



The Routledge Handbook of Tourism in Asia

Edited by C. Michael Hall and Stephen J. Page

THE ROUTLEDGE HANDBOOK OF TOURISM IN ASIA

Asia is regarded as the fastest growing area for international and domestic tourism in the world today and over the next 20 years. Given the economic, social and environmental importance of tourism in the region, there is a need for a comprehensive and readable overview of the critical debates and controversies in tourism in the region and the major factors that are affecting tourism development both now and in the foreseeable future.

This Handbook provides a contemporary survey of the region and its continued growth and development as a key destination and generator of tourism, which is marked by a high proportion of intra-regional travel. The book is divided into five sections. This first section provides an introduction to the region and context to the nationally focused chapters. The next three sections are then broadly based on the three UNWTO Asian regions: South-East Asia, South and Central Asia, and East and North-East Asia, providing readers with a valuable snapshot of tourism at various scales, and from various approaches and positions. The concluding section considers future prospects for tourism in Asia. The handbook is interdisciplinary in coverage and is also international in scope through its authorship and content. It presents a range of perspectives and understanding of the processes and forces that are shaping tourism in this fascinating and dynamic region that is one of the focal points of global tourism.

This is essential reading for students, researchers and academics interested in tourism in the growth region of Asia now and in the future.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABTC	APEC Business Travel Card
ABTO	Association of Bhutanese Tour Operators
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADS	Approved Destination Status
AEC	ASEAN Economic Community
AITD	Asian Institute of Transportation Development
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ATF	ASEAN Tourism Forum
bn	billion
BPC	Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation
CA	Central Asian (countries)
CBS	Centre for Bhutan Studies
CBT	community-based tourism
CCP	Chinese Communist Party
CCZ	Civilian Control Zone
CEPAR	ARC Centre of Excellence in Population Ageing Research
CHA	Cultural Heritage Administration of Korea
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
CNTA	China National Tourism Administration
DASSK	Daw Aung San Suu Kyi (Myanmar)
DfID	Department for International Development (UK)
DMZ	Demilitarised Zone
ETC	European Travel Commission
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FDI	foreign direct investment
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GHG	greenhouse gas
GMS	Greater Mekong Subregion

Abbreviations and acronyms

GNH	gross national happiness
GNHC	Gross National Happiness Commission
GNI	gross national income
HDI	Human Development Index
HFCs	hydrofluorocarbons
IATA	International Air Transport Association
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organisation
ICCA	International Congress and Convention Association
ICOMOS	International Council on Monuments and Sites
IEA	International Energy Agency
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMS GT	Indonesia–Malaysia–Singapore Growth Triangle
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
ISIS	Islamic State of Iraq and Syria
ITDC	Indian Tourism Development Corporation
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
IVS	Individual Visit Scheme
JCI	Joint Commission International
JSA	Joint Security Area
JTA	Japan Tourism Agency
KTO	Korea Tourism Organization
LCC	low-cost carrier
m	million
MAS	Malaysian Airline System
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MDL	Military Demarcation Line
MDS	multi-dimensional scaling
MICE	meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions
MM2H	Malaysia My Second Home
MOAF	Ministry of Agriculture and Forests
MOHT	Myanmar Ministry of Hotels and Tourism
MPA	marine protected area
MTCE	Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy (Indonesia)
MTI	Ministry of Trade and Industry (Singapore)
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NIE	newly industrialised economy
NKEA	National Key Economic Area
NLD	National League For Democracy (Myanmar)
NSR	northern sea route
NTB	Nepal Tourism Board
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PA	protected area
PATA	Pacific Asia Travel Association
PFCs	perfluorocarbons
PPP	public–private partnerships
PPT	pro-poor tourism
PRC	People’s Republic of China
PTDC	Pakistan Tourism Development Corporation

Abbreviations and acronyms

RCI	Royal Caribbean International
RF	radiative forcing
RFE	Russian Far East
RGoB	Royal Government of Bhutan
ROK	Republic of Korea (South Korea)
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SAR	Special Administrative Region
SATIS	SAARC Agreement on Trade in Services
SCCI	SAARC Chamber of Commerce and Industry
SCO	Shanghai Cooperation Organization
SLR	sea level rise
SMEs	small and medium enterprises
STB	Singapore Tourism Board
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism–Eliminating Poverty
STPB	Singapore Tourist Promotion Board
TALC	Tourism Area Life Cycle
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
TCB	Tourism Council of Bhutan
TDS	tourism development strategy
TSA	Tourism Satellite Account
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic & Social Commission for Asia and Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHabitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNP	United National Party (Sri Lanka)
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
VFR	visiting friends and relations
WEF	World Economic Forum
WTM	World Travel Market
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	World Wildlife Fund
ZSL	Zoological Society of London

PART 1

Introduction

Region and context

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1

INTRODUCTION

Tourism in Asia: region and context

C. Michael Hall & Stephen J. Page

Introduction

Growth in Asian tourism since the early 1990s has been little short of astonishing in terms of levels of growth, the expansion of new markets, new destinations and the creation of the world's most dynamic and growth-oriented inbound and outbound region for global tourism. Similarly, domestic tourism has mirrored this growth but evidence and data remain less clear in relation to the scale and extent of such growth (Singh 2009). In the case of international tourism, the UNWTO reported in 2015 that China had become the top source market and, as earlier commentators (e.g. Hall 1994) observed, this was a sleeping giant about to awaken. It has now not only awoken but become the trendsetter in terms of the pace of growth and change. In 2014–15 alone, it accelerated its expenditure abroad by 27% to US\$165 billion. Whilst its contribution to Asian tourism as a whole is significant, countries within the region received 263 million international arrivals, earned US\$377 billion in receipts and accounted for 23% of worldwide receipts (UNWTO 2015).

China's rise in tourism reflects the overall importance of Asia for international tourism. According to the UNWTO (2016a), international tourist arrivals grew by 4.4% in 2015 to reach a total of 1,184 million in 2015. Asia's growth continued to be above the global average. Asia and the Pacific recorded 13 million more international tourist arrivals last year to reach 277 million, an overall increase of 5%. Within the region South-East Asia (+5%) led growth, while South Asia and North-East Asia recorded an increase of 4% from the previous year. This compared favourably to other developing regions. For example, arrivals to the Middle East increased by 3% while Africa was estimated to have a 3% decrease in international arrivals in 2015 (UNWTO 2016b) (Table 1.1).

However, such is the wider economic importance of Asia, and of the Chinese economy in particular, that changes in the region and their effects now have major repercussions on confidence in the global economy. For example, forecasts of slower economic growth in China in early 2016 had a knock-on effect on global share prices that reflects the increasing globalisation not only of the economy, but also of communication, information, trade, human mobility and, of course, tourism. Asia has become a major region in the world economy and is increasingly integrated with the developed economies of Europe and North America, as well as developing

Table 1.1 International arrivals and market share by region, 2000–2015

<i>UNWTO region</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>Share</i>	<i>2005</i>	<i>Share</i>	<i>2010</i>	<i>Share</i>	<i>2015</i>	<i>Share</i>
	<i>('000)</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>('000)</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>('000)</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>('000)*</i>	<i>(%)</i>
Europe	386.6	57.36	453.2	56.02	489.4	51.52	609.1	51.4
Northern Europe	44.8	6.65	59.9	7.40	62.8	6.61	75.3	6.4
Western Europe	139.7	20.73	141.7	17.52	154.4	16.25	180.9	15.3
Central/Eastern Europe	69.6	10.33	95.3	11.78	98.9	10.41	127.8	10.8
Southern/Mediterranean Europe	132.6	19.67	156.4	19.33	173.3	18.24	225.1	19.0
of which EU-28	330.5	49.04	367.9	45.48	384.3	40.45	478.3	40.4
Asia and the Pacific	110.4	16.38	154.0	19.04	205.5	21.63	277.0	23.4
North-East Asia	58.3	8.65	85.9	10.62	111.5	11.74	142.3	12.0
South-East Asia	36.3	5.39	49.0	6.06	70.5	7.42	102.2	8.6
Oceania	9.6	1.42	10.9	1.35	11.4	1.20	14.2	1.2
South Asia	6.1	0.91	8.2	1.01	12.1	1.27	18.3	1.5
Americas	128.2	19.02	133.3	16.48	150.2	15.81	190.7	16.1
North America	91.5	13.58	89.9	11.11	99.5	10.47	126.2	10.7
Caribbean	17.1	2.54	18.8	2.32	19.5	2.05	23.8	2.0
Central America	4.3	0.64	6.3	0.78	7.9	0.83	10.3	0.9
South America	15.3	2.27	18.3	2.26	23.2	2.44	30.3	2.6
Africa	26.2	3.89	34.8	4.30	50.4	5.31	53.1	4.5
North Africa	10.2	1.51	13.9	1.72	19.7	2.07	18.8	1.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	16.0	2.37	20.9	2.58	30.8	3.24	34.2	2.9
Middle East	22.4	3.32	33.7	4.17	54.7	5.76	54.1	4.6
World	674	100	809	100	950	100	1,184	100

Source: based on UNWTO 2016b.

Note

★ Provisional figures.

economies. Furthermore, there has been an intensification of intra-regional linkages as trade and investment within the region have grown, strengthening the way in which tourism has become a more interconnected aspect of the regional economy (Hall & Page 2000). In this environment tourism, for long one of the mainstays of the region's economy, has now become an even more important source of economic development and foreign exchange, as well as a mechanism for employment generation. However, tourism in Asia is also facing numerous environmental, social and political challenges (Barclay & Smith 2013; Frost, Laing & Beeton 2014; Henderson 2015; King 2015; see also the following chapters in this volume).

Defining Asia

On the surface the task of defining Asia would appear to be a simple one. For many academic and armchair geographers, and readers of Wikipedia, Asia is traditionally defined as the landmass to the east of the Suez Canal and the Ural Mountains, and south of the Caucasus Mountains and the Black and Caspian Seas. To the east it is bound by the Pacific Ocean and the Bering Strait, to the south by the Indian Ocean, and to the north by the Arctic Oceans (Lew *et al.* 2015) (Figure 1.1). Although the physiographic dimensions of such a definition are somewhat problematic, given that Europe and Asia share the same continental landmass, the historical convention has been that they are treated separately, although this may also be as much for political and cultural reasons as spatial concerns (Hall 2009). However, such an approach tells us little of the way the concept of Asia has come to be socially constructed in space and time (Roy 2015; Sheppard 2015), and the implications that it has for economic and social relationships, identity, governance and, of course, tourism.

The concept of Asia is usually regarded as a Western construct. It appears that the word ‘Asia’ has its origins in Ancient Greece, where the term was used to describe the region of Anatolia in present-day Turkey. In the *Iliad* Homer refers to an ally of the Trojans named Asios that may be associated with a confederation of states in Western Anatolia. However, the term was clearly in common use by about 2450 BP when Herodotus used the word to refer to Anatolia or, with respect to the description of the Persian Wars, to differentiate the Persian Empire from Egypt and Greece. Herodotus was also curious as to why different women’s

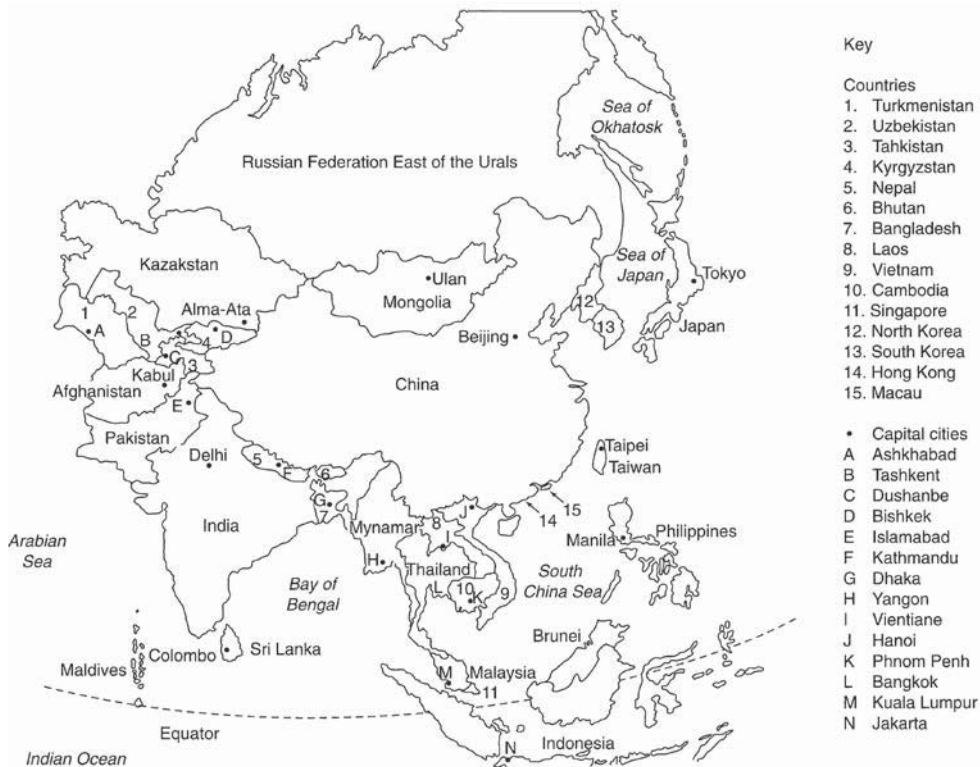


Figure 1.1 Map of Asia.

names (Asia, Europa and Libya [with respect to Africa]) were used to describe the landmass surrounding the Mediterranean. Nevertheless, within the history of European thought the concept of Asia has clearly long been significant within a process of geographic, cultural and political “othering” (Yapp 1992), although the continental affiliations of countries that cross geographic and cultural boundaries may be quite problematic as in the case of Russia, and more recently countries such as Turkey, Georgia and Armenia, which have either applied or expressed interest in applying for membership of the European Union, and which are seen as having both European and Asian identities, or at least being clearly “different” (Hall 2009). Similarly, the position of Australia and New Zealand, as well as many of the Pacific Islands, with respect to Asia also presents interesting issues of how identity is positioned given the increasingly strong economic and tourism ties, as well as a significant ethnic Asian population (Keating 2000; Broinowski 2003). However,

Although there has been little consensus about what constitutes Asia, many in the international community perceived ... that the Asia economies were growing at such a vast scale that the 21st century would be marked by the ascendance of Asia – possibly a Pax Asiana.

(Jain 2004: 1)

The notion of a regional or a political space is as much a social construct as it is a representation of physical geography. In the same way that the orient was constructed as an “other” by various European imperial powers, so also has the notion of Asia been influenced by European and Northern American constructs. However, ‘Asia is a contested notion with different meanings and associations for different people in different places, even within Asian societies’ (Jain 2004: 3). The construction and perception of Asia are different within India (Deshingkar 1999) and Japan (Suehiro 1999), as well as being influenced by historical and political events. The concept of an Asian identity is therefore as much being constructed from within as it is from without. For example, in the 1990s considerable political attention was being given to the notion of Asian values (Chong 2004; Beeson & Yoshimatsu 2007), particularly by Prime Ministers Mahathir bin Mohamad of Malaysia (1999) and Lee Kuan Yew of Singapore (Barr 2000). Asian values have been defined as emphasising a consensual approach, communitarianism rather than individualism, social order and harmony, respect for elders, discipline, a paternalistic State and the primary role of government in economic development, linked to the premise that ‘there are values and patterns of behaviour that are common to Asian countries and peoples’ (Han 1999: 4; see also Yang & Lim 2000). In contrast, Han (1999: 7) associates “Western values” with transparency, accountability, global competitiveness, a universalistic outlook and universal practices, and an emphasis on private initiatives and the independence of the private sector. Even though the religious, cultural, ethnic and political diversity of Asia or even East Asia seems to belie the notion of Asian values, the concept still has influence in Asia and beyond in the same way that the notion of European values is used in discussions within the European Union (Patten 1998; Glassman 2015). Empirical evidence for shared Asian values is also mixed. Kim (2010) examined the extent to which Asians shared four different Asian values discourses: familism, communalism, authority orientations and work ethic. He found that although East Asian respondents exhibited strong work-related values compared to other regions, commitment to familial values and authoritarian values was actually lower. In addition, while preference for strong leadership and parental duty did form distinct sets of attitudes among South and South-East Asians, the four dimensions did not constitute a clear value complex in the minds of East Asians (Kim 2010). However, the fact that they are often perceived to exist may be more

important than the realities of their existence. As Milner (2000, 2003) noted, the Asian values concept, although at times confused and contradictory, is part of a much larger and longer process of cultural refiguration that however problematic it might be in cultural and political terms, is attracting substantial and growing emotional investment. Some of the elements of the supposed “Asian” and “anti-Asian” values are indicated in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Arguments for and against the exceptionalism of “Asian values”

<i>Elements of Asian values</i>	<i>Anti-Asian values elements</i>
• A set of values as shared by people of many different nationalities and ethnicities living in East Asia. These values include a stress on the community rather than the individual, the privileging of order and harmony over personal freedom, refusal to compartmentalise religion away from other spheres of life, a particular emphasis on saving and thriftiness, an insistence on hard work, a respect for political leadership, a belief that government and business need not necessarily be natural adversaries, and an emphasis on family loyalty. • In seeking to understand the economic success of certain Asian societies credit must be given to the role of “Asian values”. It is not sufficient to analyse such economic success in culture-free economic terms, or as a result of the adoption of specifically Western values. • In the process of developing modern political systems in Asian societies, due recognition must be given to the specific Asian cultures in which they are to be situated. It is not acceptable to reform or criticise such societies solely on the basis of Western liberal-democratic practice. • A belief that a major political and economic international shift is underway, involving the rise of “the East” and the fall of “the West”. • An expression of disquiet and misgivings regarding certain “Western values”, especially related to a perceived excessive stress on the individual rather than the community, a lack of social discipline and too great an intolerance for difference in social behaviour. The suggestion is sometimes present that Western countries would do well to learn from “Asian values”. • A style of policy delivery marked by strong central leadership and very close relations between government and business.	• The suggestion that a set of “Asian values” operates throughout Asia, or even just in East Asia, contradicts what we know about the presence of long-standing religious (Islamic, Buddhist, Hindu, Confucian) and other divisions in the region, and of the ongoing major social and cultural transformation of the region. • Many so-called “Asian values” are equally Western values, and, in some cases, they have been deliberately inculcated in Asian societies as a consequence of the influence on Asian elites of Western models and colonial legacies. • The role in social and economic analysis of “Asian values”, “Western values” or “culture” in general can be questioned: economic change may in fact be the result of other, deeper processes. Cultures are often (re)constructed, constructed or invented to serve the specific purposes of their inventors. • The specific purpose of promoting “Asian values” in the case of a number of Asian regimes is that of defending illiberal forms of government by cloaking authoritarian strategies and tactics in arguments of cultural exceptionalism. • “Asian values” are the ideological constructs of Asian leaderships rather than the genuinely held beliefs of their subjects. • The ideology of “Asian values” is a radical conservatism that serves the needs of neoliberal capitalism at a particular stage of its development in specific Asian societies; it is an ideology that combines organic statism with market economies. • There is disagreement within the Asian region about “Asian values”. NGOs and even some political leaders, are powerful advocates of “universal”, “liberal” values. • As a unifying ideological system in the region, the notion of “Asian values”, like the idea of “Asia” itself, has proved of little value. • “Asian values” are based on double standards. For example, those claiming the West is materialistic are accused of being engaged in enriching themselves.

Sources: Han 1999; Milner 2000; Jain 2004; Kingsbury 2008; Hall 2009; Kim 2010; Glassman 2015.

Such debates are not just part of an intellectual argument, they also have an extremely practical effect on how policy is made (de Jong 2012; Yung 2012; Glassman 2015), particularly with respect to international trade, investment and the mobility of capital, transport and the mobility of people. In addition, they also raise issues of different ways of doing business, the meaning of work (Parfitt & Wysocki 2012), the nature of innovation (Goxe 2012) and human rights (Kingsbury 2008; Pisanò 2014). Moreover, despite claims as to the diminished role of the state given the rate of contemporary economic globalisation, it is nevertheless essential to recognise that the state is the foundation of regulatory regionalism via the bilateral and multilateral series of political and economic relations established by states under international law.

Asian regulatory spaces are the product of the large number of political agreements covering economic, cultural, governance and environmental activities between countries that specifically use Asia as an identifying term (Barclay & Smith 2013). For example, agreements under APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation) gives support for the creation of a specific set of transnational relations and flows within the regulatory spaces of APEC members. Such spaces are not anonymous or blank, but are identified with a geographical space which, in turn, has its own implications for the social, economic and political construction of particular identities, as noted at the start of this chapter.

The shift from national to supranational identities of regulation and control is arguably part of a broader process of the development of post-sovereign governance (MacCormick 1996; Morales-Moreno 2004) in which the creation of supranational governance structures arguably goes hand-in-hand with the formation of new sets of political identities and, potentially in the longer term, social identities. The formation of an Asian identity, albeit highly contested, therefore runs parallel to the development of a series of transnational political spaces. For example, it can be argued that the development of new sets of visa and border agreements between countries as a result of the development of new regulatory spaces also encourages the development of new understandings of citizenship not only with respect to belonging and identity but also with mobility. For Isin and Wood (1999: 4), modern citizenship is no longer exclusively tied to membership of a nation-state; that is, restricted to 'legal obligations and entitlements which individuals possess by virtue of their membership in a state'. Instead, citizenship is a more complex form of identity which is distinctive because it is based on reciprocal social relations and common interests among a particular group that new Asian supranational regulatory spaces serve to enhance and reinforce. Although notions of "expanded citizenship" (van Steenberg 1994) or cosmopolitan citizenship have tended to be applied more to the European sphere (Coles 2008), there is no reason not to consider the development of an Asian cosmopolitan citizenship, given the extent to which accessibility and mobility of certain groups in society is being afforded by structures such as APEC or ASEAN (Bianchi & Stephenson 2014).

The new regulatory spaces of Asia not only serve to encourage new Asian mobile identities for some groups by virtue of new forms and rights of citizenship, but also provide the political means for influencing the direction of flows and connections between places (Winter *et al.* 2008). For example, the capacity for flying between international destinations or for crossing borders via particular modes of transport is enabled by the political agreements that exist between countries with respect to air rights, transport connections and networks, and border crossings. All of these factors therefore influence the capacity of destination development and international mobility within Asia, as well as in terms of long-distance travel. Indeed, intra-regional travel has become proportionately more important over time with respect to tourism growth.

Membership of Asian political institutions is therefore an important element in the development of Asian identities, as well as a signifier of Asian space. Table 1.3 records a number

of these institutions and their memberships. One of the notable observations is that there has been a far longer tradition of international cooperation in supranational bodies among European nations as compared to Asia, but to a great extent this may be a reflection of the relatively short history of nationhood and the influence of colonial powers on international relations in Asia. Nevertheless, the development of “Asian” institutions has historically tended to be more focused on East Asia than on western Asia. Indeed, it is noticeable that the United Nations has a separate economic and social commission for West Asia which, with the exception of the Islamic Republic of Iran and, to an extent, Turkey, comprises those countries that in European parlance would be described as the “Middle East”.

The break-up of the former Soviet Union has led to the emergence of a number of new states that have now become members of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the UN Economic and Social Commission for the Asia-Pacific (UNESCAP). Several of these states have also joined the central and western Asian economic grouping known as the Economic Cooperation Organization and the interregional Black Sea Economic Cooperation group, while the Gulf States excluding Iran and Iraq have their own economic grouping. But the confused nature of cultural and geographical identity is illustrated by the fact that several of the countries of western Asia that were formerly part of the Soviet Union – Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Kazakhstan – are playing in the UEFA (Union of European Football Associations) nations championship, while Georgia and Armenia have expressed interest in becoming members of the European Union. It is also worth noting that with respect to the Olympic sports movement, only Kazakhstan of the above-mentioned nations participates in the Asian Games run under the auspices of the Olympic Council of Asia (OCA).

To the east there is also confusion as to the extent to which the Pacific Islands (sometimes referred to, together with Australia and New Zealand, as Oceania) and the Pacific Rim are also a part of the Asian experience (Hall & Page 1996). The APEC forum is perhaps the clearest example of these institutional linkages, although the extent to which observer status of ASEAN and the East Asia Summit has been extended also illustrates the expansion of the concept of Asia. Here again, sport indicates some interesting changes, as in 2007 Australia competed in the Asian Nations Cup after shifting in 2006 from the Oceania Football Federation. Although Australia is unlikely to compete in the Asian Games in the foreseeable future, the shift to playing football in an Asian context for both club and country raises interesting issues of identity for such a sports-focused country. In one sense a shifting in sporting focus follows changes in political focus. As Jain (2004) observed, the 2002 Bali bombings forced the conservative Australian government under Prime Minister John Howard to engage with Asia in a much more involved way that it had previously espoused under its foreign policy settings. Nevertheless, Howard’s clear alignment with the United States and, to a lesser extent, the United Kingdom means that, as with Australia playing football in Asia, involvement in Asia is presently based on highly pragmatic as opposed to ideological grounds. As Jain (2004: 13) noted, Howard’s ‘government seeks little convergence between Australian values and Asian values and appears to be blind to the strategic value of goodwill that Australia had finally managed to begin building under the previous administration, which has now been squandered’.

There are also significant changes in terms of the growing interrelationships between Asian countries. Although the countries of South Asia have been especially slow in achieving economic integration as compared to those of ASEAN, it is noticeable that India and Pakistan have been given a stronger role in ASEAN affairs as well as being invited to participate in Asia–Europe meetings; therefore, potentially providing something of a complementary role to that played by China, Japan and South Korea in East Asian affairs.

Table 1.3 Membership of select Asian political, economic and sporting institutions

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Member countries</i>
Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)	Originally a 1967 defence agreement between the original members of ASEAN: Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. The association was transformed into a trade relationship in 1992.	Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam. Observers at ASEAN meetings include Australia, China, India, Japan, New Zealand, Pakistan and South Korea. Bangladesh and Fiji have sought observer status. Timor-Leste and Papua New Guinea are ASEAN candidate/observer states.
ASEAN Plus Three	Forum that functions to assist cooperation between ASEAN and three East Asian nations.	ASEAN nations and China, Japan and South Korea.
Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM)	Interregional forum established in 1996 between the European Union and the members of the ASEAN Plus Three grouping.	India, Pakistan and Mongolia were invited to participate in the 2006 and future meetings. Further additions have been Australia and New Zealand in 2010, and Bangladesh in 2012.
Asia Europe Foundation	Cultural and education complement to the Asia-Europe Meeting.	Asia-Pacific countries include: Australia, Bangladesh, Brunei, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, Russian Federation, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam.
East Asia Summit	Pan-Asian forum first held in 2005.	The ASEAN Plus Three plus Australia, India and New Zealand. In 2010 it was discussed that the roles for Russia and the United States may be to create a new grouping “ASEAN + 8” including the East Asia Summit members together with the United States and Russia. Proposed members currently include Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste.
Asia-Pacific Trade Agreement (APTA)	Commenced 1975. China joined 2001.	Bangladesh, China, India, Lao PDR, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Mongolia.
Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)	Economic forum established in 1989.	Australia, Brunei, Canada, Chile, Chinese Taipei (Taiwan), Hong Kong China, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, People’s Republic of China, Peru, Philippines, Russia, Singapore, South Korea, Thailand, United States, Vietnam.

Asia Development Bank	Regional development bank established 1966.	Afghanistan, Armenia, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Cook Islands, Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji, Georgia, Hong Kong China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Republic of Korea, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Kiribati, Malaysia, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nauru, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, People's Republic of China, Philippines, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Taipei China (Taiwan), Tajikistan, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Uzbekistan, Socialist Republic of Vietnam, Vanuatu. Countries from other regions: Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. Afghanistan, Armenia, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji, France, Georgia, India, Indonesia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kiribati, Republic of Korea, Kyrgyz Republic, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nauru, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, North Korea, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, People's Republic of China, Philippines, Russian Federation, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, United Kingdom, United States of America, Uzbekistan, Socialist Republic of Vietnam, Vanuatu. Associate members: American Samoa, Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, Cook Islands, French Polynesia, Guam, Hong Kong China, Macao China, New Caledonia, Niue. Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Islamic Republic of Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan. Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Turkey, Ukraine. Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates.
UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)		
Economic Cooperation Organization	Founded by Iran, Pakistan and Turkey in 1955.	
Black Sea Economic Cooperation	Founded 1992.	
Gulf Cooperation Council	Founded 1981.	

(Continued overleaf)

Table 1.3 (continued)

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Member countries</i>
UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia	Founded 1973.	Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.
South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)	Founded 1985.	Afghanistan, People's Republic of Bangladesh, Kingdom of Bhutan, Republic of India, Republic of Maldives, Kingdom of Nepal, Islamic Republic of Pakistan, Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka.
Asian Football Confederation	Founded in 1954, it is the governing body of association football (soccer) in Asia and Australia (joined 2006). Azerbaijan, Armenia, Georgia, Israel, Kazakhstan, Russia and Turkey are members of UEFA (Europe).	West Asian Football Federation (WAFF): Bahrain, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates, Yemen. Central Asian Football Association (CAFA): Afghanistan, Iran, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan. South Asian Football Federation (SAFF): Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka. East Asian Football Federation (EAFF): China, Guam, Hong Kong, Japan, North Korea, South Korea, Macau, Mongolia, Northern Mariana Islands, Chinese Taipei. ASEAN Football Federation (AFF): Australia, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Vietnam.

Tourism-specific bodies for the region tend to have a marked East Asia–Pacific Rim orientation. The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) organises member states by six regions – Africa, Americas, East Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Middle East and South Asia (Table 1.4). As of November 2007 there were 16 full members and two associate members of the UNWTO East Asia and the Pacific region, nine full members of South Asia, and 12 full members of the Middle East and one observer. Unlike the UN categories for the social and economic commissions, Libya is included in the Middle East region by the UNWTO. Western Asian countries such as Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan are members of the UNWTO's Europe region, along with countries such as the Russian Federation and Turkey that occupy both European and Asian geographical, economic and political space. The self-declared leader of the tourism industry in the Asia–Pacific region is PATA, the Pacific Asia Travel Association. Established in 1952 at the First Pacific Area Travel Conference the association is an organisation that represents a range of industry sector, government and other interests, e.g. education, financial services and media, in tourism. According to PATA (2007a), its goal 'is to help members develop and increase business opportunities through a wide array of products, such as events, market intelligence, communications, networking and industry-wide recognition and exposure through the prestigious PATA brand'. However, in governmental terms PATA primarily consists of East Asian, Australasian and Pacific Island members (Table 1.4) although the Asia-Pacific map on its website (PATA 2007b) records a sphere of interest ranging from the Americas (although Hawaii is the only government which has an organisation representing it) through to Pakistan in the west (a member), and Russia and the central Asian republics of Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan and Turkistan, none of which have government agencies as members of PATA.

The "Asian" political and economic community is therefore increasingly centred on East Asia, with growing interconnections with South Asia and Australia, and to a lesser extent New Zealand and other members of the Pacific community. The growing economic interdependence between these countries and regions, including tourism, has been mooted as heralding the potential development of an Asian economic community to rival that of the European Union. Although the Asian process lies many years behind the European experience of economic integration, the identification of an "Asian" community and its associated new regulatory space remains an important component of the reorganisation of economic space in Asia and the Pacific Rim (Park 2003). Moreover, such economic and political relations have considerable potential to influence the cultural sphere and the development of new mobilities within Asia. East Asian geographies and regulatory spaces in particular, along with associated travel flows, are being increasingly extended to South Asia and to Australia and New Zealand. However, institutionally, western Asia is only weakly linked to southern and eastern Asia and is not a part of discourses on Asian identity, instead tending to participate more in discourses with respect to Islamic and Arabic identity (Hall 2009). The concept of an Asian identity is primarily being constructed by the countries and institutions of East and South Asia, particularly through the Asia–Europe meeting, ASEAN and, to a lesser extent, APEC. However, the new institutions of Asia are also representative of a rapidly growing dense set of new regulatory spaces that espouse Asian identity which not only serve to reinforce the social construction of Asia but have a very practical effect on mobilities and citizenship. Such institutions are significant in terms of media representation and notions of otherness but, more particularly, may have a long-term influence of flows of tourists to and from Asia, given that the political-economic frameworks that facilitate international trade also facilitate flows of tourists thereby further leading to changes in understanding of identity and region.

Table 1.4 Membership of tourism bodies

<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Members</i>
UNWTO	
East Asia and the Pacific	Australia, Brunei Barussalam, Cambodia, China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea), Fiji, Indonesia, Japan, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Vanuatu, Vietnam. Associate members: Hong Kong, China; Macao, China
South Asia	Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka
Middle East	Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, United Arab Emirates, Yemen. Observer: Palestine
PATA (Pacific Asia Travel Association)	Abu Dhabi Tourism & Culture Authority, Bangladesh Tourism Board, Canadian Tourism Commission, China National Tourism Administration, Consulate General of the Republic of Indonesia, Cook Islands Tourism Corporation, Fiji Visitors Bureau, FSM Visitors Board – Department of Resources & Development Micronesia, Government of India Tourist Office, Government of Timor-Leste, Guam Visitors Bureau, Hong Kong Tourism Board, India Tourism Development Corporation Ltd (ITDC), India Tourism, Indonesia Tourism Authority Office, Japan Travel Bureau, Korea International Travel Company Office, Korea National Tourism Organization, Macao Government Tourism Office, Marianas Visitors Authority, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Hotels & Tourism, Republic of the Union of Myanmar, Ministry of Information, Culture and Tourism Lao, Ministry of Tourism Indonesia, Ministry of Tourism Cambodia, Ministry of Tourism Government of India, Ministry of Tourism Maldives, National Tourism Administration DPR Korea, Nepal Tourism Board, Office du Tourisme de Tahiti, Pakistan Tourism Development Corporation, Palau Visitors Authority, Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority, Philippine Department of Tourism, Samoa Tourism Authority, Solomon Islands Visitors Bureau, Sri Lanka Tourism, Sri Lanka Tourist Board, Tahiti Tourisme, Taiwan Tourism Bureau, Thailand Convention & Exhibition Bureau, Tibet Tourism Development Committee, Tonga Visitors Bureau, Tourism Australia, Tourism Authority of Thailand, Tourism Bureau, Chinese Taipei, Tourism Commission the Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, Tourism Council of Bhutan, Tourism Fiji, Tourism Infrastructure and Enterprise Zone Authority (TIEZA) Philippines, Tourism Malaysia, Tourism New Zealand, Vietnam National Administration of Tourism (VNAT)

Context and issues

Tourism in Asia has undergone a dramatic growth and significant change since its recognition by governments as an economic development mechanism from the 1970s onwards (Hall & Page 2000; Dolezal & Trupp 2015). Nevertheless, the understanding of tourism in Asia must go hand-in-hand with other significant social, political, economic and environmental changes in the region. Many of these elements are discussed in chapters in this first section of the volume. However, several overarching elements will be briefly discussed here.

Economy

The Asia economy, and particularly the South and East Asian economies, has been among the best performing in the world in terms of GDP growth since the 1980s. However, after 2012 economic growth in the region began experiencing a “new normal” in terms of somewhat lower growth

than had been the case previously. Although economic growth in Asia still generally remains higher than that of any other region in the world, after a strong initial recovery in 2010/11 from the global financial and economic crises that began in 2008, growth has been considerably lower compared with the pre-crisis average. Economic growth in the period 2012–2014 averaged 5.2% annually, while the average in the period 2005–2007 was 9.4% (UNESCAP 2016). China has also become increasingly critical to the regional economy, accounting for 40% of the GDP in the Asia-Pacific, as UNESCAP (2016: 4) noted: ‘even a small change in its GDP growth estimates will result in a considerable impact on the region’s growth outlook’.

Population and urbanisation

The twenty-first century is the urban century: the first in which the number of people living in towns and cities is greater than those living in rural areas. In 2014, 55% of the global urban population was living in Asia and the Pacific. Although urbanisation rates in Asia are lower than in other parts of the world (North America 81.5%, Latin America and the Caribbean 79.5%, Europe 73.4%), by 2018 the population of Asia is expected to become more than 50% urban. The speed of population increase and urbanisation in Asia is unprecedented. The urban population of the region more than doubled between 1950 and 1975, and doubled again between 1975 and 2000. It is projected to almost double once more between 2000 and 2025 (UNHabitat & UNESCAP 2015). Between 1980 and 2010, the region’s cities grew by around one billion people. United Nations projections show they will add another one billion by 2040. By 2050, urban areas will account for nearly two out of three people in Asia (UNHabitat & UNESCAP 2015). However, as has been long noted (Asian Development Bank 1998), the region’s:

impressive urban façades often mask enormous vulnerabilities and inequalities. It is no secret that the region is home to some of the world’s most polluted and unhealthy cities. Moreover, its cities are among the most vulnerable to natural disasters and the projected impacts of climate change. Almost three-quarters of the worldwide fatalities of disasters between 1970 and 2011 occurred in the Asia and Pacific region.

(UNHabitat & UNESCAP 2015: 10)

Megacities (cities exceeding ten million inhabitants) are becoming increasingly commonplace, with Asia being home to 17 megacities, three of them the world’s largest: Tokyo, Delhi and Shanghai. By 2030 Asia is projected to have at least 22 megacities. However, as UNHabitat and UNESCAP (2015: 12) note, ‘contrary to common perception, only a little over 10 percent of the Asia and Pacific region’s urban population actually lives in megacities’.

The region’s urbanisation also has important direct and indirect implications for tourism: direct in that cities are significant destinations (Table 1.5) and tourist-generating regions as well as being vital transport hubs, and indirect through the development of urban policies that affect tourism, the role of formal and informal employment in tourism and hospitality, contribution to economic development, and the role of the urban environment in attraction, experience and competitiveness. The relationship between the level of urbanisation and the level of domestic economic development in Asia indicates a strong correlation, although the causal link between the two is not clear-cut, and the benefits of economic development are also unevenly distributed (UNHabitat & UNESCAP 2015). For example, in examining urban tourism in Asia the UNWTO (2009) noted that up to 40% of the population of large urban centres in Asia were living in poverty. In extreme cases, cities like Mumbai, with 18 million people, had 54% of its population living in poverty.

Table 1.5 Asia's top ten destination cities by international overnight visitors

Rank	City	Estimated population (‘000)*	International overnight visitors (million)					Change 2013–14 (%)	Estimated visitor spending 2014 (US\$ billion)
			2010	2011	2012	2013	2014*		
1	Bangkok	14,998	10.4	13.8	15.8	18.5	16.4	–11.0	13.00
2	Singapore	5,625	8.8	10.1	11.1	12.1	12.5	3.1	14.30
3	Kuala Lumpur	7,088	8.9	9.0	9.3	9.6	10.8	13.1	8.10
4	Hong Kong	7,246	8.1	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.8	7.0	8.30
5	Seoul	23,480	6.1	6.6	7.5	8.2	8.6	4.7	11.50
6	Taipei	7,438	3.5	4.0	4.7	5.8	6.3	8.4	10.80
7	Shanghai	23,416	6.7	6.2	6.0	5.7	6.1	7.6	5.30
8	Tokyo	37,843	4.5	2.9	4.1	5.0	5.4	6.5	7.40
9	Mumbai	20,741	4.0	3.8	4.0	4.6	4.9	5.9	3.30
10	Beijing	19,520	4.5	4.8	4.6	4.0	4.4	9.2	4.20

Sources: Demographia 2015; MasterCard, Global Destination Index 2014 in UNHabitat & UNESCAP 2015; UNDESA 2014.

Note

* Using urban area population estimates; may differ from administrative area estimates.

Population growth itself also has implications for tourism growth. The UNWTO (2010) observed that by 2030, the world population will have reached 8.3 billion, and 18% of that growth will have come from Asia. The report suggested that in 2030, China will comprise 17% of the world population and India 17.9%, which will alter the global dynamic of outbound tourism, especially at an intra-regional level. From a tourism perspective, Ashworth and Page (2011: 13) argued that:

Global change and capital is altering the landscape and rationale of many cities but the emergence of world cities also has profound implications for tourism as both an industry, support for world city status and as a tool used by the public and private sector to competitively raise the global position of a world city. The scale of world cities and their built environment gives rise to a complex mosaic of microgeographies of tourism which are emerging, in part, based on notions such as cultural quarters, districts and areas with common characteristics for consumption by specific user groups (which sometimes blur the distinction between tourist, day tripper and resident).

Consequently, many Asian world cities as gateways to the wider sub-regions of tourism within different countries are developing distinctive geographies and characteristics within these emergent global city landscapes.



Plate 1.1 Tourism, leisure and the creation of new spaces of urban consumption I: Sun City, Kuala Lumpur.



Plate 1.2 Tourism, leisure and the creation of new spaces of urban consumption II: Fisherman's Wharf, Macau.



Plate 1.3 Tourism, leisure and the creation of new spaces of urban consumption III: Christmas shopping in Singapore.

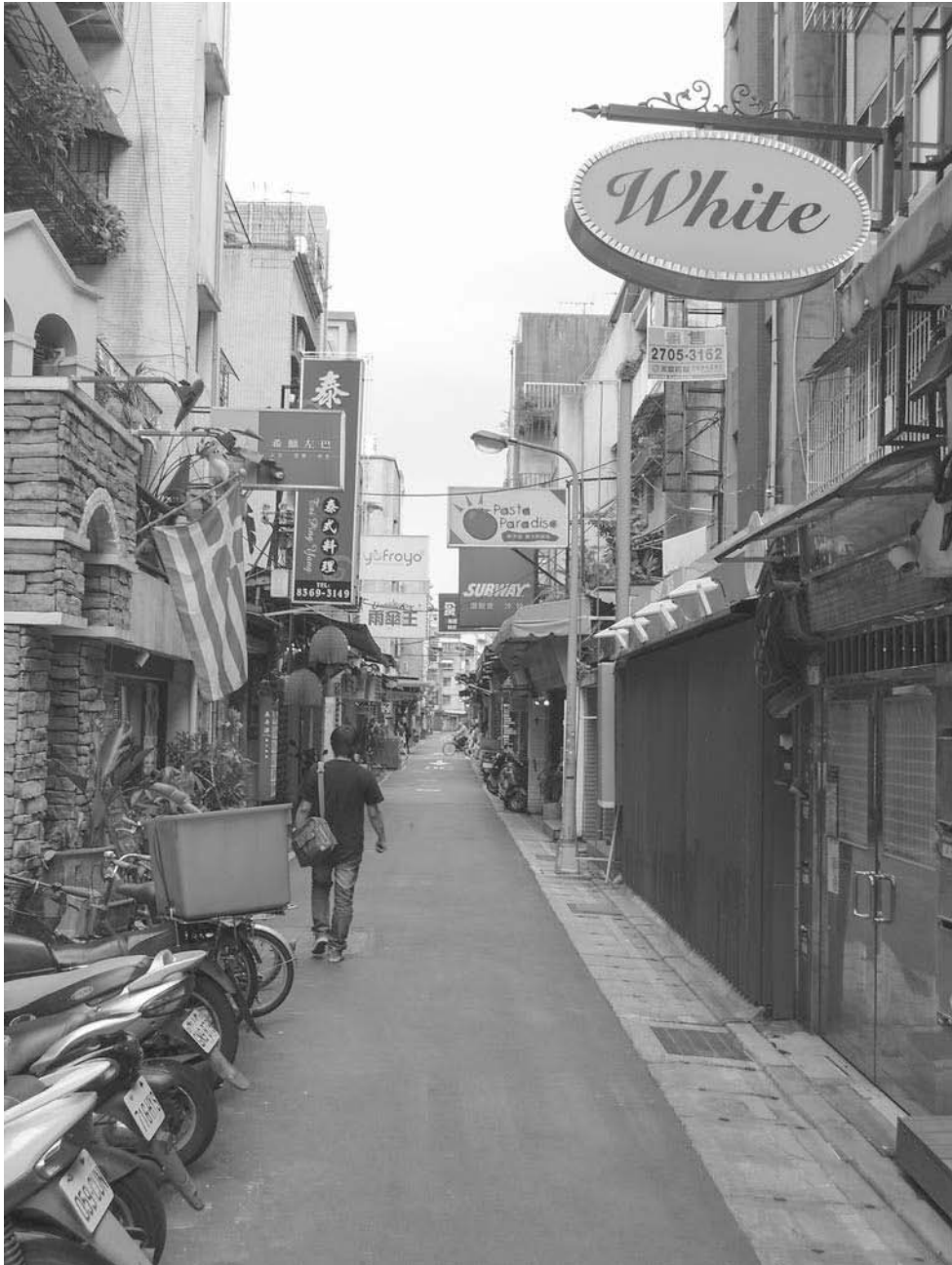


Plate 1.4 Tourism, leisure and the creation of new spaces of urban consumption IV: cosmopolitan eating options in Da'an district, Taipei.

Box 1.1 The Asian economy: a snapshot in 2016

Economic growth in the Asia-Pacific region is markedly less robust compared to the years before and immediately after the global financial and economic crisis that started in 2008. Developing economies in the Asia-Pacific region grew by an estimated 4.5% in 2015, the lowest rate since 2010, and only a modest rebound to 5% growth is forecast for 2016.

Rapid increases in household and corporate debt in some economies pose risks for financial stability and economic growth prospects. Thailand's household debt is on a par with OECD levels and China now holds more corporate debt than the United States.

Despite much progress having been achieved in poverty reduction, significant inequalities of incomes and opportunities remain in many economies of the region, hampering the achievement of broader development goals.

Source: UNESCAP 2016: iii–iv

The Handbook and its structure and content

The Handbook is an ambitious survey of the region and its continued growth and development as a key tourism region as a receiver and generator of tourism, with a high proportion of intra-regional travel. The book is divided into five sections. This first section provides an introduction to the region and offers a context to the nationally focused chapters. The next three sections are then broadly based on the three UNWTO Asian regions: South-East Asia, South and Central Asia and East and North-East Asia. As noted above, these three regional units also relate strongly to growth economic regionalism, political differences over territory and assertions of nationalism notwithstanding.

Douglas and Douglas (2000) highlighted the term Asia and its mystical alternative to European eyes at least – “the Orient”. This European construct illustrates the powerful influence of colonial powers and the past on modern-day tourism. The history of travel to the region dates to at least Marco Polo's thirteenth-century travel, with its focus on trade. Other studies like Shackley (2006) highlight the historical development of global tourism, and its link to voyages of discovery, conquest, sequestration and subjugation as part of European colonisation and mercantilism. Asia was no exception to this and despite the post-war decolonisation of Asia, the history of conflict (and examples of re-colonisation by Western tourism), trade and resources exploitation epitomise the history of travel and tourism in Asia prior to the boom in international arrivals in the 1980s and 1990s. Initial travel to the region by sea, steamships and more latterly on cruise ships depicts the changing impact of technology on travel. Other advances in land-based transport, especially the European-sponsored railways, to carry the spoils of Empire have subsequently been turned to mass forms of domestic tourist travel, most notably in India. The growth of hospitality and hosting generated a new dimension to colonialism and was the root of the modern-day tourism and hospitality sector. Colonisation, with road and rail construction, created opportunities for mobility that pre-date modern-day tourism and yet the colonial infrastructure often has a key role to play in shaping modern-day tourism patterns.

It is therefore apposite that this section of the book should be focused on the impact and implications of this historical growth and development of tourism through Asia's colonial and post-colonial path to independence and globalisation (Lo & Marcotullio 2000). Chapter 2 is a fresh and provocative survey of the political issues around Asian tourism, highlighting the key

themes of heritage and diplomacy. Chapter 3 analyses the fundamental importance of transport, accessibility and mobility within tourism. The focus on air travel underpins the key driver of mass international inbound and outbound travel. Yet running in parallel to this is the importance of the major consequences of motorisation of transport within the destination and impact on urban and destination pollution. In many Asian high-density cities, debates are long running on the constrained transport choices for residents and tourists alike. As Schafer and Victor (2000) argued, these limited choices meant that many localised and entrepreneurial solutions emerged. Importantly, these could also accommodate both tourists and locals. For example, in India's largest cities motorised and non-motorised options are extremely important (e.g. buses, auto-rickshaws and cycle rickshaws, minivans and taxis). However, in many of Asia's rapidly expanding and most high-density cities, many of the traditional modes of transport are being affected by cars, changes in consumer preferences and a drive for modernity. As urban populations grow, this is creating a crisis of urban transport and mobility that is impacting on local populations as well as urban tourism and the wider environment (Singh, 2006; Reddy & Balachandra, 2012; Loo & Li, 2012).

From a development perspective, the implications of the major growth spurt generated by the tourism arrivals since the 1980s has created a demand for high-skilled labour to service tourist needs. This is the subject of Chapter 4, analysing the challenges within Asia. This in itself is increasingly interconnected with Chapter 5, focusing on policy and political issues, since the impact of foreign direct investment to facilitate tourism development and growth does not always benefit local people in terms of employment growth as much as had been expected (Sheng 2011). This is often highlighted when mega-events are hosted and new infrastructure built without a substantive long-term impact on employment and economic growth (Colantonio *et al.* 2013). An important corollary of the failure of policy and planning is the environmental impact of tourism development in Asia. As Chapter 6 demonstrates, growth at a rapid pace, especially in many dense urban areas and countries such as China, has had a detrimental and irreversible impact on nature and the environment. In Chapter 7, the counter-balance to the environmental impact of tourism development is the impact on people and society. The chapter addresses the consequences of rapid growth on the society and culture, where contributing to natural economic development objectives outweighs the needs of preserving local identities, culture and heritage. One controversial and yet increasingly popular strategy being pursued in many Asian destinations to justify tourism and the creation of benefits for local people is pro-poor tourism (PPT) (Phommavong & Sörensson 2014; Truong *et al.* 2014). This is the focus of Chapter 8, which critiques this PPT approach that seeks to harness the benefits of tourism to address the endemic poverty that exists in many parts of Asia.

In any one book, it is impossible to realistically separate out the holistic nature of the impact and overall consequences of the changes induced by tourism from those arising from other social, economic, political and environmental forces, particularly in a region such as Asia which is undergoing rapid change. However, for the purposes of understanding the intricacies, effects and significance of tourism in different regions, countries, places and in different times, one is usually forced to look at the existing model of tourism development in a regional and global context and the various facets and systematic dimensions of the "tourism experience" and development in the region. Only by segmenting tourism into various facets (e.g. historical dimensions, social and cultural impacts, economics, policy, transportation, politics, environment) can one begin to appreciate how the development patterns of tourism have emerged in the different countries and regions. In this respect, the chapters which follow examine tourism in more detail within particular different spatial, economic, political, environmental and cultural contexts to begin to reconstruct the patterns of tourism development that have occurred, what is currently happening and some of the prospects for future growth and development in the region.

This book, like tourism itself, is spatially and temporally uneven with respect to what can be covered. Nevertheless, the ensuing chapters seek to provide readers with a valuable snapshot of tourism at various scales, and from various approaches and positions. The breadth of the chapters and the range of subjects and authors are therefore part of this desire to present a range of perspectives and understanding of the processes and forces shaping tourism in this fascinating and dynamic region of global tourism activity.

Key reading

- UNESCAP (2016) *Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific 2015: Year-End Update*. Bangkok: United Nations.
- United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UNHabitat) and United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) (2015) *The State of Asian and Pacific Cities 2015: Urban Transformations Shifting from Quantity to Quality*. Bangkok: UNESCAP.
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- Pacific Asia Travel Association (founded in 1951, the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) is a not-for-profit membership-based organisation promoting tourism and the interests of the tourism industry in the Asia-Pacific region): www.pata.org
- UNWTO: www.unwto.org
- World Travel & Tourism Council: www.wttc.org

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28 Conclusion: prospects for tourism in Asia

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As Chapter 1 highlighted, many destinations in Asia are based on a growing urbanised experience

related to the principal gateways in the region. It is ironic that with the exception of Singapore,

many of these increasingly urbanised countries continue to strongly promote images of rural and

relatively natural areas in their tourist promotion. The problem here is that with the emergence

of highly urbanised regions with an array of environmental problems, the tourist experience of

entering each country may be tarnished by wider problems of a lowering of environmental

quality (e.g. overcrowding, pollution and severe congestion in the absence of appropriate

transport infrastructure), that in the long-run can affect economic development. In addition to

the need for improved urban planning and design, one of the principal explanations is that

infrastructure needs significant investment, redevelopment and replacement to meet the demands

now being placed upon it through that of a growing middle-class population as well as tourist

use. In this context, tourism planning and management needs to be included in many of the

centralised five-year plans still in vogue in many countries in the region, so that tourist expenditure

is used to reinvest in vital physical and social

infrastructure for urban centres as a whole. Given

the continued growth in urbanisation, the need for improved planning and investment is

paramount, especially given additional challenges of environmental and social change.

In a social and cultural context, the rapid growth of tourism in Southeast and South Asia has

generated a complex, diverse and often controversial range of impacts. The impact on indigenous

culture, the loss of cultural identity and commodification of culture to generate economic

benefits has not been without its critics. In a similar vein, there is also a growing concern that

rapid tourism development has not been accompanied by adequate planning to ameliorate

short- and long-term environmental impacts. While general short-term impacts of visitors on

the environment can often be ameliorated through the application of visitor management

techniques and strategies, the effects of longer-term indirect impacts, e.g. inadequate sewage

disposal from resort developments, may have substantial implications for the quality of life of

local residents, the health of residents and visitors alike, and the continued attractiveness of

destinations (Hall & Lew 2009). Ecotourism

Ecotourism has become an increasingly important part of the product mix of the region, along

with marine and cultural tourism, and often under the umbrella of pro-poor tourism or poverty

reduction (Truong et al. 2014; Carter et al. 2015). Nearly all countries in the region are seeking

to develop ecotourism attractions, usually national parks

and reserves, in order to attract high

yield tourism, although in the search for the tourist dollar the temptation to attract more and

more tourists to environmentally sensitive sites seems to be unstoppable. The relationship

between tourism and the environment is therefore problematic. Tourism has as much provided

the justification for the conservation of cultural and natural heritage, and the conservation of

biodiversity, throughout the region, e.g. through the creation of national parks and reserves, as

it has led to its destruction. While appropriate environmental strategies for tourism are important,

probably the most significant factor is the development of integrated planning and management

strategies that seek to manage the synergistic and cumulative relationships within and between

environmental uses. In this sense planning for tourism must be able to encompass more than just

tourism. Indeed, one of the biggest drawbacks in tourism planning and development in the

region is such a tunnel-vision towards tourism. Asian identity and otherness

In this age of globalisation questions of power, rights, cultural representation, "otherness" and

identity have become part of the vernacular of at least some students of tourism (Winter et al.

2008; Hall 2011a). However, it would be true to say that they are not part of the industry

lexicon or even a large part of tourism academia. Instead, most concerns surround such issues

as infrastructure capacities (particularly transport and accommodation capacities), levels of

repeat visitation, effective marketing and promotional campaigns, efficient use of resources and

presenting the best possible image to the outside world of a place where the locals are friendly,

interesting and a little bit different (but not too different), and where the destination is safe,

peaceful and attractive (Hall & Page 2000b). Such uncritical perspectives have often been

reinforced by some academics and researchers who have not wanted to rock the government

and tourism industry boat, perhaps because they do not want to be seen to bite the hand that

feeds or because they wish to conduct more research (Hall 2011b). Yet, more wide-ranging

research and debate of tourism in the region have become more vital than ever before,

particularly when factors often regarded on the periphery of tourism research, e.g. political and

socio-cultural issues, become central to industry interests at times of economic and governmental

instability. This, though, requires a willingness of government, industry and academics to step

outside the box and be willing to communicate and listen to alternative perspectives on tourism

even if they may be regarded as critical of the hitherto received view.

It is therefore extremely appropriate that this book is being completed at a time when, in

many countries throughout the region, the need for more open policy debate and an end to

political corruption is being conveyed more than ever before. Academic commentators have

their part to play in such a debate in a tourism context, given the significance of tourism

development for economic, environmental and social wellbeing in many parts of the region. It

is therefore hoped that some of the perspectives and insights contained in this book will help

lead to improved policy making and the development of more sustainable forms of tourism in

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