

Chapter 1

Social change and the growth of tourism

Learning objectives

At the end of this chapter you should:

- be aware of a variety of definitions of tourism;
- be aware of a number of dimensions and components of tourism, viz. the components of the tourism industry, motivations for tourism, tourism systems, data limitations in tourism;
- understand major social and economic changes that have contributed to the growth of tourism.

Introduction

Tourism is now a global industry involving hundreds of millions of people in international as well as domestic travel each year. The World Tourism Organization estimated (WTO, 2007) that there were 842 million international travellers in 2006 (this amounts to almost 12 per cent of the world's population). Although some of this activity may comprise the same travellers involved in more than one journey per year and hence the precise scale of tourism as an industry is in some doubt (Leiper, 1999); tens of millions of people globally work directly in the industry and many more are employed indirectly. Hundreds of millions of people are on the receiving end of tourism activity as they live in what are termed destination areas, in supposed 'host' populations. Millions of dollars are spent each year on advertising and promoting holidays and tourism products.

For much of recorded history, travel was difficult, uncomfortable, expensive and frequently dangerous (Williams, 1998). Yet journeys were undertaken and this implies some strong motivating factors. However, it is only in the last 150 years, as travel has become more affordable and less difficult, that some of those who travelled were prepared to openly admit that pleasure was one of the motivations for their journeys.

As recently as the 1960s, tourism was an activity in which relatively few participated regularly, and was primarily confined to Europe, North America and a small number of locations in other parts of the world. International travel, prior to the 1960s, was still largely the preserve of a wealthy minority who had the time as well as money to afford long distance sea or air travel. Major changes in the second half of the twentieth century led to the rapid and massive growth of the phenomenon known as modern tourism. For example, these changes contributed to the Pacific Region/East Asia becoming the fastest growing area for international tourism in the last 30 years. In 1975, East Asia and the Pacific Region accounted for only 4 per cent of international tourist arrivals, but by 1995 the share of world arrivals had increased to almost 15 per cent (Pearce, 1995) and by 2006 to 20 per cent (WTO, 2007). It should be noted that this change has occurred at a time when tourist numbers were growing globally. The increase in the share of international tourist arrivals in the Pacific Region therefore indicates a very significant increase in actual tourists between 1975 and 2006. There were approximately 78 million visitor arrivals in the Pacific Region/East Asia in 1995 (Pearce, 1995). This compares with approximately 100 million in the combined area of North and South America

and 305 million in Europe in 1995 (Pearce, 1995). With approximately 55 per cent of international arrivals Europe remained, in the early part of twenty-first century, the single most important region for international travel arrivals (WTO, 2007). In fact, Europe had five countries in the top ten tourism destinations in 2006 – France, Spain, Italy, the United Kingdom and Germany, with France and Spain's combined totals accounting for 14 per cent of total international arrivals (WTO, 2007).

This introductory chapter considers what has made this growth possible. It involves discussion of a number of economic and social factors. This chapter also explores changing attitudes to travel, as well as presenting a discussion of how opportunities for travel have increased.

Key perspectives

Definitions of tourism and tourists

This book is an introductory text to tourism planning and management at undergraduate level, however, some understanding of the nature of tourism is assumed. Nevertheless, as there is no full agreement on the meaning of the term tourism, nor is there complete agreement on what a tourist is, this section contains a brief discussion of these concepts as they are clearly important in relation to the planning and management of tourism.

In the early 1980s, Matthieson and Wall (1982, p. 1) indicated that tourism comprised:

The temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during the stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater for their needs.

In 1991, the WTO created a definition, primarily to assist those whose responsibility it was to compile statistics in tourism. This definition reads as follows:

The activities of a person travelling outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time whose main purpose of travel is other than for exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited.

(WTO, 1991)

Neither of these two definitions makes reference to the impacts of tourism. Impacts are key factors to any discussion of the planning and management of tourism. However, Jafari (1981) did include reference to impacts in his definition. Jafari (1981, p. 3) stated:

Tourism is a study of man (sic) away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs and the impacts that both he and the industry have for the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environments.

Most definitions of the term tourist are based on the concept of tourism. Usually, such definitions make reference to the need for the tourist to spend at least one night in a destination to which he or she has travelled. Tourists can be distinguished from excursionists in such definitions, as an excursionist is someone who visits and leaves without staying a night in a destination (Prosser, 1998). However, as Prosser suggested, it is relatively common today for the two terms to be combined. The term visitor is often used in preference to either tourist or excursionist. Theobald (1994), for example, used the concept of 'visitor' to combine the elements of a tourists and excursionist.

When discussing the impacts of tourism, a classification involving terms such as excursionist or tourist is not particularly helpful. For example, in relation to the environmental impacts of the feet of a walker on a natural or semi-natural landscape, it matters little whether the person involved is classified as a tourist or an excursionist; the feet will have the same effect! As the actions of day visitors (excursionists) and those of longer stayers may be almost indistinguishable, the view that a definition of tourism does not need reference to an overnight stay has been become far more acceptable recently (Williams, 1998).

The distance travelled is often seen as important in definitions of both tourism and tourists. However, there is no commonly accepted international distance used in connection with definitions of tourism. As with the need of at least some definitions to include reference to an overnight stay, there is a good deal of debate and unresolved confusion about distance travelled and tourism definitions. In the United States, for example, the US Travel Data Centre reports on all trips with a one-way distance of 100 miles, the Canadian Travel Survey uses a lower than one-way limit of 50 miles, and the Australian Bureau of Industry Economics employs a one-way distance of 25 miles (Prosser, 1998).

One of the continuing problems caused by a lack of clear definition of tourism is that tourism studies are often poles apart in philosophical approach, methodological orientation or intent of the investigation (Fennell, 1999). Nevertheless, if there is no complete agreement on the definition of tourism, it is still important to understand the key aspects of the processes of tourism and the reality of being a tourist. Prosser (1998, p. 374) indicated that the central components of any definition of either tourists or tourism are as follows:

movement, non-permanent stay, activities and experiences during the travel and stay, resources and facilities required and impacts resulting from the travel and stay.

Tourism is multi-dimensional and can be compartmentalized in a number of ways. According to Prosser (1998), there are two major variables. These are the origin–destination relationship and the motivation for travel. It is possible to create the following categories using Prosser’s origin–destination relationship:

- (1) international tourism,
- (2) internal tourism,
- (3) domestic tourism,
- (4) national tourism.

Prosser indicated that international tourism involves overseas visitors to a destination, while domestic tourism relates to nationals of one country visiting that same country. Internal tourism can relate to a region within a country, while national tourism considers all forms of tourism within one particular nation or country.

Motivations for travel

In any tourism trip, there are likely to be a number of reasons which, when combined, can be considered as the motivational factors for the journey. These can be characterized as ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors. The ‘push’ factors are a number of perceived negative factors about the context in which the potential tourist currently finds himself or herself. The ‘pull’ factors are perceived positive factors of

a potential or real destination. The nature, extent and significance of particular 'push' and 'pull' factors will vary according to the particular tourism context.

The classification of motivations into 'push' and 'pull' is linked closely with the psychological model of tourism motivation developed by Iso-Aloha (1980). The two dimensions in the model can be summarized as 'seeking' motives and 'escaping' motives (Pearce, 1993). In Iso-Aloha's model, individuals seek personal and interpersonal rewards and at the same time wish to escape personal and interpersonal environments.

The main criticism of Iso-Aloha's model is with only two dimensions it is limited by its level of aggregation (Raybould *et al.*, 1999). Hence, the use of the concepts 'push' and 'pull' may oversimplify a complex process. Nevertheless, investigating motivations in an attempt to understand the behaviour of tourists has become an important area of tourism research (Ryan, 1997). This can help with the categorization of tourists as well as provide a better understanding of their impacts. Tourist behaviour can be influenced by a number of factors including cultural conditioning, social influences, perception and education, but as Crompton and McKay (1997) indicated motives are the starting point of the decision-making process that leads to particular types of behaviour.

It is particularly in the related fields of psychology and sociology that researchers (including Iso-Aloha, 1980) have developed significant theories on motivation. In the field of cognitive psychology, motives are seen as largely a function of the expected consequences of future human behaviour (Dunn-Ross and Iso-Aloha, 1991). In this sense, motives can be considered as internal factors that have initially aroused a person and then direct his or her behaviour (Iso-Aloha, 1980). The main components of a general psychological model of motivation are needs and motives, behaviour or activity, goals or satisfactions and feedback (Harrill and Potts, 2002). Mannell and Kleber (1997, p. 190) provide an example to indicate the links between the main concepts in this psychological model:

People who have a strong need or desire to be with others (*motive*) may attempt to engage in leisure activities, such as going to bars and drinking that allow them to increase their interactions with other people (*behaviour*) in hopes of developing more friendships (*goal and satisfaction*).

This is an iterative model, in that the feedback component leads back into the initial needs and motivations (Harrill and Potts, 2002). In other words, during an

activity an individual interacts with the environment in which the activity takes place and possibly with others involved in the activity and this results in more, or perhaps, different motivation.

Several sociological theories have been put forward in the tourist literature in an attempt to explain motivation. One of the earliest was that of Cohen (1972) who subdivided tourists into four types, based on motivation. Cohen asserted that the main variables forming the basis of his theory and hence leading to the 4-fold classification were 'strangeness' versus 'familiarity'. Hence, at one end of his continuum was the 'organized mass tourist' seeking some degree of familiarity in holiday surroundings, while at the other end, the 'drifter' is willing to accept far more 'strangeness'.

Cohen developed his theory to investigate how various types of tourist might interact with host communities. This approach also influenced Plog (1973) who developed a continuum, using two concepts allo-centric and psycho-centric. Plog suggested that psycho-centric individuals are concerned primarily with the self, are inhibited and relatively non-adventurous. In terms of tourist behaviour, psycho-centrics want the familiar and are unlikely to travel great distances to explore new tourism destinations. Conversely, Plog asserted allo-centrics are confident, naturally inquisitive and seek out the unfamiliar when travelling. Both Cohen's (1972) and Plog's (1973) theories have been tested, but with varied success and have not met with universal acceptance. Nevertheless, they remain as key theories in tourism motivation, although both are largely descriptive rather than explanatory (Harrill and Potts, 2002). Cohen's (1972) and Plog's (1972) theories are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, which investigates important theories in tourism planning and management.

A number of sociological and psychological theories tend to imply that motivation is a fairly static concept. However, Pearce (1988), using the concept of a 'travel ladder' when investigating motivation for tourism, suggested that motivations are multivariate and dynamic, changing particularly as a result of ageing and life-cycle stage, as well as being influenced by other people. Pearce acknowledged that he was influenced by the work of the psychologist Maslow (1954), who created a hierarchical range of needs from low level, primarily physical needs, to high level intellectual needs. Maslow termed these needs, in ascending sequence, as 'physiological', 'safety', 'social', 'self-esteem' and 'self-development'. Pearce, using Maslow's (1954) ideas, proposed the following tourism motivation categories: 'relaxation', 'excitement and thrills', 'social interaction', 'self-esteem and development' and 'fulfilment'.

In attempting to summarize the major motivations of tourists, Ryan (1991) drew on the work of Cohen (1972), Crompton (1979) and Matthieson and Wall (1982) and presented 11 major reasons for tourist travel. These are as follows:

- (1) Escape
- (2) Relaxation
- (3) Play
- (4) Strengthening family bonds
- (5) Prestige
- (6) Social interaction
- (7) Sexual opportunity
- (8) Educational opportunity
- (9) Self-fulfilment
- (10) Wish fulfilment
- (11) Shopping.

This list of 11 motivations for tourist journeys can also be seen to be linked to the concept of 'push' and 'pull' factors with, for example, 'escape' clearly a 'push' factor and 'prestige' clearly a 'pull' factor. Ryan (1991) indicated that often, holidays choices are based on a combination of motivations that are seen as a set of priorities by the potential tourist at the time. These priorities may change over time and realizing some travel needs may be deliberately delayed (Ryan, 1991, 1997).

Chadwick (1987) provided a more simplified categorization of the reasons for tourist-related journeys when he summarized the motivations for, and purpose of travel, under three main headings. These are as follows:

- (1) *Pleasure*: leisure, culture, active sports, visiting friends and relatives (VFR).
- (2) *Professional*: meetings, missions, business, etc.
- (3) *Other purposes*: study, health, transit.

At the end of the twentieth century, the Annual International Passenger Survey carried out by the British Tourist Authority distinguished five types of tourism-related visit (cited in Prosser, 1998):

- (1) Holiday independent
- (2) Holiday inclusive
- (3) Business

- (4) VFR
- (5) Miscellaneous.

As Prosser (1998) indicated, the VFR segment is important in the United Kingdom and Europe and particularly significant within Australia, New Zealand and Canada with as many as 20 per cent of visitors to Australia being in the VFR category. Partly in relation to this high figure, Prosser (1998) suggested a 3-fold categorization of visitor motivation, as follows: (i) pleasure, (ii) business and (iii) VFR.

With reference to attempts to classify tourist motivation, it should not be forgotten that many trips have multiple purposes and are likely to involve different forms of transport and accommodation types. Hence, this tends to limit the usefulness of any classification. Despite these limitations, Figure 1.1 is an attempt to classify tourists.

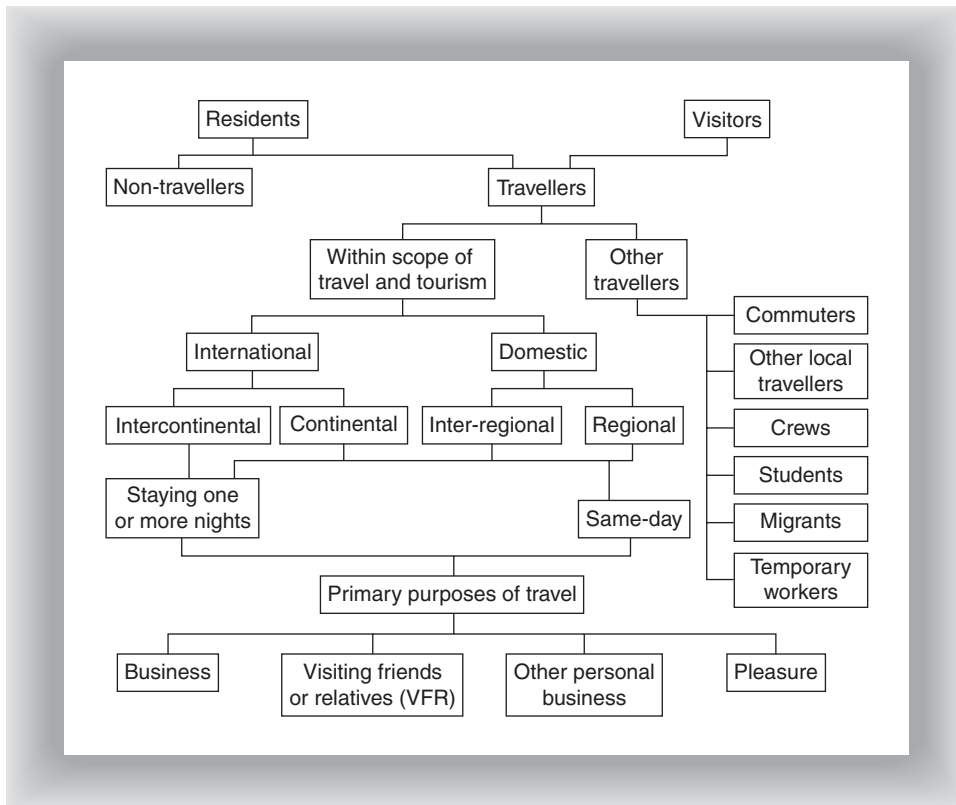


Figure 1.1 A classification of travellers and tourists (adapted from Brent Ritchie and Goeldner, 1994)



Figure 1.2 A summary of sectors of the tourism industry (adapted from Lavery, 1987)

The tourism industry

An important issue in this book is the relationship between different sectors of the tourism industry. This book also investigates the relationships between tourists, tourism stakeholders and governments and industry representatives. A summary of different sectors of the tourism industry, referring to a travel sector, accommodation sector, leisure and entertainment sector and a sector concerned with tourism organizations, is shown in Figure 1.2.

A slightly different summary of the tourism industry is shown in Figure 1.3. In this summary, based on Middleton (1994), there are five sectors and although these are similar to Lavery's sectors, there is more emphasis on tourism organizations and the attractions for tourists.

Tourism systems

The location of tourism activity is a major component of tourism (Mason, 1990). Leiper (1990) attempted to link the tourism destination with the tourism generating

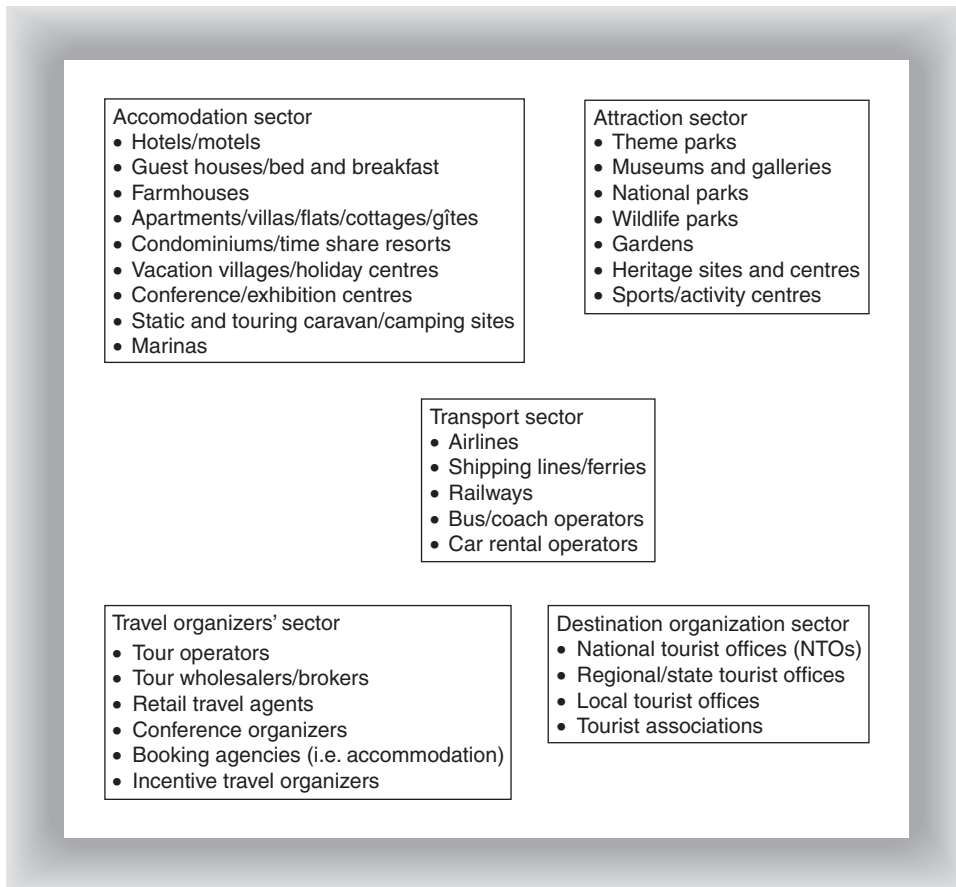


Figure 1.3 The main sectors of the tourism industry (adapted from Middleton, 1994)

region. His model is shown in Figure 1.4. Leiper's model is an attempt to view tourism as a form of system, in which there is an operational structure built-up of interacting components. In the model there are three interactive components: (i) the tourism generating region, (ii) the destination region and (iii) transit routes which link the two regions. However, Leiper's model has been criticized for being simplistic (Prosser, 1998). Prosser provided a more detailed model that, he claimed, represents more effectively the inner complexities of the tourism environment. Prosser's model is shown in Figure 1.5.

Much of the discussion in this book focuses on the location that tourists visit, that is, the tourism destination. It is in the destination (at the receiving end of tourism) that most impacts tend to be noted and may be felt particularly strongly

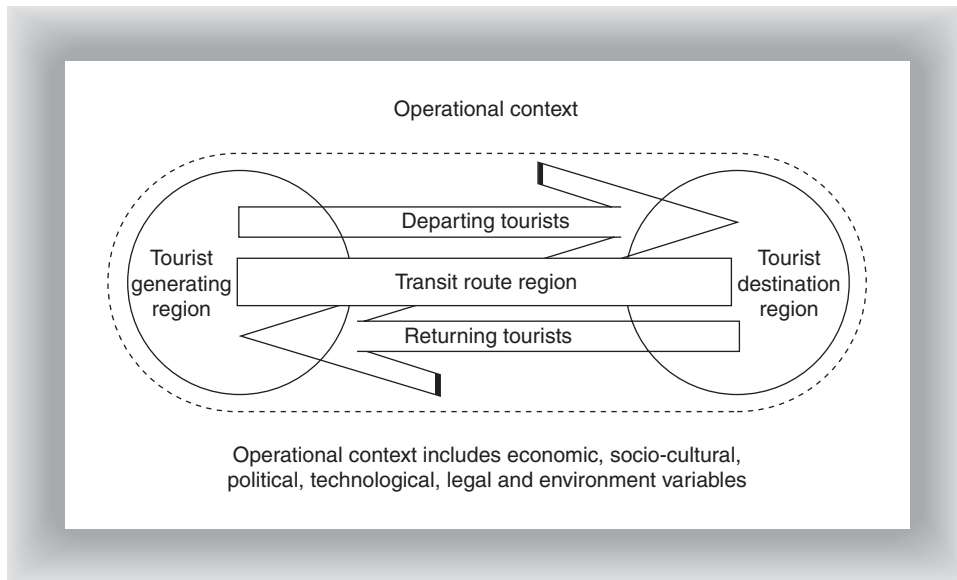


Figure 1.4 The tourism system: a spatial construct (adapted from Leiper, 1990)

by resident populations. Hence, there is a major need for planning and managing at the tourism destination.

The growth of tourism

Modern tourism developed largely as a result of urbanization in Western Europe. Prior to this, societal divisions, responsibilities and allegiances led to the great majority of people in Western Europe being born in small communities and living and dying in these same tightly focused relatively small communities. These people worked the land and were tied to this by seasonal demands for labour input and social relationships that required service to a landowner and quite possibly the established church. Such people had little leisure time and what they had was often linked to family responsibilities. Recreation was largely a spiritual activity that took place through the church, although festivals and religious holidays provided a few opportunities for leisure pursuits. However, the great majority of people lacked the ability or desire to travel away from their birthplace (Mason, 1990). Frequent travel was confined to the small elite, the ruling class made up of large landowners, church leaders and monarchs and their entourage. For the

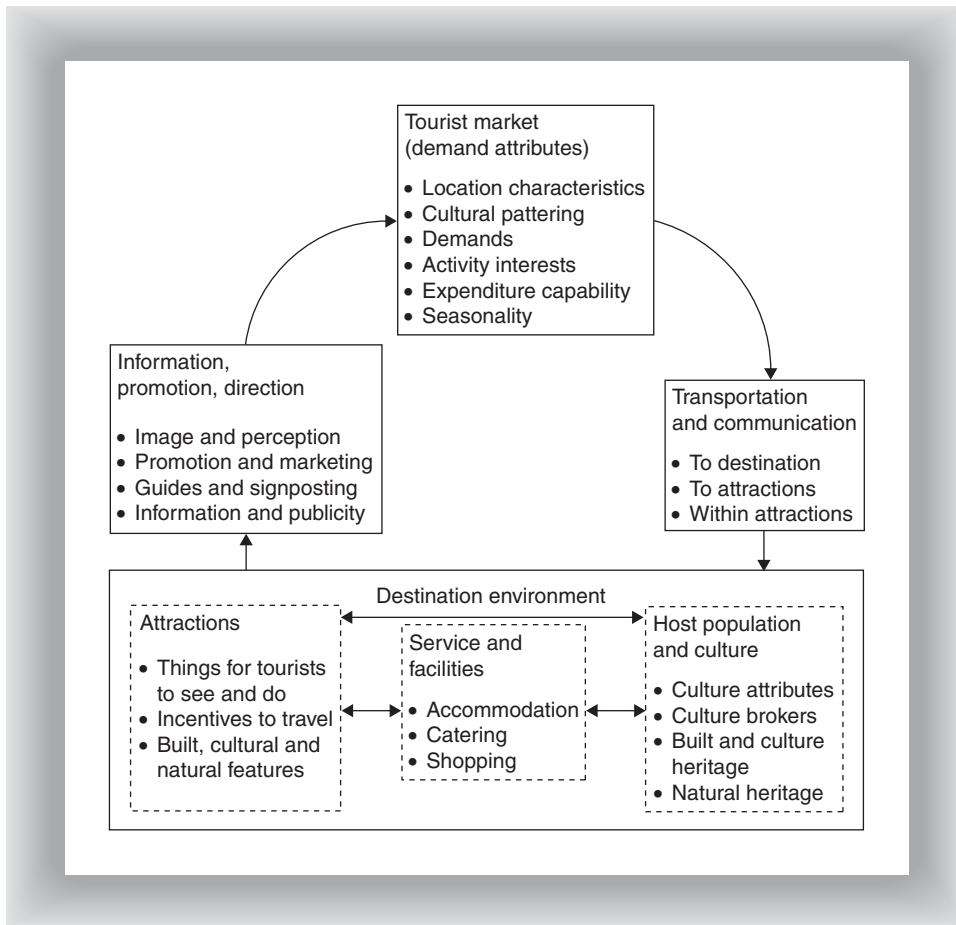


Figure 1.5 The tourism environment (adapted from Prosser, 1998)

majority of the masses, the only possibility of long-distance travel was likely to be linked to a pilgrimage, a religious crusade or time spent as a mercenary.

When urban settlements expanded from about 1750 in Europe, the old bond to land and landowners was broken. Large numbers of people left their place of birth and moved to these rapidly growing settlements. Here, by 1800, employment opportunities were in factories, where for the first time workers received wages and despite long hours of work had both time and money to engage in leisure activities. Gradually, with the change in living environment and working relationships came new attitudes to life. Recreation was increasingly viewed as an important part of life and this could involve physical as well as mental activity.

Although an increasing number of people resident in Europe were able to travel, from the Middle Ages onwards up to the eighteenth century, it was still the preserve of a small, wealthy elite. It was not until the era of the Industrial Revolution, and particularly after 1800, that travel became far more accessible to a significantly high percentage of the population. Greater access to travel was accompanied by certain other developments in society, and this contributed to the growth in demand for and provision of tourism experiences.

A variety of important factors contributed to the development of tourism during the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century. Mason (1990) suggested five major reasons for the growth of tourism. These are as follows:

- (1) A rise in industrial output associated with the Industrial Revolution that in turn led to an increase in the standard of living.
- (2) Improvements in transport technology, which led to cheaper and more accessible travel. Railways and ocean liners appeared in the nineteenth century and cars and aircraft in the first half of the twentieth century.
- (3) The introduction of annual holidays towards the end of the nineteenth century.
- (4) Changing perceptions of the environment. Locations that were once viewed as hostile, were now seen as attractive.
- (5) An increasing desire to travel. This was related partly to improvements in education and also to greater overseas travel, which was mainly the result of war. This created interest in foreign locations and also overseas business travel.

A number of the social and economic changes that had been occurring before the second half of the century continued and accelerated after the Second World War. Salaries and wages steadily increased and this meant more disposable income to spend on leisure pursuits. The amount of leisure time also went up as the working week decreased in terms of number of hours required at work, and the length of the annual holiday increased. This greater access to recreation activities was accompanied by a rapid rise in car ownership, particularly in North America in the 1950s and Western Europe during the late 1950s and early 1960s. Roads and motorway systems in Europe and North America were greatly improved during this period. For the first time, large numbers of potential tourists could plan their own trips without having to rely on either publicly or privately owned transport organizations. Aircraft also became more comfortable and

sophisticated and an increasing number and range of passengers were flying; in this period flying to a distant overseas destination became a real alternative in financial terms to a journey by ship. During this period, public transport, in particular trains and coaches, improved in terms of comfort and comparative costs, hence allowing a wider range of users.

In the last quarter of the twentieth century and early part of the twenty-first century, the relationship between demand and supply in tourism was based largely on the dynamics of people's perception, expectations, attitudes and values (Prosser, 1994). As Prosser argued, tourism had become very much a fashion industry, in which there were very close links between tourism demand and the concepts of status and image. This ensures that as societies that generate tourists frequently change their motivations, expectations and demands, tourism is a notoriously fickle industry. Therefore reasons for travel can change rapidly, although they may appear at any one time to be unchanging. For example, throughout much of the period from the late 1950s to the late 1980s getting a suntan was central to a large number of people's expectation of a holiday. This 'getting bronzed' mentality appeared endemic and eternal at the time. However, this desire only dated back to the lifestyle of leisured classes on the Cote d'Azur, France, in the 1920s (Prosser, 1994). Prior to this, most Europeans kept out of the sun. This was especially so for women for whom a pale complexion was seen as more attractive. In the early twenty-first century, pale skin became once again fashionable, but this time the reason was more health related, with growing concerns about skin cancer caused by too much exposure to the sun.

Not only have people's motivations and expectations of holidays changed, but geography plays a major part. Where tourism experiences can be obtained is itself subject to variations in demand and, hence, supply. For instance, in the 1970s it was not sufficient just to *get* a suntan, but *where one got it* was vital (Prosser, 1994). In the early 1960s, in Britain getting a suntan in Brighton or Blackpool was sufficient, by the early 1970s to achieve the desired status the tan had to be brought back to Britain from Benidorm and by the 1980s it had to have been obtained in Belize! In Australia, Bondi Beach would have been good enough for most sun-seekers in the 1970s, but, by the 1980s, to really enhance one's status it was necessary to get the tan in Bali! However, reference to Bali emphasizes the unpredictability of tourism. Until October 2002, Bali was a major destination for sun-seeking tourists from many locations in the developed world. The terrorist attack at two night clubs in Kuta, a resort in Bali, on 19 October 2002, in

which almost 200 young people from Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, Britain and other European countries died, resulted in a collapse of tourism numbers. Although the numbers were recovering by late 2003, another major setback to tourism occurred in 2005 when there was another bombing incident in the same area of Bali and there has been only slow improvement since.

In the last 15 years or so of the twentieth century, changing attitudes also contributed to a re-evaluation of the nature of the tourist experience. Accompanying the growing realization that tourism takes place in finite geographical space, was the notion that it consumes environmental resources (McKercher, 1993). Increasingly, tourists became concerned about the effects their activities were having on the environment (Fennell, 1999). This led to the growth of what some consider as more environment friendly forms of tourism, such as ecotourism (Wearing and Neil, 1999). Additionally, some tourists sought experiences that would give them more contact with the population in the destination region and potentially contribute more to the local economy. In this way, these tourists demonstrated that they were concerned about the ethics of the tourist–host relationship and were seeking a more just and equitable form of tourism than was achievable in more conventional types of the activity (see Mason and Mowforth, 1996; Malloy and Fennell, 1998; Fennell and Malloy, 2007).

Data limitations

One of the key problems in assessing the scale, importance and hence impacts of tourism is the inconsistency and incomparability of figures collected. Leiper (1999) indicated that the WTO is frequently cited as a source of data on international tourism. Leiper quoted figures from 1996 that suggested there were almost 600 million international tourists, representing more than 10 per cent of the Earth's population at that time. Leiper stated that this figure was not truly tourists but 'arrivals'. He argued that WTO statistical data ignore patterns of trip frequency and multi-destination itineraries and that a large proportion of these arrivals are by the same travellers, not separate individuals. Therefore, Leiper suggested, nearer to 200 million individuals travelled internationally in 1996, this is only one-third of the WTO figure. Although WTO figures show a continuing increase in international tourist numbers during the early twenty-first century, there is no reason to believe that the great majority of international tourism data is able to distinguish tourists who make only one international journey per year, from others who make many repeat trips.

Data problems can be found at all scales: international, national and internal (Prosser, 1998). As Theobald (1994) indicated, this is even a problem within one country. For example, in the United States, a tourist in Florida is 'an out-of-state resident who stays at least one night in the state for reasons other than the necessary layover for transportation connections or for strictly business transactions'. However, in Alaska a tourist is defined as 'a non-resident travelling to Alaska for pleasure or culture and for no other purpose' (Theobald, 1994).

Middleton (1994, p. 7) has indicated that despite efforts to create a degree of comparability of tourism statistics, achieving precision is very complex and:

despite various guidelines, no uniformity yet exists in the measurement methods used around the world.

Case Study: Tourism growth in Australia

Early European travellers to Australia were usually reluctant visitors. The commander of the First Fleet dispatched from Plymouth, England in 1787, to establish the colony of New South Wales described the 736 convicts on board as 'unwilling tourists'. For much of the nineteenth century European visitors to Australia were either convicts or business people. At this time, Australia suffered from the 'tyranny of distance' in terms of its links with Europe – it took several months to get to Australia by ship. The commentaries on Australian life which were published in Britain from the early nineteenth century, in order to attract settlers, were extremely important to the commencement of tourism. Australia was often pictured to the rural audience as an Arcadia where the fruits of the soil could be easily won. Such romanticized imagery was important in attracting both tourists and immigrants to Australia.

The Australian experience of Victorian attitudes towards leisure and recreation runs directly parallel to British developments. The North Shore Steamboat Ferry Service that linked Sydney City with the then rural North Shore, and the ferries to take customers to Botany Bay Zoo may be regarded as the antipodean equivalent to the ferrying of city weary Londoners to the coastal resorts of Margate and Southend. On land, however, perhaps the most significant event for making travel accessible to all social classes was the coming of the railway and with it came the development of mass tourism. The onset of rail led to a revolution in tourism and recreation activities. Prior to this, recreational travel was restricted to immediate areas surrounding population centres. The railways helped open up the hinterland for domestic travellers.

Mass tourism is usually acknowledged to have begun in 1841 when Thomas Cook, the world's first noted tour operator, conducted an excursion train from Leicester, England. Later Cook used a combination of rail and ship to organize and run tours to Europe, the Middle East and North Africa. By 1872, Cook offered a world cruise on steamboats that included glimpses of both Australia and New Zealand. The inclusion of Sydney and Melbourne in the itinerary marked the beginning of packaged international travel to Australia. Cook's significant role in relation to international tourism can also be noted in relation to his company's publishing of advice and a guidebook for travellers to Australia and New Zealand in 1889.

Accompanying the economic development of Australia was a number of social developments. Unlike British working practices, in Australia most urban trade unions adopted the principle of 8-hour labour, 8-hour recreation and 8-hour rest. This ensured leisure was viewed in a positive way. The railways assisted in the pursuit of leisure as they made new destinations accessible and helped make travel a permanent part of Australian culture. The first railway lines were important in the establishment of Australia's national parks. These were initially set up as areas for recreational activity of city dwellers, rather than being for the protection of flora and fauna.

By the end of the nineteenth century, tourism and leisure were not just the regime of the wealthy. The railways, in particular, had made travel possible for the majority of the population. The railways helped open up the interior for domestic tourism, while the steamship brought Australia closer in terms of travelling time to Europe. Urban attractions such as museums, art galleries and parks, still important today, were already significant visitor attractions at the end of the nineteenth century.

The first true coastal resorts were also established by the end of the nineteenth century, in such places as Sandgate and Cleveland in Queensland, Glenelg in South Australia and Brighton and Sorrento in Victoria. However, at none of these places did swimming become legal until the early part of the twentieth century, as the original role of the coastal resorts was as places to take the sea air and seawater as a cure for a variety of ailments. The railways helped boost inland tourism destinations in Australia that developed as health spas. After the building of the Sydney to Blue Mountain railway, the Blue Mountains became an area visited for the supposed health giving properties of their mountain air, as well as the spectacular scenery.

In the 1920s and 1930s, the expansion of mass transport enabled once remote beaches and attractions to come within easier reach. During this period a bush-walking movement also developed in Australia. Several clubs were established, such as the Sydney Bushwalkers, set-up by prominent walkers and conservationists Paddy Wallin and Myles Dunphy.



Photo 1 Ayers Rock: a symbol for modern Australia?

Regular airline services between Australia and overseas only began in the 1930s. The first airmail service from Britain to Australia was set up in 1934 and this provided the stimulus for the establishment of Qantas Empire Airways, the forerunner of the current Qantas Airlines.

After the Second World War, most people had greater disposable income as well as more leisure time, particularly as 3-week holiday became standard. Car ownership increased. This led to important changes in the accommodation sector as hotels and boarding houses declined in popularity and motels became more prominent. In the post-war period of the 1950s, Qantas became the major Australian airline, and in 1958 Qantas introduced its first round-the-world service.

During the more recent period, particularly since the late 1970s, tourism activities became more closely linked with Australia's heritage. There was a recognition by the Australian public that tourists want to see Australia's past, and government and operators have also noted that heritage pays. Tourism has also assisted Australians in their search for social meaning in their environment, and helped them better appreciate their national identity. As Horn (1994, p. 3) indicated, 'As the Swiss found national identity in the Alps, Australians have found identity in the red granite of Ayer's Rock' (see Photo 1).

Adapted from Hall (1995).

Summary

This chapter has considered the problems of trying to define tourism and tourists. It has briefly outlined the motivations for tourism, considered the nature

of tourism as an industry and discussed tourism as a system. This chapter has also explored changing attitudes to travel, as well as presenting a discussion of how opportunities for travel have increased. The problems with and limitations of tourism data have been presented. The main focus has been an investigation of a number of important economic and social factors that have contributed to the growth of tourism in the last two centuries. Discussion has centred around changes in Europe since 1750 or so, but a case study of socio-economic change in Australia since Western colonization has indicated both similarities with and differences from the European experience.

Student activities

- (1) What are the key social and economic changes suggested by the information in Figure 1.6?

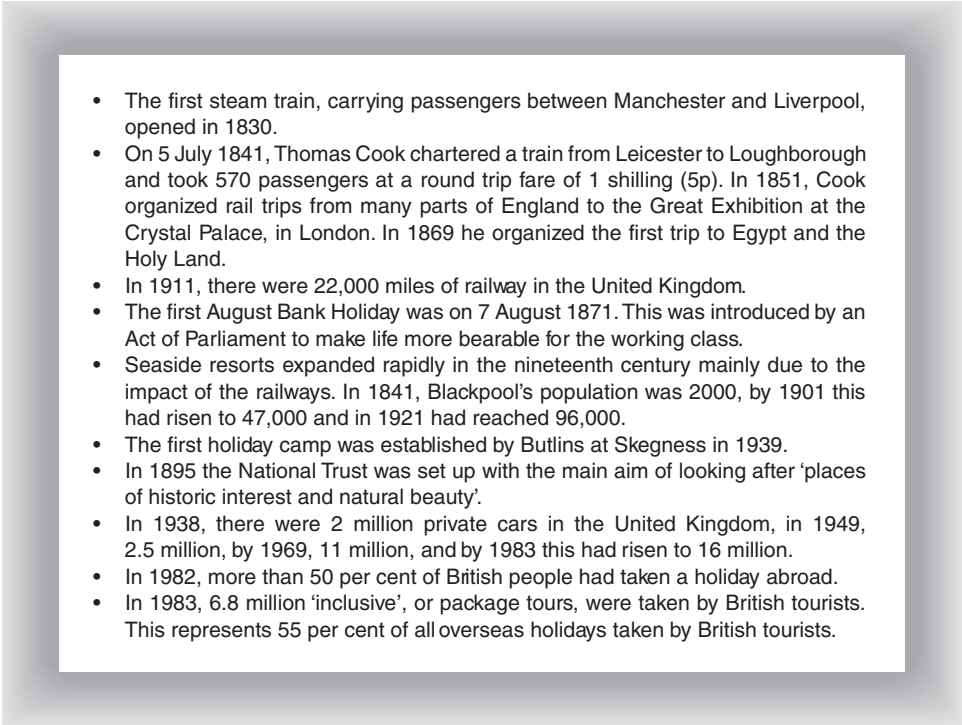
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- The first steam train, carrying passengers between Manchester and Liverpool, opened in 1830.
 - On 5 July 1841, Thomas Cook chartered a train from Leicester to Loughborough and took 570 passengers at a round trip fare of 1 shilling (5p). In 1851, Cook organized rail trips from many parts of England to the Great Exhibition at the Crystal Palace, in London. In 1869 he organized the first trip to Egypt and the Holy Land.
 - In 1911, there were 22,000 miles of railway in the United Kingdom.
 - The first August Bank Holiday was on 7 August 1871. This was introduced by an Act of Parliament to make life more bearable for the working class.
 - Seaside resorts expanded rapidly in the nineteenth century mainly due to the impact of the railways. In 1841, Blackpool's population was 2000, by 1901 this had risen to 47,000 and in 1921 had reached 96,000.
 - The first holiday camp was established by Butlins at Skegness in 1939.
 - In 1895 the National Trust was set up with the main aim of looking after 'places of historic interest and natural beauty'.
 - In 1938, there were 2 million private cars in the United Kingdom, in 1949, 2.5 million, by 1969, 11 million, and by 1983 this had risen to 16 million.
 - In 1982, more than 50 per cent of British people had taken a holiday abroad.
 - In 1983, 6.8 million 'inclusive', or package tours, were taken by British tourists. This represents 55 per cent of all overseas holidays taken by British tourists.

Figure 1.6 Some important dates in the growth of tourism in the United Kingdom (adapted from Mason, 1990)

- (2) Sub-divide the information shown in Figure 1.6, under the following headings:
 - transport changes,
 - leisure time changes,
 - tourist destination changes,
 - recreation/tourism activity changes.
- (3) Study the information contained in both the case study of tourism growth in Australia and Figure 1.6. To what extent were the social and economic changes occurring in the United Kingdom: (a) similar to and (b) different from those operating in Australia?
- (4) Consider a holiday that you have taken recently and attempt to classify your motivations for the holiday under the headings of 'push' and 'pull'. What are the limitations of this approach?