CHAPTER II

Definitions, Concepts and Review of Literature on Tourism
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LITERATURE ON TOURISM

Ogilvie (1933), calls tourists as “as persons who satisfy two conditions-
first, they are away from home for any period less than a year and second, while
they are away, they spend in the place they visit, without earning there”.

According to Jose Ignacia De Arrilliga (1935), “Tourism in its first
period was considered as a sport or rather as a synthesis of automobiles, touring,
cyling, camping, excursion and yachting. In the early nineteenth century, the
term ‘tourist’ assumed a meaning of ‘one who makes a tour or tours’, especially
one who does this for recreation or who travels for pleasure, object of interest,
scenery or the like”.

Norval (1936), defines a tourist as “one who enters a foreign country for
whatever purpose other than for permanent residence, or regular business across
the border and who spends in the country of temporary stay, money which has
been earned elsewhere”.

Swiss professors Hunziker and Kraft (1942), describe the concept of
tourism as “it is the sum of phenomena and relationship arising from the travel
and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence
and are not connected with any earning activity”.

Zivadin (1943) says, “Tourism is a social movement with a view to rest,
diversion and satisfaction of cultural needs”.

Primavlt (1943) considers tourism as “an exploration of all that is
unknown in all spheres of human activity and in all aspects of nature. It is also
the search for rest, response for health and quietude in a congenial and comfortable atmosphere”.

According to Hunziker (1951), “Social tourism is a type of tourism practised by low income groups and which is rendered possible and facilitated by entirely separate and therefore easily recognizable services.” He proposed this definition during the Second Congress of Social Tourism held at Vienna and Salzburg in Austria in May 1959.

According to the Austrian professor Bernecker (1961), “Tourism is the sum of the relations and services connected with a temporary and voluntary change of residence for non-commercial or non-professional reasons”.

According to Webster’s dictionary (1961), tourism means, “a circular trip usually for business, pleasure or education during which various places are visited and for which an itinerary is usually planned”.

Another definition propounded by Andre Poplimont (1962) is as follows: “Social tourism is the type of tourism practiced by those who would not be able to meet the cost without social intervention, that is, without the assistance of an association to which the individual belongs.”

Hansan (1966) says that tourism provides “invisible income”.

Clement (1967) in his study entitled, ‘The Impact of Tourist Expenditure’, says, “In countries where there are substantial leakages for slow turnover, the money spent by tourists seems to turn over between 3.2 and 3.5 times a year before it disappears. In the highly developed economies, there is less leakage and a higher limit, perhaps 4.3 would probably apply. The multiplier of 3.2 is the lowest that can be produced under any reasonably accurate set of circumstances.”
Gray (1970) in his paper, ‘The Balance of Payments Cost of Foreign Travel Expenditure’, says, “assuming fixed rates of exchange and no induced price changes, the incremental purchase of foreign goods or service will result in a net drain in the foreign currency reserve of the buying country. The proportional drain will result upon the marginal propensities of the selling nations to spend on domestic products, to import directly from the buying nation, to import from other nations, and upon the marginal propensities of these third nations to spend and to import and so on. The proportionate drain resulting from an increase in imports will be unity minus the ratio of incremental exports guaranteed per unit of imports. The rate of additional imports is called the reflection ratio. The reflection ratio can be expressed in terms of incremental imports from a single good or service; in the later case the ratio is the average reflection ratio for all supplying nations weighed by the distribution of the incremental imports among those nations.”

Janata (1971) in a paper on tourism commented, “Tourism has arrived; aided and abetted by improved communications, education, higher incomes and freedom of movement, to influence consumer behaviour and the growth, location, and stratification of the ‘industry’, including the hotel and catering industry.” This statement indicates the term ‘industry’ as applied to tourism. Strictly speaking, tourism, like recreation, is not an industry: it is an activity; but, in economic terms, it creates a demand or provides a market for a number of quite separate and varied industries”.

Also, “the early post-World War-II years saw the birth of the modern-day tourism as an industry. The spectacular growth of package holidays was prompted by the ideas of the entrepreneurs who saw money-making opportunities in it. Their successes and failures started a new thinking in marketing the tourism. In due course, with the adoption of the modern marketing management concepts to the promotion of tourism, an entirely new discipline of ‘tourism marketing’ was evolved. The application of marketing
principles to tourism means formulation of a marketing mix on the basis of the tourists’ needs and requirements, expectations, aspirations and taste preferences. Kirpendorf (1971) says, “Marketing in tourism signifies the systematic and coordinated execution of a tourism business policy by tourist undertakings, whether private or State-owned at local, regional, national or international levels to achieve the optimal satisfaction of the needs of tourists and in doing so, achieve an appropriate return”.

McIntosh (1972), in his article, ‘Some Tourism Economics’ reveals the economic advantages of tourism. For the country, as a whole, tourism may prove to be a valuable source of foreign exchange; within a country, it may have a marked effect on the distribution of incomes between different regions, acting as an injection of spending power of underdeveloped areas. Employment opportunities may also be increased by tourism. Again, for underdeveloped parts of the country, the duration of employment through tourism may be particularly an important factor in the local labour market. Tourism may also support conservation. This will be mainly indirect; a proportion of the increased incomes of local inhabitants, business, firms and the local authority may be channelled through taxes into conservation work. Moreover tourism is also responsible for creating employment outside the industry in its narrowly defined sense and in this context McIntosh said, “it scores noticeably over other forms of new industry”. Those who supply goods and services to those induced employments include, for example, those involved in the construction industry, in furnishing and equipment industries, and in farming and food supply. It is interesting that the tourist industry is one of the few in which more women are employed than men in many countries.

The tourist industry is a ‘labour-intensive service industry’ and hence it is a valuable source of employment. In many of the developing countries, where chronic unemployment and disguised employment often exist, the promotion of tourism can prove to be an encouragement to economic development and,
especially employment. "Tourism as a source of employment," says Medlik (1972), "is particularly important for areas with limited alternative sources of employment, as is often the case in non-industrial areas deficient in natural resources other than scenic attractions and climate.

According to an estimate about 1,40,000 persons are directly employed in the tourist industry in Switzerland and about a million persons in the United Kingdom. In the United States, for every 1,000 guests in hotels, the total jobs created are 386 in the hotel and ancillary industries (R.K. Chowdary, 1973).

To quote Leonard Lickorish (1974), a well-known tourism expert, "the nature of tourism as a collection of trades, economic activity and many mini or specialized markets require treatment as a grand confederation."

Burkart and Medlik opine (1974), "Tourism marketing activities are the systematic and coordinated efforts expanded by the national tourist organizations and/or tourist enterprises at international, national and local levels, to optimize the satisfaction of tourist groups and individuals in view of the sustained tourism growth".

In the words of Robinson (1976), "the attractions of tourism are, to a very large extent, geographical in their character. Location and accessibility are important. In short, attraction accessibility and amenities are very essential for tourism."

Brain Archer (1976) gives an exhaustive list of scholars who have done commendable research work in tourism. Some important analysis employed in tourism studies all over the world are Decomposition Analysis of Baron (1975), Time Series Analysis of George Box (1970) and Multivariable Regression Demand Analysis of John Turner (1974).
United Nations definition (1976) states that the ‘Tourist’ is a person who stays in a foreign country for more than 24 hours for the purpose of leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, sport, family and business activity). ‘Excursionists’ are temporary visitors staying for less than twenty-four hours in the country visited (including travelling on cruises).

The above definition is followed in this study.

Kaiser and Helber (1978) say, “Tourism, in its broadest, genetic sense, can be more to develop understanding among people, provide job, create foreign exchange and raise living standards than any other economic force known”.

According to Bhatia (1978), “Tourism does not exist alone. It consists of certain components, three of them namely transport, location and accommodation may be considered as basic components of tourism”.

Ummat (1979) in his article, ‘Fostering Tourism”, surveys the growth of tourism in India since the fifties when concerned efforts came to be made to foster it, and to highlight those factors that have decelerated this growth. In view of the widening trade deficit, it is imperative that India should step up efforts at boosting the invisible foreign exchange earnings. Tourism, which yielded foreign exchange worth Rs. 330 crores in 1978 offers greater scope for narrowing the gap in the balance of payments. Unfortunately, it should be in a decline in growth in 1979, to just 5.3 per cent from 16 per cent in 1978 and 20 per cent in 1977. The article also touches upon the economic benefits that can be derived from tourism, which undoubtedly can prove a good lever for enlarging the avenues of employment.

Jenkins (1980), a senior lecturer in tourism at the Scottish Hotel School, United Kingdom, says that ‘as a path to development, tourism is an attractive option. People from the richer nations show a growing urge to visit far-away
places, thus conferring the benefits of income redistribution and employment. But there are obstacles for example, the developing countries have little influence on total demand, and they may suffer from inadequate transport services. Uncontrolled tourism can also cause long-term social problems. Jenkins argues that the host-country governments must intervene to achieve the full benefits of tourism and their policies should be based on sound comparative interdisciplinary research. The increasing involvement of developing countries in international tourism, and the particular need for government intervention in tourism in these countries, created the need to examine the level and type of training provided for public-sector tourism managers. Jenkins (1980) suggests that the level of education required by tourism policy makers should be differentiated from the usual interpretation of vocational training, and that this education is best derived from academically based rather than experience-based training.

In tourism field, the educational and training programmes are proliferating. Professor Gunn (1984) of Tourism Planning and Development at Texas A and M University, argues that instead of standardizing these courses, educators should encourage the development of more to fill the gaps left by the rapid growth in this complex area. Education and training should be emphasized not as separate issues but as interlinked components in college programmes. Gunn (1985) in his paper, ‘Getting ready for mega trends in travel attractions; shows why development, management and promotion of attractions should be geared to the relevant type of tourist and should provide the type of satisfaction expected.

McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) say that “tourism can be defined as the science, art and business of attracting and transporting visitors, accommodating them, and graciously catering to their needs and wants”. They also introduce the notion that tourism is interactive in that they believe that “tourism may be defined as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the
interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments, and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors.

D'Amore (1987) says that tourism is not only an interactive process but also a vehicle for world peace.

Daniel J Stynes and Cynthia O’Halloran (1987) of Michigan State University give a simple structure and basic guidelines for comprehensive tourism planning at a community or regional level. Tourism planning has evolved from two related but distinct sets of planning philosophies and methods. On the one hand, tourism is one of many activities in an area that must be considered as part of physical, environmental, social and economic planning. Tourism may also be viewed as a business in which a community or region chooses to engage. If, tourism is a significant component of an area’s economy or development plans, regional or community-wide marketing plans are needed to coordinate the development and marketing activities of different tourism interests in the community.

Shames and Glover (1989) combine this duality by proposing the notion that the “service experience” of tourism is a “social experience” and as such involves “human individuals”.

Graburn and Jafar Jafari (1991) say that “no single discipline alone can accommodate, treat or understand tourism; It can be studied only if disciplinary boundaries are crossed and if multidisciplinary perspectives are sought and formed”. For example, Churchill (1991) adopted a scientific method to tourism marketing. His classification was very useful for a deeper insight into tourism prospects of marketing.
Hunt and Layne (1991) acknowledge the problems of defining travel and tourism. They say that travel is the most accepted term until 1987 and since that time tourism is the accepted term used to “singularly describe the activity of people taking trips away from home and the industry which has developed in response to this activity”.

“The desire to be a pilgrim is deeply rooted in human nature. To stand where we never once stood, to see the very sites where our kith and kin were born, toiled and died, give us a feeling of mystical contact with them and is a practical expression of our homage. And if the great men of the world have shrines to which their admirers come from distant places, still more do men flock eagerly to those places where they believe, the divine has sanctified the earth” (Runciman, 1992).

The evolved definition of Smith and Eadington (1992) simply states that “tourism is in fact a significant social institution”.

Gunn (1994) believes that tourism “encompasses all travels with the exception of commuting” and that it is more than just a service industry.

The former Prime Minister of India, Jawaharlal Nehru, gave the slogan “Welcome a visitor and send back a friend”. The social benefits of tourism are largely a product of economic development (Monthly Commentary, 1995).

According to the Cambridge dictionary (1995), ‘tourists’ is defined as people who visit places for pleasure and interest, usually while they are on holiday and ‘tourism’ is defined as the business of providing services, such as transport, places to stay for people or entertainment for people who are on holiday.
Kotler P. Bowen (1996), comments that pilgrim tourism can do much more to develop an understanding among people, provide job opportunities, create foreign exchange and raise the standard of living than any other economic force known.

The former Union Tourism Minister Shrikant Jena (1996) said, “This sector provides direct employment to about 7.7 million or about 2.4 per cent of total labour force. The labour-capital ratio per million rupee of investment in the hotel and restaurant sector was also 89 jobs, as against 44.7 jobs in the case of agriculture and 12.6 jobs in the manufacturing industries”.

The changing nature of the tourism industry, with its move away from mass tourism towards greater market segmentation, use of new technologies, differentiation of the product and adoption of new management styles demands a change in the substance of government’s tourism policies. Eduardo (1996) in his article reviews the development of tourism policy from pure promotion to product development to the current goal of maintaining competitiveness. He argues for a more balanced partnership between private, public and voluntary sectors and discusses various national plans that may serve as a model for future policy making. The trend in some quarters towards privatization of policy programmes is considered unsustainable.

The former Union Minister for Tourism Jena again (1997) said that it was proposed to setup a National Advisory Board with representatives from the Ministry of Surface Transport, Civil Aviation, Railways, External affairs Finance and the Planning Commission. Jena said 23 States have accorded tourism the status of an industry, and the States like Maharrastra, Jammu and Kashmir and Kerala made master plans for the development of tourism.

Rajarathinam (1997), Secretary of the Department of Tourism and Information and Publicity, had undertaken an intensive tour of districts to
identity “centres of interest” to foreign tourists. He said that if there were better roads, good wayside motels and other excellent facilities, tourism in Tamil Nadu would grow by leaps and bounds.

The Railway Ministry sources (The Hindu, 1997) said that the response would help the railways to assess the demand by foreign tourists for travelling by rail. Plans have been drawn up to provide rail linkages to international airports at New Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, and Thiruvanthapuram.

The Goa Chief Minister Pratapsingh Rane (1997), says that the State would have to make “a hundred per cent shift” from “beach tourism to nature tourism” to ensure harmony between development and preservation of the environment. He also said his Government was keen on privatizing different sectors as far as possible to strengthen infrastructure.

Teri. O’Brien (1997), a Research fellow, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) University, Australia, while inaugurating a workshop on “Tourism in South India” at Avinashilingam Deemed University, said a thriving tourism industry would help the country to clear any outstanding foreign debt. About one million additional western tourists spending a minimum of US $100 per day and staying for an average seven days, would add a staggering US $70 crores to the Indian economy. He also said Indians should cooperate to solve problems of infrastructure related to inadequate power generation, water shortage, poor roads and wasteful irrigation practices.

Lawton and Page (1997) examine the growing interest in the field of traveller’s health as evidenced throughout the expanding interdisciplinary literature on travel medicine. They examine the role of travel agents in the tourism distribution channel as the point of sale for tourism products to consumers and argue that the provision of health advice to intending travellers
constitutes a major ethical dilemma for a business based on the sale of positive holiday experiences.

The Indian Chapter of the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) has launched a tourism awareness programme to focus on immense potential and achievement of the tourism industry. The chairman of PATA in India, Ashok Paradhan (1998), who is also Director General of Tourism in the Department of Tourism, said intensive campaign would be mounted to sensitive people, media, politicians and other to the positive aspects of tourism in terms of economic growth. There would be special focus on the need to pay attention to domestic tourism and middle class tourists. Pardhan pointed out that, in India, this sector provided employment to 80.5 lakhs people directly and 120 lakhs people indirectly. For every Rs. 10 lakhs invested, it created 47.5 jobs and its share in the country’s Gross Domestic Product was 1.2 per cent. In 1996–97, foreign exchange generated from tourism was Rs.10,000 crores, which was 36 per cent of the petroleum revenue bill.

Raguraman (1998) in his paper, “Troubled passage to India”, says that, India represents an interesting case of a country which, despite its size and its immense potential as a tourist destination, has seen relatively low levels of international tourist arrivals and receipts. In fact, growth in international arrivals and receipts in the country during the past decade has not kept pace with the global rates of increase. Two interrelated factors have been found to be largely responsible for this poor performance of India’s tourism sector. The first factor is the low prioritization of tourism in the hierarchy of development directions as identified by the Government. As a consequence, key areas such as tourism infrastructure development, marketing and promotion, and manpower development have lagged behind the industry’s requirements. The second factor relates to India’s aviation policy, which has led to the lack of adequate and high quality air transport services into India. His paper shows how these factors have
Jeffrey Wilks, Barry Watson and Ian (1999) emphasize on road safety of international tourists. Motor vehicle crashes are the leading cause of injury death for international tourists. These crashes make road safety an important issue for tourism authorities. Unfortunately, as it is in other areas of tourist health, the common response from the travel and tourism industry is to remain silent about this problem and to leave any mishaps in the hands of insurers. At the same time, for different reasons, international tourists are not usually targeted for road safety initiatives by transport authorities. Given that there are considerable ‘hidden’ costs associated with international tourists and motor vehicle crashes, the topic should be of concern to both tourism and transport groups.

Manjula Chaudhary (2000) conducted her study with the purpose of determining pre- and post-trip perceptions of foreign tourists about India as a tourist destination. It is observed that India is rated high for its rich art forms and cultural heritage. However, irritants like cheating, begging, unhygienic conditions and lack of safety dampen the spirit of tourists. India can be positioned on the world tourism map only after these hygiene factors are improved along with other motivators.

Bruce Prideaux (2000) analyses the role of the transport system in destination development. Although the transport industry provides the link between tourism generating and destination regions the industry’s role as an agent in destination development has been largely overlooked. If the ability of tourists to travel to preferred destinations is inhibited by inefficiencies in the transport system there is some likelihood that they will seek alternative destinations. Bruce Prideaux in his paper outlines a transport cost model that identifies the significance of transport as a factor in destination development as
well as in the selection of destinations by intending tourists. The model demonstrates the dynamic relationship between categories of holiday expenditure and tourists point of origin. Increased distance generally leads to increased transport access costs and represents a significant factor in total holiday cost.

Webster’s new world college dictionary (2000) defines, ‘tour’ as a turn or shift of work, ‘tourist’ as a person who makes a tour, especially for pleasure and ‘tourism’ as tourist travel especially when regarded as a source of income for a country, business, etc.

The Oxford reference dictionary (2001) defines the terms, ‘tour’ as a journey for pleasure in which several different places are visited, ‘tourist’ as a person who travels for pleasure and ‘tourism’ as the commercial organization and operation of holiday visits to places of interest.

Tour guides are one of the key front-line players in the tourism industry (John AP and Kevin, 2001). Through their knowledge and interpretation of a destination’s attractions and culture, and their communication and service skills, they have the ability to transform the tour into an experience. The role and duties may not be that glamorous as the profession in many countries. Their profession lacks a well-defined career path and their incomes are reliant on a variety of income sources. Service professionalism has become an important issue as destinations compete for tourists in a very competitive environment, especially in Asia as it reels from the effects of the 1997 Asian financial crisis.

Arun Saldanha (2002) of the Open University, Milton Keynes, United Kingdom analyses the “Music Tourism” and describes how the ‘tourist gaze’ constructs the experiences and social relationships within tourism.
In recent years, the heritage tourism market has developed a substantial attention in the tourism industry. There appears to be a sub-segment of the heritage market that consists of tourists who have a personal connection with their heritage beyond a general relationship of collective ancestry. Those who travel to do research in genealogical endeavors, to search for information on or to simply feel connected to ancestors and ancestral roots are categorized as legacy tourists. Gary Mc Cain and Nina M. Ray (2003) of Boise State University, USA in their paper ‘Legacy Tourism’, described the search for personal meaning in heritage travel. They have described the heritage tourism market and discussed distinguishing characteristics that identify legacy tourists, and emphasized to tourism managers the importance of recognizing and responding to this segment.

Simon Hudson (2003), the author of the book ‘Sport and Adventure Tourism’ argues convincingly that there is a lack of academic research on sport and adventure tourism field.

Gavin Jack of the University of Leicester, United Kingdom and Alison Phipps (2003) of the University of Glasgow, United Kingdom focus on the uses of travel guides in the everyday life of tourism. Travel guides are a paradigmatic form of modern travel writing. Recent historical and textual analyses of guides regard them as sites of ideological struggle and indices of shifting cultural understandings about the purpose and nature of travel itself. They conclude by suggesting that travel guides perform important ontological as well as epistemological roles for tourists and that as an artefact of modern culture, their use can also be interpreted in liminal terms when articulated against the wider connections between modernity, life and death.

Brent W. Ritchie (2004) in his paper outlines and discusses a strategic and holistic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry. The paper then proposes a strategic approach to their management from proactive pre-crisis
planning through strategic implementation and finally the evaluation and feedback.

Nancy J. Gladwell and Leandra A. Bedini (2004) have explored the impact of care giving on the leisure travel behaviors of family care givers and their care-recipients.

Jarkko Saarinen (2004) of the University of Oulu, Finland in his article, ‘Destinations in Change’ focuses on the conceptual nature of tourist destination and especially the processes transforming the idea of a destination, its representations and physical character as a subject of research. Tourist destinations are seen as dynamic and historical units with specific identities characterized by hegemonic and other discourses, which produce a notion of what the destination is. However, there is not just one idea or discourse of destination at the time but several, possibly even conflicting ones, which emphasized the need to consider the ethical aspects of tourism development in research.

Destination Knowledge Management contributes to destinations’ competitiveness. Knowledge mapping is used to organize knowledge in a database so that users can find what they need in a convenient and easy way. Sungsoo Pyo’s (2005) study insists the importance of knowledge map for tourist destinations.

Birgit Trauer and Chris Ryan (2005) explains the application of ‘intimacy theory’ in tourism. In some forms of tourism, and perhaps particularly in the case of special interest tourism, it can be argued that tourism encounters are service relationships with emotional attachment through the special interest focus and a level of enduring involvement on the part of participants. This involvement is two-fold. First, an interest with the activity; second, a sharing with like-minded people in a social world that extends from home to tourist
destination and return. Intimacies in tourism can thus be interpreted through the model of the relationship cycle that comprises the stages A Aquaintance, B Buildup, C Continuation and D Dissolution. The paper builds upon this concept by utilizing ideas of other-centredness and self-centredness in personal relationships, and extends the concept of other-centredness to host environments. It also suggests that in the academic literature about place, location may be secondary in that the quality of experience is primarily determined by the intimacies that exist between people at that place, especially that exist between visitors.

Tae Gyou Ko (2005) of the Hallym University, South Korea developed a procedure for the assessment of tourism sustainability. Twelve case studies on the basis of geographical backgrounds were made, and the issues of tourism sustainability assessment were discussed. A model development procedure was proposed, and combination of reductionist and holistic approaches to modelling was employed. He has introduced two models – Barometer of Tourism Sustainability (BTS) and Amoeba of Tourism Sustainability Indicators (ATSI), which are used as devices for the assessment of tourism sustainability. The proposed BTS model represents the comprehensive level of tourism sustainability in a given destination, combining human and natural indicators into an index of sustainable tourism development, without trading one off against the other. The ATSI model is introduced to complement the BTS analysis and to illustrate individual levels of sustainability of tourism indicators.

Gomez Martin (2005) of the University of Barcelona, Spain has examined the relationship among climate, weather and tourism from the perspectives of the geography of tourism and climatology. His article analyzes the nature of the influence that climate has on tourism and recreation, stressing the need to improve upon the simplistic descriptions traditionally reported in planning projects, which are often unconnected to the requirements of tourism, and revealing the links that atmospheric elements maintain with different facets of
this industry. Specifically, he considers the influence that climate and weather exert on the geographical space and demand, supply and market agents of the tourism system.

Bruce Prideaux (2005) in his article ‘factors affecting bilateral tourism flows’ examined the structure of bilateral tourism and identified five broad categories of factors that may affect the overall size of tourism flows. Such analysis of tourism is important because diplomacy and trade continue to be conducted on a nation-to-nation basis despite a growing shift towards multilateralism in free trade blocks such as the European Union and the North American Free Trade Agreement. Further, bilateralism is important because countries have reduced abilities to control tourism imports in an era of growing globalization.

Sue Peattie (2005) and his research group have concern about tourist health and safety. Sunburn, particularly amongst children, is one of the most severe tourist health risks due to the likelihood of ultimately developing into skin cancer. This is a difficult issue for the tourism industry to confront. Perhaps, more importantly, it is a difficult issue because the “sunshine holiday” is the mainstay of the entire industry. Their article uses insights from the UK and Australian focus group research into promoting child sun-safety to discuss the industry’s responsibility to better protect tourists from the known risks of skin cancer, and the steps that could be taken to improve its response.

Samuel Seongseop Kim and Alastair M. Morrison (2005) have made an empirical research on the change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA (Federation of International Football Association) World Cup. According to the results of paired t-tests, the visitors from Japan, China and the US had more positive images after than before the World Cup. The findings from the ANOVA tests indicated that the image changes due to the World Cup were different among the three nationalities. The correspondence
analysis results also showed that the image changes after the World Cup varied according to nationality, educational level, age and occupation. Collectively, the study suggests that an internationally significant event can change the image of a tourism destination in a short time period.

Tourism itself has been defined by the World Tourism Organization as “the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes” (www.tiac-aitc.ca, 2006).