community” (McCool & Martin, 1994, p.30). Generally, tourism research has examined tourism impacts and community attachment from negative perspectives as tourism has the potential to undermine the quality of life (Harrill, 2004). Thus, it is hypothesized in the confines of this theory that the more residents are attached to their community, the more negatively they will view tourism’s impacts and development (Harrill, 2004).

Research confirming the theory has been mixed. Um and Crompton (1987) found support for the hypothesis that more attached residents will perceive tourism impacts negatively and not be in favor of its development. They state that except for environmental areas, the more attached the residents were to a community in terms of length of residence, birthplace and heritage; the less positively they viewed tourism development in their area.

However, McCool, and Martin (1994) find the opposite. They define community attachment by measuring length of residence and regional identity. In their sample, the highly attached residents actually view tourism development more favorably than those less attached. Jurowski, Uysal, and Williams (1997) address community attachment through a quality of life perspective and asked respondents to rate the levels of satisfaction of their communities as a place to live. They also found that the more attached residents were to their community the more likely they were to positively view the tourism impacts. However, only the social and economic areas were viewed favorably, while the environmental impacts were negatively viewed.

Harrill and Potts (2003) in a study on the history of Charleston, attached residents had negative attitudes towards tourism development as they perceived a loss of investment. These perceived economic losses vocalized as primary in real estate will increase property taxes and special taxes to fund tourism development.
2.7 GROWTH MACHINE THEORY

Growth machine theory aids tourism planners in identifying those variables that promote or hinder economic development (Harrill, 2004). The study by Canan and Hennessy (1989) revealed that tourism officials who develop tourism identified with economic values such as education and employment, while residents in favor of tourism development focus on social and cultural values such as family and self-sufficiency, while residents not in favor of tourism development fell somewhere in the middle.

The theory can also be particularly useful in explaining difference on tourism development and perceived impacts between average residents and industry elites (Harrill, 2004). For example, permanent residents may be more supportive of tourism development than seasonal residents (Gree, Marcouiller, Delle, Erkkila and Sumathi, 1996). In addition, Martin, McGuire, and Allen (1998) found retirees to be less supportive of tourism development and identified more with the negative impacts of tourism. They conclude that those who do not receive real economic gain from the tourism growth will not support further development. Although empirical research has not utilized this theoretical approach very often, this theory may become more useful in future for research as tourism “grows as an economic development force” (Harrill, 2004, p.261).

2.8 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Perhaps the most predominatnly utilized theory in the literature of tourism impacts is social exchange theory. This involves the trading and sharing of resources between individuals and groups (Harrill, 2004). This theory is growth machine theory. It is based on the assumption that tourism development will be supported when the benefits, such as economic benefits, outweigh the costs of sharing environmental and social resources with tourists (Harrill, 2004). However, there is some evidence that residents seek environmental benefits more than economic or social (Liu and Var, 1986). Hence, the theory helps to create a clear relationship between perceived impacts and support for tourism development (Perdue et al., 1990). States that, exchange between hosts and tourists may result in an unbalance. Host communities may feel exploited and feel they
are on the losing end of the tourist/host relationship (Sutton, 1967). This leads to a point of diminishing returns for host communities and negatively perceived impacts (Harrill, 2004).

Therefore, it assumes that hosts enter an exchange with the purpose of “gaining” or “winning” in the end (McGehee and Andereck, 2004). This assumption has inherent limitations. It assumes that residents welcome tourists to their destinations only with the hopes of gaining economically from their tourism dollars. It does not take into account those host communities who may support tourism knowing they will not gain from it at all (McGehee and Andereck, 2004). Moreover, social exchange theory also assumes that all parties enter into an exchange with enough information to believe they have made the correct decision. However, in reality, lack of enough or correct information is common (McGehee and Andereck, 2004).

Perdue et al. (1990) were among the first researchers to use social exchange theory to address impacts in a tourism setting. When controlling for an individual’s personal benefit from tourism, they revealed that support for tourism development was negatively related to perceived negative impacts such as traffic, increases in property taxes, crime, unfair increases in real estate taxes, and quality of outdoor recreation opportunities. In addition, they found that host community support for tourism was positively related to perceived positive impacts such as an improved local economy, quality of life and resident recreational opportunities.

Chen (2000) also finds consistent results with social exchange theory and the results of Perdue et al. (1990). He identifies residents as either “loyal” or “nonloyal” to tourism development. Loyal residents were operationally defined as more predisposed to support the attraction of tourists into the community than nonloyal residents. Those loyal were more likely to assert that positive tourism impacts outweigh any negative and they were less likely to agree that tourism development would lead to further friction between hosts and tourists in their destination (Chen, 2000). Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) find that when the exchange of the economic, social and environmental resources is at least balanced for the host community, tourism is perceived positively by residents. However, they caution that the benefits of tourism may be experienced by only a handful of
individuals in the destination and only those who benefit will be more likely to support its development. In order to have tourism supported by all host members of the community, the benefits of tourism must be evenly distributed (Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003).

McGehee and Andereck (2004) find mixed support for the utilization of social exchange theory. They also find a relationship between personal gain from tourism and support of development; however, they do not find personal benefit to be a significant predictor for tourism planning. This is counterintuitive to social exchange theory. If one has a vested interest in tourism, that individual would want to see that the destination is developed properly or with few restrictions placed on tourism growth. The authors propose two explanations for this finding. They propose that residents have limited trust in the ability of leaders to plan for tourism, or all residents of host communities believe that planning for tourism development is important, regardless of whether or not they feel they personally benefit from it (McGhee and Andereck, 2004).

Other research has also found inconsistent results with social exchange theory such as the study undertaken by Andriotis (2005) on the island of Crete. Using representatives from the tourism business industry as a sample, these individuals descriptively were more likely to perceive the economic benefits more positively and support further development. However, these differences were not statistically significant. In addition, there was no difference between the tourism business groups and residents in terms of perceived tourism impacts. The authors contend this may be due to the site selection for the study. This investigation was conducted at an island destination and tourism may be considered the dominant economic activity. Therefore all members of the host community have to live with tourism and its positive and negative effects (Andriotis, 2005, p.82).

2.9 TOURISM IMPACTS IN RURAL DESTINATIONS

Residents having to “put up” with tourism may be unique to rural destinations. In rural areas, tourism is viewed as a means to revitalize the local economy (Liu and Var, 1986). Hence, a number of studies have used rural tourism destinations as a focus for study and tested models to explore relationships between perceived tourism impacts and
subsequent support (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Gursoy et al., 2002; McGehee and Andereck, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990; Ko and Stewart, 2002; Vogt and Jun, 2004).

2.9.1 Model Development:

The study by Perdue et al. (1990) appears to serve as the basis for other research conducted in rural destinations and for theoretical model building. Their study investigated 16 rural communities for connections between tourism impacts and tourism development. The authors tested a model of relationships between perceived impacts, resident support for additional tourism development and specific tourism development policies. Although the authors do not find any significant differences between residents in terms of resident demographics, this was the first study that recognized that not all residents feel the same about tourism impacts through the inclusion of the variable of perceived personal benefits of tourism. The model, illustrated in Figure 2.1, includes personal benefits from tourism development as an essential variable for explaining attitudes to tourism impacts and support for additional development.

The research team utilized ordinary least squares regression analysis and found personal benefits from tourism development to be a significant predictor for both the positive and negative effects of tourism. Moreover, when controlling for personal benefit, they also found clear relationships between perceived impacts and support for tourism development as well as a distinct relationship between personal benefits and support for additional development.

Figure 2.1: Model of proposed tourism impact relationships (Perdue et al., 1990).
McGehee, Andereck, and Vogt (2002) expand upon the model by Perdue et al. (1990) by considering not only resident characteristics and personal benefit from tourism development as an influence on perceived impacts, but also investigated which variables may also predict support for tourism planning and management. They model, found in Figure 2.2, hypothesis that those in favor of tourism development would also be in favor of tourism planning.

**Figure 2.2: Model for tourism development and tourism planning (McGehee et al., 2002).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resident characteristic</th>
<th>Personal Benefits from Tourism Development</th>
<th>Perceived Positive Effects of Tourism</th>
<th>Support for Additional Tourism Development</th>
<th>Perceive Negative Effects of Tourism</th>
<th>Support for Additional Tourism Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Their sample comprised of residents in twelve communities in Arizona. The authors employ multiple regression analysis to examine the relationships of tourism planning as an explanatory factor. A clear relationship was found between perceived negative impacts and support for tourism planning and between supports for additional tourism development and planning. Interestingly, positive perceived impacts did not significantly predict tourism planning. Thus, residents who recognized the realities of the negative impacts of tourism and who were in support of tourism development were found to be more in favor of tourism planning than residents who felt the positive outweigh the negative impacts.
KO and Stewart (2002) also expand on the model created by Perdue et al. (1990) of hypothesized relationships between resident attitudes to tourism development and perceived impacts by adding an additional latent variable of overall community satisfaction. The authors examine their hypotheses with structural equation modeling (SEM) that proposed directional relationships between the variables. Their model is depicted in figure 2.3.

Participants consisted of residents from Cheju Island, a rural island in Korea. Relationships emerge from their investigation between tourism impacts, community satisfaction, and tourism development. A negative relationship was found between perceived negative tourism impacts and community satisfaction. A positive relationship was found between perceived positive tourism impacts and community satisfaction and a positive relationship between perceived positive tourism impacts and community satisfaction. The same was found for tourism development. Negative relationships were found between negative perceived impacts and tourism development, and positive relationships between perceived positive impacts and tourism development. However, community satisfaction was not found to be a significant predictor of tourism development. The authors conclude that perhaps community satisfaction is misplaced in the model. Community satisfaction may be the end result of perceived tourism impacts and support for tourism development instead of a predictor.

Figure 2.3: Perceived Impacts, tourism support and overall community satisfaction (KO & Stewart, 2002).
Gursoy et al. (2002) also test a model of host community support for tourism development using SEM with a sample of residents around the Mount Rogers National Recreation Area in Southwest Virginia. Their model, found in Figure 2.4, expands on past research by including community concern, attachment, and utilization of tourism resources, concern for the physical environment (labeled as eccentric attitude) and state of the local economy as possible explanatory variables for attitudes towards tourism impacts and support for development. The authors share consistent results with Ko and Steward (2002) and reveal that perceived benefits of tourism were positively correlated with support for tourism development and perceived costs (negative impacts) to be negatively correlated with support for tourism development. Furthermore, their findings reveal that the perceived negative impacts of tourism did not significantly predict lack of support for tourism development. The authors contend that this may be due to the level of tourism development in the area. The Mount Rogers National Recreation Area is in its early developmental stages and residents may be feeling little to no negative impacts.

**Figure 2.4: Determinations of community support (Gursoy et al. 2002)**
Moreover, the findings reveal a positive relationship between perceived benefits from tourism and support for further development. Notably, state of the local economy was found to have the highest and direct support for tourism development. State of the local economy was also found to be directly related to perceived positive tourism impacts. Community attachment was not found to be a significant predictor of perceived positive or negative tourism impacts or state of the local economy. Resident use of tourism areas was found to significantly predict perceived positive benefits. An eccentric attitude was found to significantly predict perceived positive benefits. An eccentric attitude was found to directly affect both positive and negative perceived impacts as well as directly relate to support for tourism development. Lastly, community concern was found to only relate to perceptions of the state of the local economy.

Andereck and Vogt (2000) continue with establishing connections between perceived impacts and tourism development in a rural setting. Seven communities in Arizona comprised the sample for the study. The authors introduce a new variable for the study to address different types of tourism development options in lieu of addressing tourism development as a whole. A multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) test revealed differences between the communities in terms of what types of tourism development is desired, quality of life, and perceptions of negative tourism impacts accurately predict lack of support for additional development. The authors conclude that studies investigating community support for tourism development should be more specific. That is, at a minimum, future research should define what “development” means.

2.9.2 Resident Demographics and Perceived Tourism Impacts:

Personal demographic have not made statistical differences in resident attitudes to towards perceived tourism impacts and tourism development in rural settings (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Perdue et al., 2002; McGehee et al., 2002). However, McGehee and Andereck (2004) return to the notion that personal demographics may play a role in determining residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts. Utilizing a previous sample from 12 Arizona communities, the authors observe that those who had lived in the community as a child were more likely to support tourism than those who had not. In addition, older
residents in age were more likely to support tourism than those younger in age. However, although statistically significant, this model only represented 17% of the variance in the dependent variable of tourism support. The regression model explaining 68% of the variance suggests the variable of perceived personal benefits from tourism played a more compelling role in the support of the growth of tourism in their community.

Although, demographic variables have not always proved to be statistically significant in rural populations, they have proven to have applicability in urban settings. Previous research in urban destinations has found these variables to have statistically significant differences in how residents perceive tourism impacts and their subsequent support. Chen (2000) finds older residents more likely to identify with the positive benefits of tourism than the negative impacts. In addition, he finds females related more strongly to the negative impacts of tourism and thus less likely to support tourism development.

Lawton (2005) finds slightly different results with gender. With a sample from the urban population of the Gold Coast of Australia, women were found to be more supportive of tourism development than males. However, consistent with Chen (2000), Lawton (2005) finds older residents also more likely to support tourism and identify with the positive impacts of tourism. Lawton (2005) also finds length of residence in the destination to play an important role when examining residents’ support for specific tourism attractions. Those individuals who have lived in the destination the longest found the tourist attractions to have more favorable impacts in their destination than those who have lived in the area a shorter time (Lawton, 2005). A resident’s annual income was also found to have significant effects over perceived tourism impacts (Chen, 2001). Residents with annual incomes greater than $60,000 were found to perceive fewer negative social tourism impacts than those with lower incomes. Lastly, Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) find support for the inclusion of education as an important variable. They find that the more education individuals have, the less likely they were to perceive tourism to adversely impact the community and were more likely to support additional tourism development.
2.9.3 Tourism Impacts in Urban Destinations:

Resident demographics are only one way that urban destinations stand apart from their rural counterparts when addressing tourism’s impacts. Resident perceptions of tourism’s impacts may differ in urban settings as tourism may not be the sole means of economic vitality (Chen, 2000). Thus, researchers have singled out urban populations as a focus of study (Andriotis, 2005; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Chen, 2000; Chen, 2001; Lawton, 2005).

The purpose of Chen’s (2000) study was to examine the relationship between perceived tourism impacts and support for attracting tourists in an urban tourism destination. Support for attracting tourists was defined as community loyalty and respondents were grouped as either loyal or non-loyal. Although Chen (2000) finds that both loyal and non-loyal groups view tourism to have both negative and positive attributes, “loyal residents agreed strongly on the items of the overall benefits of tourism outweigh(ing) the negative impacts” (p.15).

Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) also divide residents into groups to provide a more meaningful picture of how residents perceive tourism impacts in their communities. The authors use K-means cluster analysis to group residents into three distinct groups: advocates, socially and environmentally concerned, and economic skeptics. Advocates are individuals who most strongly support tourism and were very aware of the beneficial impacts on the economy due to tourism. The second group of socially and environmentally concerned residents responded with the most negative views of perceived social and environmental impacts of tourism on their destination. These residents were more likely to agree that tourism did not contribute to conservation of national land and limited access to formally public areas for residents. The last cluster, labeled economic skeptics, was most likely to agree that tourism gives benefits to a select group of individuals, creates jobs mostly for outsiders, and led to a high amount of leakage in the host community. The revelation of this last grouping led the authors to conclude that in order to have full host community support for tourism; all groups should be involved in the tourism planning process.
Expanding upon the literature by not only examining perceived tourism impacts in an urban setting, Lawton (2005) also examines resident perceptions of specific tourist attractions on the Gold Coast of Australia. Although the study is limited to social impacts, the study is consistent with other research by finding that in general, residents perceive tourism to positively affect their quality of life. A cluster analysis with a repertory grid test revealed four clusters of residents with unique attitudes to different tourist attractions offered on the Gold Coast.

The first was nature-based residents. These individuals comprised almost half of the sample with 45.8%. This group attributed the nature-based attractions to positively impact their quality of life more than the man-made types of attractions. A second largest group, with 39.7% of the sample, was labeled unenthusiastic. These residents did not feel the nature-based or manmade attractions to have much positive impact on their quality of life. They responded that man-made attractions were much commercialized and felt nature-based attractions were not all that natural. The third group, hinterland hesitant, rated nature-based attractions lower on improving their quality of life than man-made attractions, indicating preference for the latter and least likely to visit a nature-based attraction. The last group, labeled enthusiastic, rated the nature-based and man-made attractions more favorably than the other groups. Lawton (2005) admits there were not statistically significant differences among the resident clusters and attitudes to the social impact of the tourist attractions. Therefore, the attitudes of the specific attractions may be independent of attitudes towards tourism impacts overall. However, this study was limited to examination of the social impacts of tourism and does not examine any relationships between support for the specific tourist attractions and further tourism development.

Chen (2001) offers the first testable model of urban resident perceptions of tourism impacts and tourism development. His model, depicted in Figure 2.5, draws connections between economic benefits, social costs, cultural enrichment and environmental deterioration to support for tourism development and also to perceptions of total perceived impacts by local residents.
This study portrayed resident’s concerns about tourism with four discernible factors based on economic, social and environmental impacts. Chen (2001) uses a total impact score as a mediating variable in the analysis. Using path analysis, the author also finds that economic benefits and social costs play a predominant role in influencing total perceived impacts. Economic benefits had a positive path coefficient of .3947 with social costs implying a negative relationship with a coefficient of 0.3176. In addition, total impacts had the strongest relationship with support for additional tourism with a coefficient of .4389. Cultural impacts were found to not have a clear relationship with support for tourism development. He explains that the sampled area of southeastern Virginia was famous for its cultural heritage and perhaps residents were less inclined to perceive cultural benefits from tourism as a result. Chen (2001) concludes that the results indicate the influence of a single factor, such as economic benefits, in residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts. Moreover, he recommends validation of the measurement scale used in the study with confirmatory factor analysis techniques on an urban population.

Figure 2.5: Diagram of perceived impacts and support for tourism (Chen, 2001).
Andriotis (2005) extends the research in urban destinations of resident attitudes and support for tourism development by including other community groups, such as tourism business industry interests. The author finds that residents and business industry representatives both, in general, expressed an unfavorable attitude towards the current pace of tourism development and wanted to see more growth in this area. However, the groups differed in the types of tourism development. Tourism business industry individuals wished to see higher spending tourists and higher quality tourists. In addition, the tourism business representatives in the sample saw the need for more outdoor and indoor sport and other recreation facilities for the viability of the community. This may indicate the desire for more leisure travelers to the destination as opposed to other types of tourists.

2.9.4 Market Segmentation and Tourism Impacts:

The process of dividing the types of tourists into groups with common characteristics is defined as market segmentation (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Classic methods of market segmentation in tourism include dividing up potential visitors by geographical residence, demographics, psychographics and behaviors. Stanley Plog in 1973 developed a market segmentation technique for tourists by using psychographics. This is the use of psychological variables to predict tourist behaviors. Plug (2004) categories tourists into categories of: dependable, near dependable, mid-dependable, mid-ventures, near ventures and ventures. Dependable types of tourists enjoy visiting the same destination on multiple occasions and prefer commercially owned food and beverage outlets. Ventures, on the other hand, will try the new and unusual and enjoy immersing themselves in local culture.

Cohen (1972) established a behaviorist approach to classifying tourists. He segmented tourists into four types: organized mass tourists, individual mass tourists, explorers, and drifters. Organized mass tourists purchase packaged holidays, usually through a third party such as a travel agent and travel in large groups. Individual mass tourists exhibit the same types of behaviors as the organized mass tourists, however, they aim for more flexibility in their trip and will look for the occasional novel experience. Explorers, in contrast, make their own travel arrangements and set out to avoid other
tourists. Drifters will travel on a whim and also seek to become accepted as part of the local community.

Modern day market segmentation relies on identifying the different types of tourism through motivations and types of activities tourists engage in while on a trip (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). These types of tourism can include the market segments of cultural tourism, convention tourism, and sport tourism, among many others.

There have been two studies at present that embarks on the unique approach of investigating individual tourism market segments and their perceived impacts both in urban and rural destinations (Liu et.al. 1987), examined the stereotyping of the different market segments that visit the three destinations of Hawai‘i, North Wales, and Istanbul. Results of principal component analysis (PCA) show that in each destination, residents of host communities view the types of tourists differently from one another. However, Liu et.al (1987) study was limited to environmental tourism impacts.

Vogt and Jun (2004) limit their investigation to economic and social impacts (defined as quality of life) and exclude any environmental impacts with a sample from Valdez, Alaska. In general, they find that economic impacts were most commonly rated higher than quality of life impacts; however a small percentage (38%) rated quality of life more important than economic benefits. Also, all tourism market segments were thought to contribute positively to the economy. However, there was a definitive preference for the types of tourists to the destination. Visiting friends and family (VFR), sport fishes, summer independent travelers, and military personnel on leave were the most desired. On the opposite end, back country winter travelers, cruise ship passengers, heli skiers, and snowmobilers were the least desired. This study revealed that residents may view tourism market segments differently by economic and quality of life impacts (Vogt and Jun, 2004).

2.9.5 Development of Tourism Impact Measurements:

Choi and Sirakaya (2005) recognize that in an era when sustainability for tourism development in destinations seems to be emerging as a major social paradigm, the tools currently developed to measure the positive and negative impacts of tourism may be inadequate. A number of studies have developed their own scales to measure resident
attitudes to tourism development (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Chen, 2001; Gursoy et al., 2002; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Lawton, 2005; Produce et al. 2002). Few studies have replicated measurement instruments in their data collection and their ability to generalize results is limited. To ease this burden, this study uses a nearly identical survey developed by Chen (2001) for an urban destination, the Urban Tourism Impact scale (UTI). This work was based on the survey questionnaires developed by Liu et al. (1987) and Akis et al. (1996).

Liu et al. (1987) concentrates on the environmental tourism impacts and resident attitudes from extensive survey results and interviews in three international geographic locations: Hawaii, North Wales, and Istanbul. They find that environmental impacts are defined as not only quality of the natural environment, but also the quality of the condition of the man-made environment. Moreover, residents also defined environmental impacts as access to these types of resources.

Akis et al. (1996) research focused on the social and economic impacts of tourism impacts. The economic impact statements addressed the perceived changes in investment and spending, standard of living changes, employment opportunities and their distribution between the local people and outsiders to the host community. The social impacts focus on local traditional culture including the exchange of ideas with tourists, and increased understanding among cultures.

Chen’s (2001) resultant UTI scale is a 26 item questionnaire investigating the three tourism areas of economic, social and environmental impacts with eight questions representing each area. Consistent with other tourism impact studies, a five point Likert type scale was used with 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree for each statement. Total perceived impact and support for tourism development serve as Chen’s (2001) dependent variables and are assessed with the question “How do you perceive the overall impacts of tourism development in your community?” and “Do you support tourism in your community?” For these questions, a five point Likert-type scale was also used with 1=very negative and 5=very positive for the total perceived impacts and 1=strongly oppose and 5=strongly support for support of tourism development.
A variety of steps were taken to ensure reliability and validity. An extensive literature review and evaluation of the scale by tourism faculty at a major research university in the United States was performed for content validity. To strengthen internal validity the questionnaire was pilot tested on a convenience sample of 30 residents in Virginia. Each item was evaluated using Cranach's alpha test which indicated that deleting any given statement would not improve the scale’s reliability (Chen, 2001). Cronbach’s alpha test helps reveal if a statement was a low correlation with its scale, indicating that it may not provide a reliable measurement (Chen, 2001). After the UTI was used on a larger sample from three urban tourist destinations, any statement with a low correlation (r<.50) was deleted from the instrument. In addition, an exploratory factor analysis was used with varimax rotation to identify the underlying constructs explaining the perceived tourism impacts. To determine the appropriateness of factor analysis, Chen (2001) used the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The KMO measure showed a level of .853 which exceeds the acceptable standard of .60 for further analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Bartlett’s test revealed significance at p=.001 (Chi-Square=2,381, df=136). Therefore, seven items of the 24 were deleted for not meeting the following criteria: a) the statement had a loading factor less than .40, b) the statement loaded on more than one factor with a loading score equal to or greater than .40, and c) the statement loaded at a factor showing an internal reliability coefficient less than .70. Four underlying constructs were also revealed in the process: economic benefits, social costs, cultural enrichment, and environmental deterioration.

The resulting UTI factors for Chen (2001) study contained 17 items addressing the four constructs of economic benefits, social costs, cultural enrichment, and environmental deterioration. The items comprising the economic benefits are: “Tourism has led to more spending in your community”, Tourism has created more jobs for your community”, “and Tourism has attracted more investment to your community”, and, “Tourism has given economic benefits to local people and small business”, and “Our standard of living has increased considerably because of tourism”. The individual statements in the social costs construct are: “Tourism has changed precious traditional culture”, “High spending tourists have negatively affected our way of life”, “Local
residents have suffered from living in a tourism destination area”, “Improving public
tourist facilities is a waste to taxpayer money”, and “Tourism has led to more vandalism
in your community.” Those encompassing the cultural enrichment construct are:
“Tourism has resulted in more cultural exchange between tourists and residents”,
“Meeting tourists from other regions is a valuable experience to better understand their
culture and society”, and “Tourism has resulted in positive impacts on the cultural
identity of our community”. The final construct, environmental deterioration, includes the
statements: “Tourism has resulted in traffic congestion, noise and pollution”, “Tourism
has resulted in unpleasantly overcrowded beaches, hiking trails, parks and other outdoor
places in your community”, and “Construction of hotels and tourist facilities have
destroyed the natural environment”.

2.10 BRIEF LOOK AT THE STATUS OF TOURISM IN TODAY’S
WORLD

Tourism activities in the world began in 1925 and global tour formations in the
form of regular programs for scientific productivity, studies, economic objectives, social
activities and leisure pass-time started in 1950 where 25 million tourists were recorded in
that year and the income from tourism hit 2.1 million dollars. Increasing technological
development and its significant direct effect on the communication development in the
world, secured so many major facilities for tourism that the number of tourists in 1993
exceeded 476 million people and the respective earned income reached/hit 325 billion
dollars. Based on the World Tourism Organization estimation, if the movement continues
at this rate, the figure will exceed 930 million people as tourists -3.5% average increase-
and income to be earned will be double the figure presented in 1993.

It goes without saying that the income share of the developed countries from
tourism is far more remarkable than the developing countries. Among the most popular
tourist countries, France, Spain, Germany, Greece, Turkey and the countries in America
and last but not the least Eastern Asia receive a huge number of tourists annually. The
Eastern Countries started to develop their tourism industry in the past few decades and
could make lots of progress earning noticeable amounts of income. The formation of Golden Square comprised of Northern Thailand, Northeastern Laos, Southwestern China, and Eastern Myanmar, in spite of their different political systems, has been one of the most important measures taken.

The inclination towards tourism among Islamic Countries is well noticed. Indonesia, Malaysia, Egypt, Tunis, Morocco, and Jordan have well tried to develop tourism. For example Malaysia spent 150 million dollars on advertisement and propaganda on Malaysia tourist attractions in European and American countries. This amount equals the income which our country, Iran, earned through tourism in 1993. Singapore, having a population of three million, earned 7 billion dollars from tourism in 1993, and Turkey with a 19% growth in tourism ranks first in the world.

2.11 STATISTICS FACTS ON INTERNATIONAL’S TOURISM

The WTO is the main source of statistics on tourism. Hence, the information contained in the following paragraphs on the size of tourism and its main markets is taken from the latest overview report of the WTO (2005). By 1975 arrivals had increased by over 800% to 222.3 million, and by 2002 global tourist arrivals had reached 702 million. Europe and the Americas had market shares of 66.4% and 29.6% in 1950 respectively. In 2002 these had declined to 56.9% and 16% respectively, and the Asia and the Pacific region overtook the Americas to become the second largest market (18.6%). For the period 1950 to 2002, the WTO reports that the annual average growth rate was 6.6%. The Asia and Pacific region had a higher than average growth rate of 13%. France, the most popular destination, had 77 million arrivals in 2002, which corresponds to 11% of global market. In second place was Spain (7.4%) closely followed by the US, Italy and China (5.2%).

Also of interest is the distribution of departures. As well as having the most arrivals, Europe generates slightly more than half of all departures (404.9 million).

Moreover, 352.1 million of these are within Europe. The other regions also have intraregional shares higher than 70% but these are considerably smaller in absolute terms.
Of the interregional flows, the largest are 23 million from the Americas to Europe, 18 million from Europe to the Americas and 16 million from Europe to Asia and the Pacific region.

Tourism receipts have also expanded enormously. In 1950, the global total was US$2.1 billion, which had increased to 40.7 billion in 1975 and in 2002, receipts, had reached 474.2 billion. Again, Europe dominates with 50.7% of all receipts. The Americas have the second highest market share of 24.1%. In terms of individual countries the US earned 66.5 billion US$ in 2002, which amounts to a market share of 14%. China, Italy, France and Spain all earned more than US$ 20 billion. These countries and the US have a combined market share of 38%. Within Europe the bulk of the receipts are in the countries of Southern Europe and Western Europe with market shares of 34.2% and 36.2% respectively.

The countries of the top ten tourism spenders account for slightly more than half of the global total expenditure. The US, Germany, the UK and Japan had international tourism expenditures of over US$ 20 million in 2002: the US and Germany with US$ 58 and US$ 53 respectively, corresponding to market shares of 12.2% and 11.2%.

One of the main services provided by the tourism industry is accommodation. For hotels and similar establishments, the WTO recorded 17.4 million rooms globally in 2001. Around one fourth of these are in the US, roughly one in ten in Japan and one in twenty in Italy, Germany and China. These values reflect the high levels of domestic tourism and country specific patterns of accommodation types.

As well as collecting statistics on the development of tourism over the years, the WTO provides a long term forecast for the global and regional development of tourism in 2010 and 2020. Tourism arrivals are expected to continue to grow at 4.1%, although there will be regional differences. The WTO (2005a) predicts that the Americas and Europe will experience lower than average growth rates. By 2010, the number of arrivals is expected to reach the 1 billion mark and by 2020, almost 1.6billion arrivals are expected (WTO, 2005a). Europe Central and Eastern Europe will increase in importance, overtaking Western Europe to have the highest market share. The WTO predicts that by 2020, 346 million tourists will visit destinations at the Mediterranean accounting for
more than a fifth of all arrivals (WTO, 2001b). France remains the largest destination market within Europe in 2020 but with a decreasing market share. In addition, Germany continues to be the major source market of tourists within Europe. The Indian Ocean region is expected to have an average growth rate of 6.3% and will reach a market share of 11% (WTO, 2001a). China will overtake France to have the most visitors: the WTO (2001a) predicts 130 million arrivals.

Two hundred and twelve million people get directly or indirectly employed in tourist jobs in world, and financial circulation equals 3.4 billion US dollars which accounts for 5.5% of GDP growth. In other words, tourism is one of the most dynamic and important industries in the world.

The developing countries and the countries which have just started to develop could have attracted 154 million tourists which accounts for 25% of all tourists of the world. The earned income equals 109 billion dollars, i.e. 24% of the total world tourism income. This share differs in different areas of the world. On the tourism development scale, Northeastern Asia, Southeastern Asia, and Central America including Mexico and the Caribbean Sea are the developed tourist areas.

Table 2.1: International tourist arrivals (in Million) in 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rate</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Arrival</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>79.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Country</td>
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<td>---</td>
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<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>15.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Poland</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>11.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Macao</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Japan</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.2</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Australia</td>
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<tr>
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<td>43.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>3.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
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<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>3.4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: World tourism organization 2008

### 2.12 TOURISM HISTORY IN IRAN

Supporting tourists' rights in Iran civilization has been considered in all the periods. in a manner that before and after Islam and even in the period of Pishdadian ( Aryan ruling) passenger and tourist had right and privilege and their rights and limits were determined and executed considering motivation and purpose of passenger. For example in the book of " History Travelers" it is mentioned that with no doubt at that time trip has special validity and before annihilation of this civilization, domestic and foreign passengers were traveling on the roads between Shush and internal states and some installations which had been built for their welfare were destroyed in Ashurian attack. In travel accounts (logs) many things were written for supporting and observance of rights for tourists and hospitality and also the capability of tourism in Iran during various eras that some of them are mentioned in detail here under:

#### 2.12.1 Medes and Achaemenid Period:

Documents and deeds obtained from this period indicate that they considered the ways and streets very much, and famous Shah Road with the length of 2500 km was built in Daryoush era and "Herodotus" famous Greek historian passed it and he refers to the caravanserai, post offices, and established stations in the road which were more than 100.

To appoint special officers, swift horses and camels, installing guide bars in the roads and even establishment of bridges in hard-passing paths for facilitating the passages of commercial caravans are some of them.
2.12.2 Arsacid (Parthian) Period:

In this era important paths were built including Abrisham Road which was the most important commercial highway. This road was started from China and was ended in Mediterranean Sea and also passed through Iran. At that time the roads and transportation vehicles were regulated and even desert driving units were created and for providing trip facilities and making passengers aware, the news or brochures, as said today, and guide drafts were prepared for the passengers and they were put at their disposal.

2.12.3 Sassanid Period:

In this era in addition to establishing unique roads of 250 km road between Firuzabad and Persian Gulf, various caravanserais were built such as "Deir Golchin caravanserai", and "Robat Bisotun" with the architecture of Parthian era and some criteria were regulated for observing passengers' rights in these paths.

2.12.4 Islamic Period:

In the first years of dominance of Arabs on Iran, caravanserais and other welfare installation in the path of roads were destroyed due to appearance of unstable rulings in Iran, but after passing about two centuries, the destructions were gradually restored. Due to the existing record of civil life and experiences resulting from good behavior and social moods of Iranian people which was with particular hospitality of Eastern people and in the light of performing Islamic rules and regulations, tourism obtained their former promulgation and entered a new phase in Iran. Various tourists have noted it as very nice and they have mentioned the establishment of welfare installations and regular recreation places.

In addition to promulgating tourism and establishment of public construction, in this period tourists at least had following rights and advantages:

1- Utilization of generous aids from Iranian people
2- Enjoyment from hospitality with incessant simplicity of Eastern people and simple-mindedness of Moslems
3- Abundant reception during trip to bequeathed places
4- Treatment and curing the pains in bequeathed clinics
5- Resting and spending convalescence days in bequeathed resting places
6- Returning to nation providing trip cost while passengers were left with no money
7- Utilization from income of one or several bequeathed villages for providing the above said costs
8- Respecting during the stay period
9- Famous Iran and foreign tourists who have visited Iran during Islamic Period have mentioned the manner of behavior, and hospitality spirit, and sympathy with strangers and also facilities and possibilities in their logs.

2.12.5 Safavid Period and Before that:

"Abolghasem Mohammad Ibn Hoghal Badhdadi", famous tourist of the fourth century Hejira, called various inns built by hospitable and charitable Iranian individuals and writes: "For each work a person has been appointed in order to provide the requirements of tourists, in a manner that there is no problem when the guests are enter and the landlord is glad to entertain the guests and passengers."

"Naser Khosro Ghobadiani" called several inns during his 7 years of stay in which he himself resided and there were some facilities in them. Studying 25 logs from Spanish "Benjamin" to Venisian "Marcopolo" and "Juvelanous" European tourist all indicate good-operation of people and they have mentioned nice entertainment method for tourists and good quality of delicious foods in inns and bequeathed places which were free of charge and also proper method of maintaining ways and post ways as well as rapid operation of post offices that indicate rights of strangers, and surely they are true narrations without any biases and racial, religious and tribal viewpoints.

During Safavid period famous tourists such as "Lupichi Ratinoto", "Sherly Brothers", and Italian "Delavameh" and other individuals made a trip to Iran and said many things in their logs in relation with Iranians' behavior with foreigners.
"John Batist Tavernieh" who visited Iran 6 times during the 17th century writes about security: security which is regarded an important factor in developing tourism completely exists in Iran emperor and passengers travel with no fear in trip paths and he mentioned that caravanserais in Iran have been comfortable and great.

French "Shardel" writes about existing security and ease of tourism in Iran: there is no country like Iran in the world for tourism, both regarding rare risks and security and also regarding low cost; there are bridges and roads in the locations which are arduous and they have been built for caravans and all the persons which are passing for profit. There was no other vehicle in Iran except running –board and besides large roads; there were some caravanserais for free of charge entertaining passers-by and passengers. In total writings and statements of tourists there are some samples from tourist's rights which are inserted hereunder:

- Enjoying full security during trip
- Using residential installations with little cost or free of charge
- Passing on suitable roads with high - speed horses
- Utilization of guides during trip
- Using covered mule-litter for women tourists
- Proper welcome of people, good behavior and also respect for tourists

2.12.6 Qajar Period and 19th Century:

Tourism in Iran obtained its former promulgation opposite to the periods of Afshariyeh and Zandiyyeh and some tourists made a trip to Iran with various motivations; French " Juber " writes in this regard : " Iran has had a proper field for tourism and still has and tourists enjoy following advantages in addition to respect:

- Beautiful nature
- Civilized and cultured humans
- Familiarization and contact with active, capable and continent people
- Assuring and confident of good future
– Passing the days of trip with most prosperous and gentle people in the east of the world
– Passing trip time with noble people
– Enjoying hospitality with no complimentary and dissimulation French tourist "Ozhen Felanden" mentions the measures during the ruling period of Mohammad Shah Qajar and writes about the governor at that time:
  – How did he prepare the supplies for the trip of that French tourist?
  – How much was he worried for the safety of them and their properties and security?
  – How much did he support him and his accompanied persons?
  – Which individuals were appointed to serve them?
  – What orders did he instruct for providing their necessities?

During the ruling of Nasereddin Shah widespread measures were taken for providing proper field of tourism and also security of peace of tourists due to policies, competency and ingeniousness of Amir Kabir. Providing security, developing justice, performance of administrative modifications and execution of flourishing projects particularly post-offices, entertainment centers and strengthening officials with high-speed horses were the other cases.

Italian "Madam Karla Soma" was mentioned as the first woman who visited Iran, coincident with ruling of Nasereddin Shah with the particular purpose of tourism. He referred to trip by horse, mule, litter and covered litter and said about honesty of guidens on the roads. In general, viewpoints of critics and arbitration of tourists at the end of the 19th century the phenomenon of tourism and attractions and its results in Iran insist the following undeniable obvious facts and specifications:

– Establishment of new places and constructions and also beautiful installations and caravanserais with more facilities during Qajar era
– To make easy the trip between Tehran- Paris and reduce its period to 10 days
– Existing tourism attractions due to enjoyment from some advantages such as uncultivated and unused soil

– Enjoyment from rich culture and excellent civilization

– Abundance of incoming European tourists which were compared to attacking animals.

– Variety of purposes of tourists who entered Iran or intended to enter Iran

– Uniqueness of Iran "Jacob Edward Pulak", special physician of Nasereeddin Shah Qajar says so in the field of rights and right securities of tourists at that time: wrong rumors regarding the case that Iran is not secure and false generalization of Nader's events

– Security of tourists from theft of properties during their sedentaryization and safe roads for the life of tourists in far deserts

– Existence of more security and sufficient guarantee for life and property of tourists on trip with caravans

– Extraordinary sensitivity of rulers for executing security regulations of European tourists

– Existence of legal security for passenger's property in 3 forms: security of packages and properties of tourists against any inspection, payment of remuneration and penalty by the government in case of robbing of their properties and chasing the thief and condemning the violator to the severest punishment.

– Above quotations specify that in spite of lacking present possibilities and lack of transportation vehicles, tourists were entertained and welcomed all around Iran. Quoting these cases for the next descendent caused to strengthen the spirit of hospitality, to generalize society ruling and strengthen national integration. Today with generalization of tourism and proper places for trip in various countries the meaning of tourism has been changed and tourists have new rights and special advantages in addition to their natural rights.
In these conditions we shall take larger steps with reliance on ancient traditions for providing tourists' rights. Islam insisted on tourism much more than the other religions as a comprehensive and complete religion which is good for all the periods and places and perhaps Holy Quran, is the first book which mentioned trip and tourism and made people to travel on the earth and think about the work that remained from the ancestors and take them as an example and a lesson. In Islamic narrations many narrations have been quoted about trip and travel. Hazrat Ali stated that "awareness from the destiny of ancestors and looking at the ancestors' tribes causes to create admonition." And in some other short narrations he states that "Take a trip in order to be healthy and earn windfall as well."

Traveling also has a special position in the poem of Persian poets. These great Persian men of letters have mentioned the enjoyment of trip and its difficulties and also invalidity of mundane life as a result of observing ancestors' works. In this manner evaluating trip is a cultural trait of Iranian people. After the advent of Islam, tourists always enjoyed good- behavior, hospitality, gratitude and kindness of Moslem Iranian people. Sheikh Moslehhoddin Saadi who made a trip about 30- 40 years from Baghdad, Damascus, and Africa to Kashmir in India and returned to Shiraz writes in his first book regarding respect for passengers, the manner of behavior with tourists and entertainment from passengers as well as strangers and in general he says so for security of tourists:

The tourist passengers shall be accepted by soul and mind.

- The strangers shall be caressed and we shall like tourists.
- We shall prevent any loss to the strangers.
- We also shall not get damaged by them.

Explanation about history of tourism in Pahlavi and Islamic period is discussed in "Trend of tourism in Iran", because from now on the economy of Iran is planned and the Plan and Budget Organization is the responsibilty of planning.
2.13 TOURISM AND ITS STANDING IN IRAN

Iran or Persia as it used to be called is an ancient country which enjoys attractions that make the country a unique one, Iran is the second largest country in the Middle East, and has thousand years of fascinating history. For aficionados of nature, history, culture and art, Iran is rich and attractive. Along with its splendid history and culture, Iran is a diverse land and has a great variety of geographical environment. Iran’s climate diversity is such that some tourists can enjoy winter sports in the mountains while other can bathe in the warm waters of the southern shores, both within a few hours' drive from the main cities. The most noticeable highlight of Iran is its people. Nomadic lifestyle is still present throughout Iran and is a great attraction for many tourists.

Before 1921, the tourism industry in Iran did not enjoy any organizational structure and until that time, the government used the historical places as work offices or house, and some of them are preserved by the owners as family heritage.

In 1935 an officer for tourism affairs was appointed for the first time in the Interior Ministry that was called the Department of Tourism. The activities of this Department were publication and distribution of magazines, booklets and guide book to help tourists and to introduce Iran from Geographical, historical and sociological perspectives. After September 1941, the Department of Tourism governance changed to the Higher Council of Tourism. This council was held weekly in Interior Ministry, and the official affairs were done by political department of the ministry. In 1961 the Higher Council of Tourism was formed consisting 12 representatives of ministers and governmental institutions and three professional individuals knowledgeable in the matters of travel and tourism. The duty of this council was policy making, determining the affairs, and executing the programs of the Tourism Department of the Interior Ministry and supervising the tourism affairs in higher levels. Increasing the number of foreign tourists and the lack of adequate equipment and facilities for proper hospitality and meeting the needs and demands of tourists called for more tangible measures. Therefore, in 1963 the organization for attraction of tourists was established.

After the Islamic Revolution, fundamental changes in the structure and policies of the country’s tourism have been created. In 1979 in order to prevent the interference with
their duties and for a better coordination between the Foreign Trade Policy and saving policy four companies were established according to the Acts of Islamic Revolution Council (Company of Iran’s tourism facilities, Company of Iran’s tours, Company of Markaz-e Khanehaye Iran, Company of tourist organizations office). Under the supervision of the Ministry of Information and Tourism, these four companies started their activities with new Policy objectives different from the past. This organization took over the management and operation of residential units such as: hotels, motels, hostels, camps, restaurants, tea houses, ski fields, beach facilities, mineral water bathhouses, winter sport centers and other appropriate activities for tourism.

The revolution of 1979 has caused the media to generate much propaganda about Iran, thereby scarring its image, particularly in the western world. Before 1979, Iran was a well sought-after destination due to its impressive history of over 2,500 years. United States citizens alone accounted for 70,000 of the tourist arrivals in 1977 (compared to 800 in 1995). Many American hotel chains such as Hilton, Sheraton, Intercontinental and Hyatt developed hotels throughout the country; however within days of the revolution, all western business were forced to pull out, and Iran’s tourism sector plummeted. The economy dropped further from the eight-year war with Iraq.

According to UN statistics, Iran is one of the world’s top 10 countries in terms of tourist attractions, it has a great potential to be amongst famous destinations and attract many tourists, but unfortunately for some reasons, this country is not using all its potential.

The World Tourism Organization statistics of tourism indicates that the most recent statistic of arrivals to Iran is 740,000 and Iran hold the 56th position in tourist arrival in the world which is not acceptable in comparsion with Iran’s potentials and capacities.
### Table 2.2: The number of tourist arrivals to Iran through the years 2001-2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of tourism (in thousands)</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>Europe</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific and East of Asia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South of Asia</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>256</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: World tourism organization 2008*

As said before, Iran is a country that has lots of potential to grow its tourism and be one of the most desirable destinations but unfortunately, it is facing problems such as poverty, religion obstacle—for example alcohol use and women’s dress code, lack of facilities in terms of accommodations, hotels, transportations, also being deficient in management and planning, failure of introducing the real features of Iran to the world and other such problem make it hard for Iran to develop its tourism and gain much necessary benefits from this industry.

**Iran’s Tourism Organizations:**

In Iran we have various organizations and ministries that promote tourism directly and indirectly. Iran touring and tourism organization (ITTO), is the most important one for promoting tourism. The Ministry of Fathang and Ershade Eslami (or Cultural and Islamic Guidance) has several undersecretaries. One of these is responsible for ITTO. Sazemane Mohite Zist (or the Nature preservation Organisation) promotes ecotourism indirectly, especially by protecting nature. Jahade Keshavarzi is another ministry that indirectly promotes tourism. It is responsible for managing forests and pastures. The private sector is also working on the promotion of tourism.

**Tourism Industry Challenges in Iran:**

According to the estimation, the international tourists entering Iran stay for an average of 5-6 days and spend an average of 100 dollars daily. Provided this calculation proves correct, the total income from tourism in Iran in 1999 would equal 750-792.5
million dollars. But, what is the position and rank of Iran in tourism industry of the world? Tourism experts maintain that Iran, in spite of all its tourist attractions, historical places, and natural resorts, has not been able to establish its place in tourism industry; thus, the income earned from this industry is trivial in the foreign currency income scale.

The most important problem is the serious lack of national programs and planning. So far, because of lack of an integrated and solid program in tourism and unconformity of the authorities’ behavior in this section and other sectors has been determining and has impeded the possibility of integration and use of national potentialities and facilities which can be supported by the private sector for tourism. At present, from the very beginning of tour to Iran until the end, a tourist faces lots of obstacles and problems. Planning to visit Iran, one encounters the bad publicity rumored about Iran in the international squares which naturally prevents a tourist from pursuing travel to Iran. However, in the past few years, it has been attempted to eradicate such a bad picture created about Iran, and good standards has been established which, this country deserves; still it is not complete and it is a long way ahead.

Insufficient and improper air facilities are another problem impeding the tourism industry. The airline system of the Islamic Republic of Iran fails to launch direct flights to the tourist markets and the foreign airlines do not show much interest in travelling to Iran due to some specific problems. On the other hand, boosting the reconstruction of road transportation plays an immense role in attracting tourists where it is hoped that the transportation terminals of the country will have been promoted by 2010. Insufficiency of motels and road restaurants falls as a big hindrance to tourism in Iran.

The other fundamental problem originates from insufficient education. Tahernia, Behrooz strongly complained about the insufficiency of education on tourism and said “……in spite of the fact that three organizations of the Foundation of Oppressed, the Organization of the Guidance, and the Technical and Vocational Organization have been active in tourism promotion, little progress can be observed. The main reason can be the disinterest of the hotel managers and staff and tourist agencies in taking the courses. The other reason originates from the lack of a restricted rule-governed system of touring and an identified and well-defined administration in this industry. However, it should be
remembered that international dialogue began in Iran and in 2002 the UNESCO recognized the year as ‘Visiting Iran Year’, but what can be observed is that no serious actions have been taken yet, and only a few seminars or conferences have been conducted.

He adds, “Tourism education must be institutionalized and it is required that a subject be introduced into the education system and process of the country so that students get to know different nations and their cultures and economic effects from the very early ages. Based on the studies conducted on tourism, eight job opportunities are created by each tourist entering the country, with respect to the income earned through a tourist’s staying for only 4 days, this industry appears more significant."