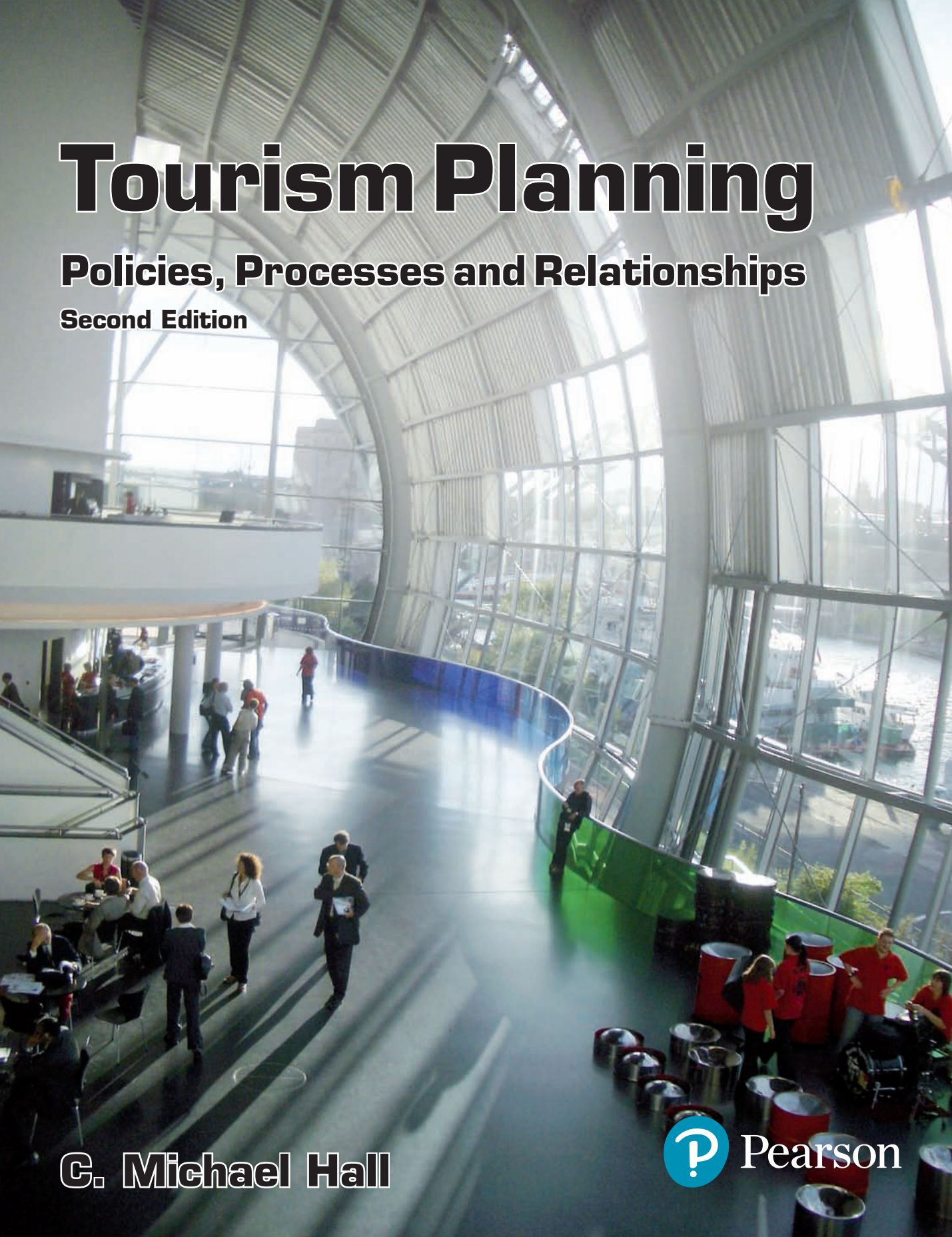

Tourism Planning

Policies, Processes and Relationships

Second Edition

C. Michael Hall

Pearson

Tourism Planning

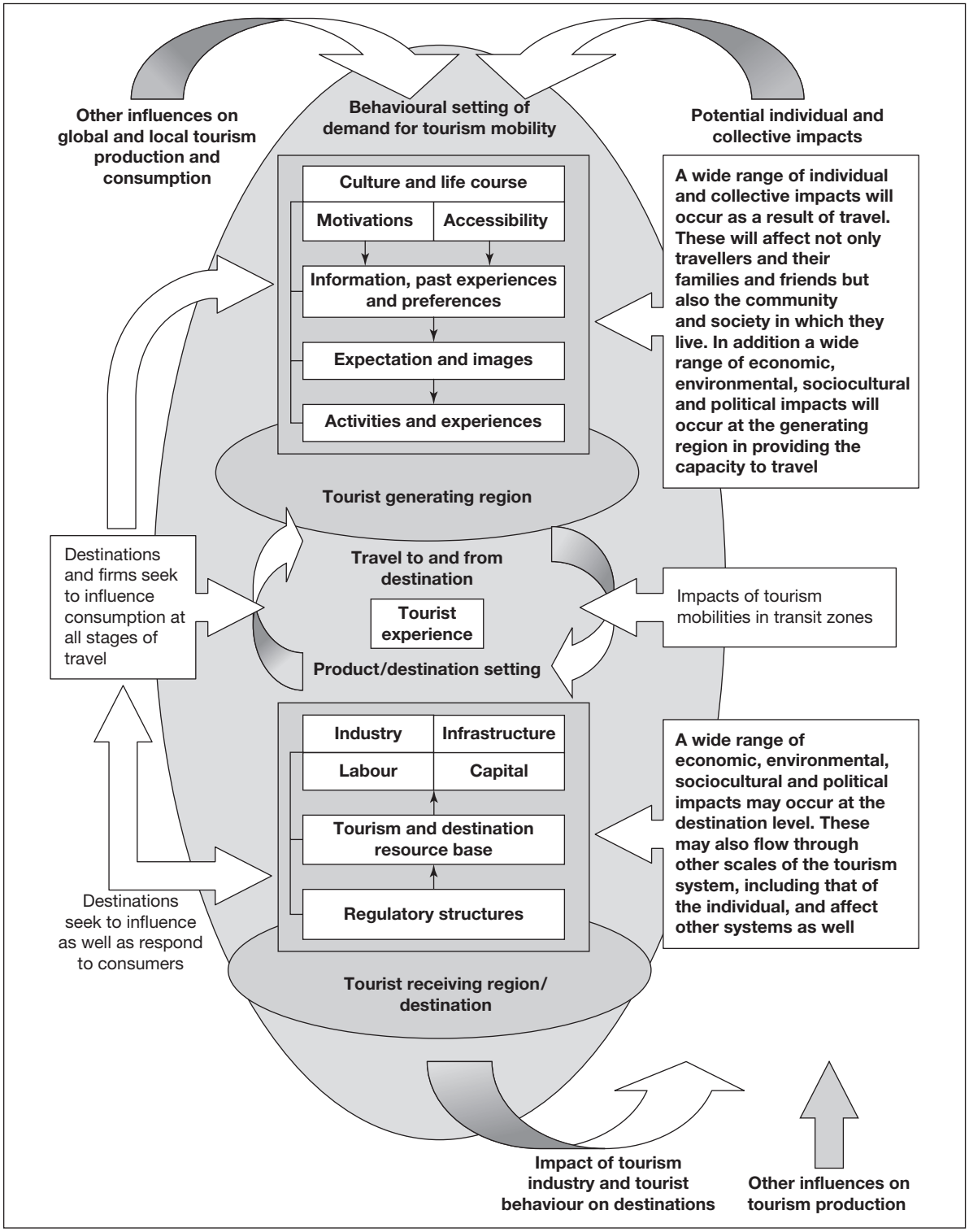

Figure 4.2 The tourism system

Source: From Hall, C.M. (2005a) *Tourism: Rethinking the Social Science of Mobility,* Prentice Hall, Harlow. Reproduced with permission.

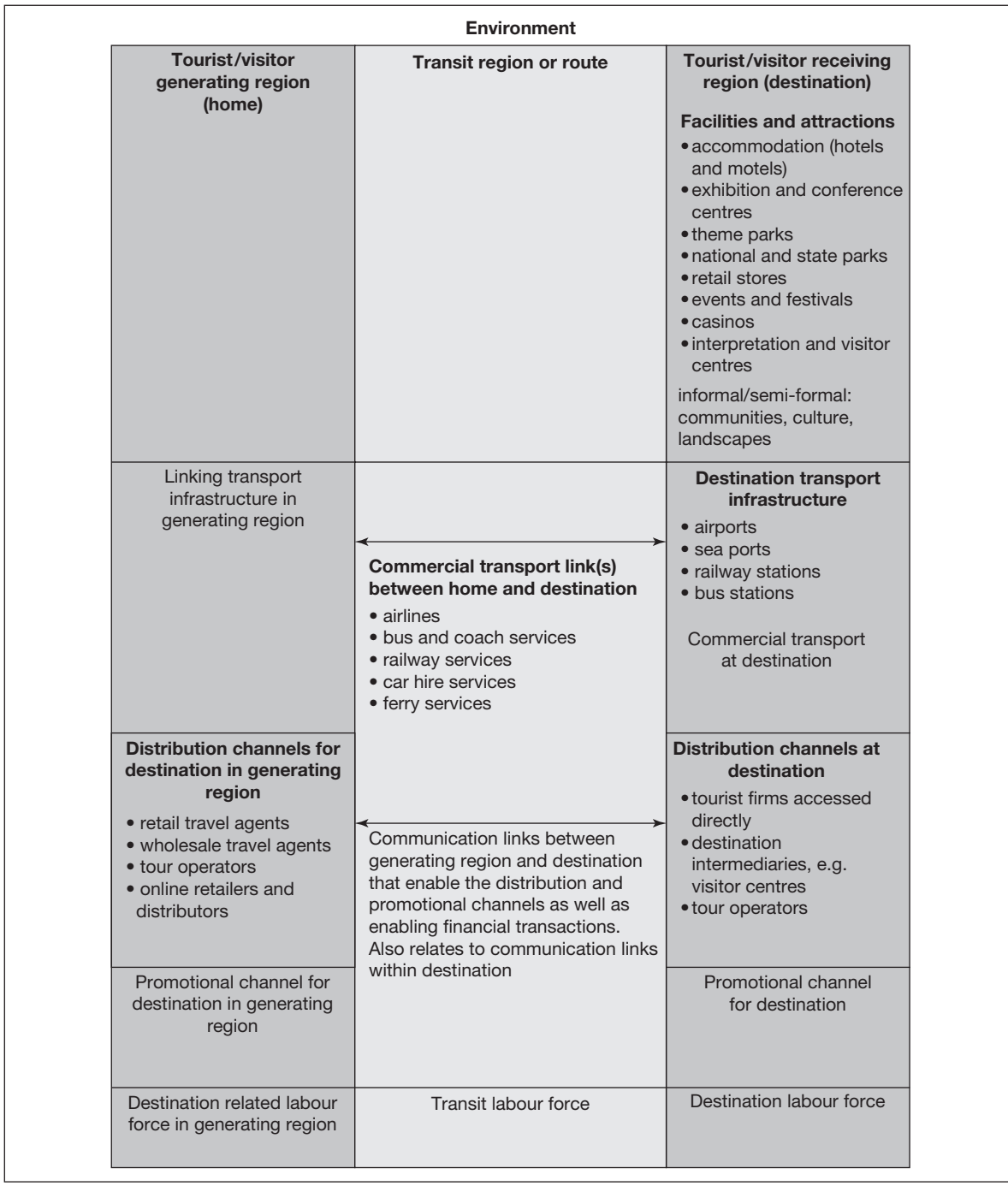

Figure 4.3 Formal destination production elements of a tourism system

particular stakeholder groups during a given period of time' (Le Pelley and Laws 1998: 89). The Le Pelley and Laws model divided the tourism system into:

- a series of inputs (tourists' expectations, entrepreneurial activity, employee skills, investors' capital, local authority planning, residents' expectations and attitudes);
- components of what was described as the 'Canterbury Destination System', which included a series of primary (cathedral and historic city centre) and secondary elements (hotels, catering, retailing, attractions, information services, parking and infrastructure), along with external influences (transport developments, competition, tastes, legislation and currency exchange rates);
- outcomes in terms of impacts (economic, community, environment and ecology) and stakeholder outcomes.

As the reader will hopefully now realise, the idea of a tourism system can be conceptualised in a number of ways. Yet each of these may be regarded as appropriate in terms of the various emphases they give to the study of tourism. Such a situation is not uncommon in the analysis of a social phenomenon in which it is virtually impossible to model all of the elements that may be regarded as forming a part of the social system in question. In the case of tourism this situation is all the more complex because of the nature of tourism itself:

- It is hard to define, and is defined by different stakeholders in different ways.
- It is 'diffuse' in the way it filters through economies and communities.
- It is usually regarded as a service industry, with the corresponding difficulties in dealing with the study of the intangible and perishable nature of services.

The concept of partial industrialisation is one attempt to describe the complex nature of tourism and the consequent problems of coordination, management and strategic development that are typically associated with it. According to Leiper (1989: 25) partial industrialisation refers to the condition

> in which only certain organisations providing goods and services directly to tourists are in the tourism industry. The proportion of (a) goods and services stemming from that industry to (b) total goods and services used by tourists can be termed the index of industrialisation, theoretically ranging from 100% (wholly industrialised) to zero (tourists present and spending money, but no tourism industry).

One of the major consequences of the partial industrialisation of tourism is its significance for tourism development, marketing, coordination and network development. Although we can recognise that many segments of the economy benefit from tourism, it is only those organisations which perceive a direct relationship to tourists and tourism producers that become actively involved in fostering tourism development or in marketing. However, there are many other organisations such as food suppliers, petrol stations and retailers (sometimes described as 'allied industries') which also benefit from tourists but that are not readily identified as part of the tourism industry (Hall 2005a). Therefore, in most circumstances, businesses that regard themselves as non-tourism businesses will often not create linkages with tourism businesses for regional promotion unless there is a clear financial reward. It will often require an external inducement, such as promotion schemes established by government at minimal or no cost to individual businesses, or regulatory action such as compulsory business rating tax for promotion purposes, before linkages can be established (Michael 2007).

Although under-appreciated in the tourism literature, the concept of partial industrialisation is a powerful explanatory tool when trying to understand the nature of tourism, particularly when attempting to explain why coordination is so difficult with respect to the various components of tourism at the community, destination or even at the national level. Nevertheless, partial industrialisation provides only a partial insight into the complexities of tourism. Other aspects of trying to create a better foundation for understanding tourism, and tourism planning, also need to be

considered. First, the issue of scale in tourism analysis. Second, the standpoint of the viewer or participant in the tourism planning process.

The issue of scale

Issues of scale of analysis have been given very little coverage in the tourism literature (see also Chapter 2). Yet scale is a critical element in environmental and social science research. Scale refers to the level at which we are representing reality in our research and our thinking. It can also be thought of as the level of resolution at which we are trying to understand things. For example, Figure 2.5 noted that within research on tourism and global environmental change with respect to sociocultural and economic systems, biodiversity and climate change some scales of analysis had been studied while others were virtually complete unknowns. Three basic questions have arisen with respect to scale (Haggett 1965; Harvey 1969):

1. *Scale coverage* – do we have regular and comprehensive monitoring of the world at all relevant scales? This issue is obviously clearly important with the collection of tourism statistics and the understanding of tourist flows.
2. *Scale standardisation* – do we have comparable data from equivalent sampling frames? This issue often arises when comparing the tourism statistics from one country or region to another. Not only do we need to know that the methodologies of collecting tourism statistics are the same but also the areas being investigated must be equivalent. Similarly, the collection of case study data from a number of different studies and then the aggregation of the information also create difficulties of equivalency between the various cases.
3. *Scale linkage* – three different connections between the various scale levels can be identified (Harvey 1969):
   (i) same level – which refers to a comparative relationship;
   (ii) high to low level – which is a contextual relationship; e.g. tourism policy at the national level forms the context within which changes in tourist numbers at the local level can be analysed;
   (iii) low to high level – which is an aggregative relationship, e.g. tourist flows at the national level are the result of the activities of individual firms.

Substantial inferential problems arise in the last two cases because generalisations we make at one level may not hold for another. Indeed, the idea of emergence, i.e. that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts, makes this virtually a certainty. Such a situation creates substantial difficulties for explanation in tourism studies that the field has not addressed, especially as most tourism analysis often does not acknowledge the scale at which work is being undertaken, or the contexts of that scale, and the capacity to generalise from one scale to another. Issues of scale, if they are noted at all, tend to be dealt with in terms of the possibilities for comparison. The capacity to perceive or illustrate the linkages and relationships between scales is rarely acknowledged. Table 4.1 outlines three general scales of analysis in tourism from the macro to the micro and the key concepts that can be identified within these scales.

The issue of relationships between scales is especially important for tourism planning. We have acknowledged in the previous chapters that tourism planning and planning issues occur at different scales – national, state/provincial, regional, local – yet how are those levels of analysis and levels of action linked? Moreover, how do we incorporate the supranational level, e.g. organisations such as the European Union, or the role of the individual into the tourism planning equation? Arguably the issue of scale becomes even more problematic when we seek to mesh policy and planning scales (and boundaries) with scales that are utilised with respect to environmental issues (Gössling and Hall 2006). We recognise that tourism, like the environment, is a global issue that tends to be acted out at a local or place level by individuals and organisations

Table 4.1 Scales of analysis in tourism

Scale of analysis and description of tourism	*Focus*	*Key concepts with respect to travel behaviour*	*Planning and policy focus*	*Key concepts with respect to tourism policy and planning behaviour*
Macro	Aggregate	• Distribution, patterns, flow • Activity	• Nation state • Structure • Ideology	• National interest • State interest • Political culture • Institutional arrangements
Meso	Combines aggregate and individual analysis	• Mobility, trip stage, lifecourse, travel career	• Organisation • Decision making	• Individual organisations as policy actors • Political parties • Policy networks
Micro	Individual	• Personality, psychographics/ lifestyle • Motivation, expectation, satisfaction	• Individual • Agency	• Political psychology • Personality • Motivations • Individual political values • Individual actors

who are aiming to satisfy their values and interests or, to use a well-worn environmental activist phrase which illustrates the connectivity between the individual and the local to the global – 'Think Globally, Act Locally'. Therefore, any conception of the tourism planning process needs to be able to accommodate the different scales or levels at which tourism planning occurs and the context of such planning in terms of the linkages and relationships between the various levels. Or, as Mill and Morrison (1985: xix) observed with respect to the concept of a tourism system: 'The system is like a spider's web – touch one part of it and reverberations will be felt throughout.'

Standpoint

Another issue that has received only passing consideration in tourism is the standpoint of the viewer or participant in the tourism planning process. Where do we stand as students of tourism in terms of what we regard as appropriate in tourism? How do our work, interests and values influence such perspectives of tourism? How do we act on our values in our day-to-day lives through our involvement in tourism planning and tourism policy? There is no absolute standpoint in tourism planning. Our perspectives and actions will shift over time in relation to our changing experiences, knowledge base, values and ideologies, contact with different stakeholders, changed legislative and institutional frameworks, and changes in our desired environment, to name just a few factors. Our perspectives and actions will also change according to our position in the planning process. Are we working for a government agency, a private developer, or as a facility manager? Are we a member of an environmental interest group trying to preserve a building or save a species, or are we just wanting better facilities in our community, or simply trying to stop yet another tower block being built that will block our view or change our streetscape? We may even occupy some of these roles simultaneously. However, these questions are not just academic. How we perceive tourism planning and policy and how we utilise the

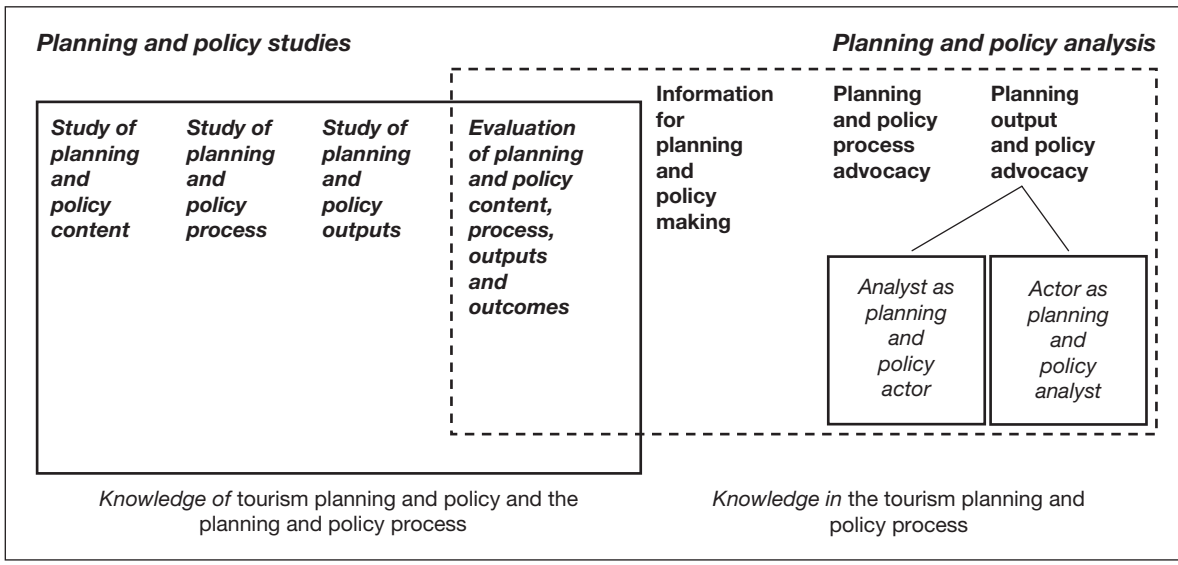

Figure 4.4 Types of tourism planning and policy analysis

analysis that is conducted will depend on a particular intersection of factors at any given time, where we sit in the wider tourism planning system and the type of tourism planning and policy analysis we are conducting (Figure 4.4) (Hogwood and Gunn 1984; Hall and Jenkins 1995; Hall 2005a). Our place in, and ability to influence the planning system is therefore relational.

Such a perspective is not as radical as it seems. As Healey (1997: 65) observed, 'it is now widely understood in the planning field that planning is an interactive process, undertaken in a social context, rather than a purely technical process of design, analysis and management'. This is a crucial point. Many textbooks relate planning as a technical process in which the writer is out of screen somewhere and the book seems to be written as a series of facts or statements which suggests that this is the way it must be. It isn't. As Chapter 3 illustrated, there are different traditions of tourism planning, each having its own focus. Each tradition is not inherently wrong or right. We judge it as being wrong or right upon a particular set of criteria that in turn reflect what we believe tourism planning is and should be trying to achieve in terms of outcomes. This shifting base is a reflection of wider perceptions of the tourism 'expert' and the 'planner' in society. As Peter Hall (1992: 248) noted, 'Whatever the planner's ideology, it appears that people are no longer willing, as once apparently they were, to accept his or her claim to omniscience and omnipotence.' Such a perspective does not mean that planning is obsolete or redundant as,

> almost by definition, . . . planners will never be completely ineffective, or completely omnipotent. They will exist in a state of continuous interaction with the system they are planning, a system which changes partly, but not entirely, owing to processes beyond their mechanisms of control. (P. Hall 1992: 230)

We therefore need to recognise that our position in tourism planning is relational to where we lie in the tourism system and the various stakeholders, interests and factors with which we interact. As Hall argued, we are constantly interacting with the people, institutions and environment around us that are themselves in a constant state of change and flux:

> Planning in practice, however well managed, is therefore a long way from the tidy sequences of the theorists. It involves the basic difficulty, even impossibility, of predicting future events; the interaction of decisions made in different policy spheres; conflicts of values which cannot be fully resolved by rational discussion and by calculation; the clash of