A Framework for Assessing National Tourism Plans

by

Zainub Ibrahim

A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo

in fulfillment of the

thesis requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Geography

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2013

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

An integrated framework is created to assess national-level tourism plans and is applied to the Egyptian case. To date, the assessment of tourism planning has been a tedious, expensive process and detailed evaluations have not often been undertaken in a systematic manner. It is argued that much can be learned about tourism planning by examining tourism planning documents systematically according to a set of criteria. Although plans differ depending on their contexts, there are certain attributes that should be present in all tourism plans. In this dissertation a set of characteristics is delineated that should be present in national-level tourism plans. The proposed assessment framework is divided into four major components: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. Each component is then further divided into key points drawn from pertinent literatures that suggest the characteristics of a good plan and, therefore, what should be assessed in plan evaluation. The framework is then applied to the Egyptian tourism plan to guide an examination and assessment of the documents. Based on this analysis, recommendations are made to improve Egyptian tourism planning. This research contributes to tourism planning by suggesting a framework that can be employed with relative ease to assess tourism plans for different national-level destinations, thus facilitating problem and issue identification, offering an opportunity for learning, and providing a structure for undertaking comparative studies.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I am grateful to God. Secondly, there are a number of people who have facilitated the creation of this work, and to whom acknowledgements are due.

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Geoffrey Wall, whose guidance, advices, expertise and patience throughout the process I could not have done without. I would also like to thank my committee members, Professors Alain Nimubona, Paul Parker, and Stephen Smith, who have read and reviewed different versions of this thesis, and provided valuable insights and suggestions. Additionally, I would like to thank my external examiner, Professor Kerry Godfrey, for providing a fresh outlook on the thesis, and for taking the time to meticulously read and assess every word in it.

I would like to thank my friends and family for always being there for me. To my friends, you know who you are; I am truly blessed to have you in my life. To my sister, Roukaya, thank you oh little one. To my parents, Sabah and Ahmed, words cannot do justice to the gratitude and appreciation I feel for you. And finally, a special thank you to my best friend and confidant, Amir, for being there for me when I needed you the most.

Dedication

To Sabah Sewilam and Ahmed Ibrahim.

With love.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

CBE	Central Bank of Egypt
CICC	Cairo International Conference Center
CST	Council for Sustainable Tourism
DMO	Destination Marketing Organization
EEAA	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ETA	Egyptian Tourism Authority
ETF	Egyptian Tourism Federation
FONATUR	Fondo Nacional De Fomento Al Turismo
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GNP	Gross National Product
GTZ	German Agency for Technical Cooperation
IAIA	International Association for Impact Assessment
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
MHUUC	Ministry of Housing, Utilities and Urban Communities
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibitions
MOT	Ministry of Tourism
NSTSP	National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan
NTA	National Tourism Administration
OAT	Organization for Arab Tourism
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPIP	Program-Policy Implementation Process
PPP	Public/Private Partnership
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RTO	Regional Tourism Organization
SCT	Supreme Council of Tourism

SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
TDA	Tourism Development Authority
TDU	Tourism Development Unit
TWSDP	Tourism Workforce Skills Development Project
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UWRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
WB	World Bank
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WTO	World Trade Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization

PART I: SETTING THE STAGE

Chapter 1: Introduction

Tourism plans are documents written to outline a future trajectory for tourism in a destination. These documents serve a number of additional purposes, such as acquiring funds, boosting knowledge of an area and promoting future development (Cullingworth & Craves, 2009). Thus, the value of a plan often extends beyond the implementation of its recommendations. The plan usually reflects many influences, such as economic, social and political factors (Ryan, 2011). The study of planning and plans can be carried out for a variety of purposes, such as economic evaluation and plan implementation. However, the examination of a plan in and of itself, outside of the scope of the process of its development, its implementation, monitoring and other related activities, serves a different yet related and beneficial purpose. For instance, studying plans can serve as a learning process for how to improve future plans (Berke & Godschalk, 2009) and can shed light upon the ideas embodied in the plan, which are reflective of the social and economic values of their setting (Ryan, 2011). Studying tourism plans is of particular significance because relatively little work has been done to assess plans (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). In order to learn from experience, it is necessary to consider what has gone before but there is only limited documentation in the published literature of the successes and failures of tourism plans. Accordingly, this thesis contributes to the study of tourism plans by drawing from literatures on different aspects of tourism and planning to propose a framework for the examination and assessment of tourism plans.

Tourism planning usually occurs for development purposes as tourism is commonly viewed and encouraged as a means of economic development, particularly in developing countries. Thus, when studying tourism planning, it is imperative that it is done in the context of development studies. This chapter sets the stage for this dissertation by describing where tourism falls amidst the related concepts of development and planning.

In order to gain a better understanding of tourism planning, first, tourism will be defined. Then, relationships between tourism and development will be discussed. Finally, the roles of tourism planning will be examined. Based on this discussion of tourism planning, the purpose of this research will be established. The purpose is to determine a means to assess national-level tourism plans through an analysis of tourism planning documents and to illustrate this

assessment approach through application of an evaluation framework to a case study of Egyptian tourism plans. This chapter also summarizes where the research purpose falls within the broader literature. Finally, an overview of the structure of this dissertation is provided.

1.1 Definitions: Tourism, Development and Planning

1.1.1 Defining Tourism

Tourism can be defined in many ways, depending on the context in which it is being considered. Leiper (1979) proposed a means to define 'tourism' based on purpose and approach. From this perspective, tourism has economic, technical, and holistic definitions. In a more current publication, Leiper (2004) categorized the meanings of 'tourist' into three categories: usage in popular contexts, technical definitions, and heuristic concepts and definitions. Definitions used for the purpose of research in planning should be holistic, falling into the third category, where "precision [is] desirable in each case but [there are] no widely followed definitions; each research should frame a definition to suit each project" (Leiper, 2004, p. 30).

Another approach is to attempt to define the size and scope of the 'industry' by recognizing two tiers of businesses: those that cater exclusively to tourists and those that serve both tourists and local people (Smith, 1988). Smith also argued that "a single, comprehensive, and widely accepted definition of tourism is beyond hope of realization. Practitioners must learn to accept the myriad of definitions and to understand and respect the reasons for those differences" (Smith, 1988, p. 180). For this reason, the multitude of definitions of tourism will not be reviewed or categorized here but, rather, a working definition will be proposed that is appropriate to the purposes of this research. A widely-accepted definition is that of the World Tourism Organization, which stated (UNWTO, 1995, p. 30):

> Travel and tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes.

This definition focuses on defining tourism based solely on the tourists and their activities. However, in this thesis, tourism is viewed in the context of development and this

aspect is not addressed by this definition. Thus, a broader definition is appropriate for the present purposes, such as that provided by Mathieson and Wall (1982, p. 1):

> Tourism is the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs. The study of tourism is the study of people away from their usual habitat, of the establishments which respond to the requirements of travellers, and of the impacts that they have on the economic, physical and social well-being of their hosts. It involves the motivations and experiences of the tourists, the expectations of and adjustments made by residents of reception areas, and the roles played by the numerous agencies and institutions which intercede between them.

This latter definition will be used to guide the research on which this thesis is based.

1.1.2 Defining Development

Defining the term 'development' is not a simple task. 'Development' has carried different meanings at different times and in different contexts. The term 'development' is often used imprecisely in the academic literature and a variety of definitions of the term have been proposed, but these have changed in emphasis over time. Even the most basic attributes of the term have evolved with academic trends and emphases. In its simplest form, development means positive change (Aronsson, 2000). However, the term is usually tied to other concepts and ideas such as improved quality rather than just growth. A very crude understanding could imply some form of striving towards modernization and emulation of developed, Western countries. This however is not at all necessarily the case; and the term has undergone much change over time. Even at any given time frame, there are multiple understandings of the term depending on factors that should be allotted priority, methodology of application, use of technology, and consideration of development consequences, among other considerations (Pieterse, 2010).

Different literatures focus on different aspects of development strategies and ideologies. For instance, Simon (1999, p.19) mentioned seventeen ideological, epistemological and methodological orientations of development and, according to Goulet (1989), at least five dimensions are embraced by development: economic, social, political, cultural, and full-life. In attempting to organize and grasp the trends in development, Telfer (2002) presents a summary of four chronological development paradigms and their key concepts which are based on a chronological evolution of trends in development theory, shown in Table 1.1. Development theory can be divided into development ideology and development strategy, where the ideology represents the ends and the strategy represents the means (Pieterse, 2010). Both of these have

4

undergone evolutionary changes over time, and different paradigms focus on different aspects of development theory. It is important to bear in mind that the indicated time frames are merely guidelines, and that not all paradigms are mutually exclusive. Each paradigm is generally a reaction to the preceding paradigm.

Table 1.1 Evolution of Development Theory

Time guide	Development paradigms	Selected theoretical approaches or models	Key concepts/strategies
1950s and 1960s	Modernisation	Stages	Societies pass though similar development stages as western countries
		Diffusion	Spread of growth impulses from developed areas; growth poles; trickledown effect; state involvement, regional economic development
1950s and 1960s	Dependency	Neocolonialism	Underdevelopment caused by exploitation by developed countries, western cultural influence
		Dualism	Poverty is functional to global economic growth; rich and poor—between countries and within countries, regional inequalities
		Structuralism	Domestic markets, import substitution, social reforms, protectionism, state involvement
Mid 1970s and 1980s	Economic neoliberalism	Free market	Supply side macroeconomics; free competitive market; privatization
		Structural adjustment	Focus on market forces and competitive exports
		One world	New world financial system; deregulation internationalisation of production
1970s early 1980s	Alternative development	Basic needs	Priorities of food, housing, water, health and education
		Grassroots	People-centered development; local control of decision-making, empowerment, NGOs
		Gender	Women in development, gender relations, empowerment
		Sustainable development	Environmental management; meet the needs of the present generation without compromising future needs

After Telfer (1996). Sources: Todaro (1994) and Brohman (1996)

The most recent paradigm is that of alternative development. One of the new emphases of this paradigm is the idea of sustainable development. This concept has gained much momentum

and is particularly prominent in the study of tourism, and thus significantly contributes to the definition of the term 'development' in this thesis.

A major threat to development is unsustainable growth. It is therefore unwise to engage in a discussion on development without making mention of sustainability. In order to ensure that the definition of development distinguishes between growth and development, the term sustainable development should be introduced. Although sustainable development is difficult to define (Lele, 1991; Beckerman, 1994; Wall, 1997; Mebratu, 1998), the most commonly accepted definition comes from the Brundtland Commission (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) which argued that it addresses "the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". The meaning and implications of this definition have been contested and, according to McMinn (1997), sustainable development, as it applies to tourism, implies accounting for the inter-generational impacts of tourism. This requires inclusion of economic, political, social, cultural, ecological and geographical phenomena in planning and development (Aronsson, 2000). The economy, environment, and society (shown in Figure 1.1) are commonly viewed as being the pillars of sustainability under which the other aspects fall.

Figure 1.1 The Three Pillars of Sustainability
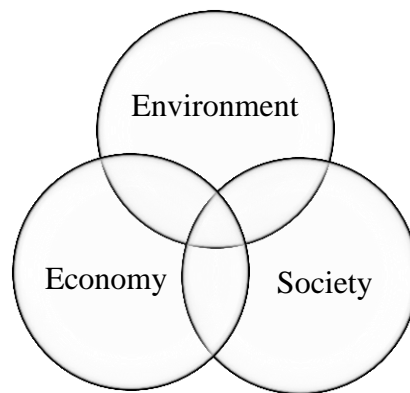
Source: Parkin, Sommer, & Uren (2003)

1.1.2.1 Development beyond the Economic

A focus solely on economic aspects is insufficient to achieve development when it is more broadly conceived. During the 1950s and 1960s, many developing nations realized that their economic growth targets, which were based on GNP, did not necessarily result in decreased

6

poverty, unemployment, or more equitable income distribution (Todaro, 1997). Accordingly, the meaning of development has been extended beyond the economic. It has become a holistic concept which encompasses many factors. It includes all factors that are "... concerned with human betterment through improvement in lifestyles and life opportunities" (Wall, 1997, p. 34), and this perspective resonates throughout the recent tourism development literature.

In this literature, tourism's most significant areas of influence, in addition to the economic, are usually presented as being social and environmental. These three components are often grouped under the umbrella of sustainability and, together, they form much of the thinking in the field. This is reflected in the titles of journals such as the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, and numerous texts (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Wahab, 1997; Aronsson, 2000; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Wall & Mathieson, 2006) address these topics and their relationships. Accordingly, they should be central to the definition of development within the context of tourism planning.

1.1.2.2 Development and Social Issues

Growth and development can have substantial societal and cultural impacts on communities. Some frequently discussed impacts include changes in income distribution, population change, unemployment, urbanization, gender issues (Todaro, 1997; UNRISD, 2000), security, leisure, communications, mobility, and housing (UNRISD, 2000). The severity of disturbance, both positive and negative, and the types of disturbance issues differ substantially depending on the development initiative and the level of awareness and concern for it. Social issues can be intertwined with environmental issues and, thus, examination of one ideally should require acknowledgement of the other. For instance, some scholars have argued that tourism is a form of neo-colonialism (Bruner, 1989; Matthews, 1977; Van Den Abbeele, 1980). Such an argument can also be viewed as being underpinned by trends towards globalization rather than foreign domination. Regardless, excessive foreign ownership, mass tourism, and First World power over Third World tourism can make it economically, socially and environmentally unsustainable (Mowforth & Munt, 2003).

1.1.2.3 Economic Growth and Environmental Quality

The environment-economy debate is one that has been a central part of economic discourse for the past century (Daly & Farley, 2004) and it is a great source of controversy (Shafik, 1994). At one end of the spectrum, a pessimistic view asserts that economic activity

inevitably destroys environmental resources, ultimately resulting in economic and ecological problems. At the other extreme is the view that environmental problems need not be addressed directly because they will be solved with economic growth (Shafik, 1994). Both of these extreme views are ingrained in the economy-environment discourse, Thomas Malthus, the 18th century cleric and philosopher, instigating a pessimistic view (Malthus, 1803), and the environmental Kuznets curve underpinning an optimistic view.

Two of the economic approaches that are most related to this study of tourism are the ecological economic perspective and the environmental economic perspective. Environmental economics falls under the approach of neoclassical economics. Neoclassical economics focuses on efficient allocation of economic goods and services. Thus, environmental economics assigns market values to ecosystem services and externalities to be able to incorporate them into the market model. On the other hand, ecological economics takes a more ecologically-based stance. It views the economy as functioning within the boundaries dictated by the environmental carrying capacity of the ecosystem (Perman, Ma, & McGilvray, 1996).

1.1.2.4 Definition of Development

Based on the above discussion, the definition of development that underpins this study encompasses all aspects of sustainability, promoting qualitative improvements on economic, environmental and/or social fronts and, thus, supporting the quality of life of individuals. This is most closely aligned with the alternative development paradigm. This view is pragmatic and broadly based, and focuses on people, the environment, and sustainability (Telfer, 2002). This paradigm best informs the study of tourism development (Telfer, 2002), in addition to this thesis as it addresses environmental, social, and economic aspects in an attempt to sustainably improve the quality of human lives.

1.1.3 Defining Planning

When defining planning, it is possible argue that planning as a profession lacks a disciplinary foundation of its own and the feature that unites planning practice is that it has an orientation to the future and draws on other disciplines (Thompson 2000, p. 130) to support the development of a more sustainable future. Planning can draw from different disciplines including law, architecture-design, geography, sociology, economics and ecology, among others depending on the situation and context of the planning situation. The balance between these disciplines has

shifted over time, so the intellectual basis of planning is exceptionally flexible and fluid. This is an important part of the richness of planning, but it also means that there is less certainty than with most other professions about what planning 'owns' and what, therefore, it should be developing.

The planning literature covers an array of definitions of planning, however all definitions share the commonality that planning is forward-looking (Cullingworth & Craves, 2009). For instance, a rather broad perspective defines planning as "the attempt to control the consequences of our actions" or, stated differently, it is "the ability to control the future by current acts" (Wildavsky, 1973, p. 128). This outlook views planning as agreeing on goals and the methods by which these goals are to be implemented.

Another view extends the definition of planning to the implementation of planning into the public domain through the conversion of ideas and research into practical change. Such view is reflected by the definition proposed by Friedman (1993, p. 428) where planning is the "professional practice that specifically seeks to connect forms of knowledge with forms of action in the public domain". It can, however, be argued that defining planning should be separate from implementation, as not all planning or plans take place for the purpose of implementation. From this perspective, implementation is not a defining element in planning. This perspective accounts for the fact that a plan may be constructed with an agenda other than implementation. Such agendas can include obtaining funds from funding agencies, for propaganda purposes of boosting the attraction of an area, or even for the purpose of promoting a particular development alternative (Cullingworth and Craves, 2009). This thesis adheres to this perspective, as it seeks to create a framework for assessing tourism plans independent from implementation. For this reason, the definition of planning assumed by this thesis is that proposed by Cullingworth and Craves (2009, p.6), where planning is defined as "a process of formulating goals and agreeing on the manner in which these are to be met".

This definition is selected bearing in mind that there are numerous positions that can be assumed in planning. These are rational, comprehensive, incrementalism, advocacy, implementation-oriented, strategic, transactive, negotiative, and communicative. Each of these positions is explained at length in Section 5.2, and the key idea behind each is summarized in Table 5.1. It is relevant to bear in mind that the theoretical position assumed is related to the

purpose for planning and the context in which the plan is created. For instance, if a plan is created for the purpose of promoting a particular development option, it is unlikely that an implementation-oriented approach would be assumed.

This section has defined the terms tourism, development, and planning for the purposes of their use in this dissertation. The following section extends the interpretation of these terms by considering their relationships with one another.

1.2 Understanding Relationships between Concepts

Not only is it important to define terms, as has been done in the previous section, but it is also necessary to understand their relationships with one another and how they contribute to tourism planning theory. This section discusses the relationships between tourism and development, and planning and development and, thus, leads to the establishment of the research area, tourism planning, which will be addressed in this thesis.

1.2.1 Tourism and Development

1.2.1.1 Tourism as a Vehicle for Development

It is not unusual to focus primarily on a single sector, such as tourism, in discussions of development although many, if not all, sectors can be instruments for development. However, developing countries often cannot readily engage in production industries because of limitations in knowledge, a skilled labour force or the infrastructure needed to support many types of advanced industrial production. Furthermore, developed countries frequently impose stringent quality, safety and environmental standards that developing countries cannot meet. This is of particular relevance to the manufacturing and agricultural sectors.

Tourism may have certain advantages as a pathway to development in such situations and Telfer and Sharpley (2008) outlined explicitly a number of factors that can help to make tourism a lucrative sector for developing countries (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008, pp. 17-20):

1. *Tourism is a growth industry*. Tourism has demonstrated consistent high levels of growth since the 1950s, rendering it a "safe" investment option.

2. *Tourism redistributes wealth*. Tourism is a means of transferring wealth from developed countries to less developed countries.

3. *Backward linkages*. Tourism offers opportunities for backward linkages through use of services and products consumed by tourists, such as accommodation, local transport and souvenirs.

4. *Tourism utilizes natural, 'free' infrastructure*. Tourism has relatively low start-up costs as it often relies on existing attractions and infrastructure.

5. *No tourism trade barriers*. Developed countries often protect their internal markets by imposing trade restrictions on imported products. This is rarely the case with tourism as it is unusual for countries to limit the rights of their citizens overseas. Although travel visas impose restrictions on tourism, these are usually imposed by the destination rather than the place of origin.

It can be argued that the last point about the lack of trade barriers is a naïve view and that there are substantial barriers to the growth of tourism that differ among countries. Trade barriers differ depending on the context, but some common barriers include tourism and other national policies and regulations, safety and security issues, taxes, and passport and visa requirements (The Conference Board of Canada, 2004). However, these potential barriers are primarily determined by the host country and can be addressed by national governments.

1.2.1.2 Development as a Prerequisite for Tourism

Telfer and Sharpley's (2008, p.17-20) point that tourism utilizes natural, 'free' infrastructure, such as natural and built capital, implies that a prerequisite level of development must be in place; for infrastructure must exist to support tourist demand. In this sense, tourism has a two-way relationship with development. It both requires a certain degree of it, while helping to achieve it. This infrastructure includes both physical infrastructure and human capital. Otherwise, tourism will employ non-locals, especially in professional and managerial positions, and experience high leakages of wealth (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Royalty payments, interest on investments, and licensing fees can also be substantial in the case of developing countries.

This idea is supported by statistics of leading countries in tourism, shown in Table 1.2. The list of top ten countries for tourist receipts contains only two developing countries, China and Turkey, and Turkey holds the tenth position. In contrast, the list of the top ten countries for

international tourist arrivals holds four developing countries: China, Ukraine, Turkey and Mexico. This implies that developed countries have higher standards of living and offer higher-quality infrastructure and services, for which they can demand a higher price. These differences suggest that developed countries are able to extract higher value from tourists than developing countries, implying their capacity to employ a more sustainable form of tourism than their developing country counterparts.

Table 1.2 Top Ten Countries for International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts

Top countries of international tourist arrivals	Top countries for international tourist receipts
France	United States
Spain	Spain
United States	France
China	Italy
Italy	China
United Kingdom	United Kingdom
Germany	Germany
Ukraine	Australia
Turkey	Austria
Mexico	Turkey

Source: UNWTO (2008)

1.2.1.3 Tourism as a Leading Sector in Development

Tourism is often employed as a driver of economic growth and development. However, it can also be argued that other factors must be in place, such as infrastructure and transportation, often created for other reasons, for tourism to be able to occur. Does the existence of positive conditions spur tourism development and thus development, or does tourism growth result in the improvement of economic factors necessary for development? Such questions lead to considerations concerning whether tourism can be a leading sector, stimulating growth in other sectors, or if other factors must be in place in order for tourism to occur. This section examines tourism as a leading sector in development and factors that may influence this possibility.

The idea of a 'growth pole' for development was first introduced by François Perroux in 1950, and is positioned in modernization theory due to the belief that growth in one sector (or place) can stimulate additional growth. It relies on a propulsive industry to act as a driver of economic growth and development in the region. According to Lo and Salih (1978), the growth pole theory is appealing because it encourages propulsive industries to locate in advantageous areas, employs technically advanced, innovating, and dominating firms, and is capable of

inducing growth in linked industries (Hermansen, 1972). These characteristics result in sharing of resources and consequential cost reduction. This should result in growth in an urban centre, which results in spread effects to peripheral regions.

The growth pole model of development aims to achieve two objectives: to reduce regional disparities through stimulation of new growth poles and their spread effects, and to induce economic growth. The effects of economic growth can, if employed with caution, result in an enhanced lifestyle through improved social and environmental conditions. The problem, however, lies in identifying the sources of regional growth which can be self-sustaining. Such is the case because the growth pole theory has rarely been successful in driving the regional economy in its application. Development poles usually either distort regional development patterns or do not form strong positive pole-periphery linkages (Lo & Salih, 1978).

Whether or not tourism can be the basis of a growth pole is a topic that has been discussed since the 1960s, and different perspectives have been considered (Wen & Tisdell, 2001). Christaller was among the first to consider tourism to be a potential growth pole. Christaller believed that tourism has potential as a growth pole for underdeveloped peripheral regions, which are far from industrial regions (Christaller, 1963). Tourism encourages economic development in these otherwise largely uninhabited peripheral regions, acting as a growth pole. Christaller's perspective on tourism as a potential growth pole was not shared by many scholars. Friedmann, for instance, was cautious in his approach but saw tourism as being potentially successful in stimulating economic growth in regions where few other alternatives were available (Friedmann, 1966). Oppermann (1993), however, in a study on the spatial distribution of tourism in Malaysia and its subsequent contribution to regional development, concluded that tourism does not have potential as a growth pole or leading sector, especially as the majority of tourism activity takes place in hubs that depend primarily on other economic activities. This contrasts with Christaller's perspective of tourism as a development stimulus for underdeveloped peripheral regions. From this brief discussion, it can be seen that there is not one answer to whether or not tourism can act as a growth pole for regional development. This suggests that there are other factors that should be considered in determining the potential of tourism as a growth pole or leading sector.

Determining whether tourism can have a significant economic impact depends on a number of factors that differ between destinations and contexts. Vanhove outlined six major factors that determine the magnitude of the economic impact of tourism (Vanhove, 2005, pp. 169-170):

1. The nature of the main facility and its attractiveness.
2. The volume and intensity of expenditure.
3. The level of economic development in the destination.
4. The size of the economic base of the destination.
5. The degree to which tourist expenditures re-circulate within the destination.
6. The degree to which the destination has adjusted to the seasonality of tourist demand (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

Each of these factors is examined in the following sections.

1. The nature of the main facility and its attractiveness

The nature of the main facility and its attractiveness can be determined based on the theory of factor endowments, borrowed from the Heckscher-Ohlin theory. This theory is based on the comparative advantage of destinations based on the distribution of factor endowments. According to this theory, countries that enjoy an abundance of a highly-demanded resource have a comparative advantage in the production and export of products that require this resource (Vellas & Becherel, 1995). Vellas and Becherel (1995, p.65) categorized factor endowments in international tourism as follows:

1. Natural resources, historic, artistic and cultural heritage.
2. Human resources.
3. Capital and infrastructure resources.

Natural resources are natural features such as climate, bodies of water, flora and fauna. These factors, assuming that they can be made accessible to tourists, are sources of much tourism potential (Hassan, 2000; Priskin, 2001). Historic, artistic and cultural resources are also factors that attract tourists (Silberberg, 1995). These include historical monuments, artwork and museum collections.

Human resources are an important factor of production, both in terms of employment and skills (Baum, 2007). A large population with a high percentage of active people that have a tolerance for foreigners is an essential asset for international tourism. Furthermore, the workforce should possess an appropriate level of skill required by the industry (Jithendran & Baum, 2000).

14

Tourism generally does not require a highly-skilled workforce and can thus be an excellent source of employment for people with little or no job skills at the start; however some jobs, such as hotel managers, transportation, quality restaurants and other businesses require highly-skilled employees. Often these can be acquired from abroad, but at the cost of the opportunity to employ locals.

Capital resources and infrastructure are decisive factors in determining the success of tourism. Tourism relies on infrastructure, superstructure, transportation networks, and the availability of accommodation (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999). High natural resource endowment often cannot be made use of for tourism without adequate capital resources.

2. *The volume and intensity of expenditure*

The amount of tourism that a destination can sustain plays a significant role in determining the potential of tourism to be the core sector of a growth pole (Oppermann, 1993). Destinations with small capacities must charge high prices in order to incur significant profits, and may not employ sufficient businesses and resources to drive development. In contrast, destinations with a high capacity may feed other local industries and, in this case, tourism may be developmentally propulsive to the region.

Tourism capacity is determined by a combination of both natural and human-made resources (O'Reilly, 1986). Natural and cultural resources pose the largest hindrance to a destination's capacity as they cannot be readily increased (Wen & Tisdell, 2001). Human-made capital, however, can be increased, but requires time and may prove to be uneconomic. Also, increasing human-made capital beyond the naturally sustainable level of the destination will threaten the natural environment, on which tourism often depends.

3. *Level of economic development of the destination*

Economically developed destinations are more inclined to attract tourists than underdeveloped destinations. Senior (1982) listed the characteristics that are advantageous and disadvantageous for tourism destinations, which are shown in Table 1.3.

Developed countries generally have more of the advantageous characteristics than developing countries, while developing countries have more disadvantageous characteristics. It

15

is, therefore, understandable that developed countries are able to generate higher profits from tourism than developing countries.

Table 1.3 Assessing the Characteristics of a Tourist Destination

Advantages	Disadvantages
Physically attractive	High inflation
Good climate	Strong currency
Geographically proximate	High crime rate
Low-cost travel	Incidence of terrorism
Good facilities	Incidence of natural disasters
Politically stable	Politically unstable
Economically prosperous	Unpopular government or regime
Cultural, social, historical ties	Bad publicity
New, exciting location	Economically weak
Cheap accommodation	Well-tried location

Source: Senior (1982, p. 8)

4. The size of the economic base of the destination

In reference to regional development theory, tourism is a basic industry that has positive contributions to the balance of payments and generates income in the destination region (Vanhove, 2005). A basic industry supplies goods and services to consumers from outside of the region and, by definition, tourists come from elsewhere. Further, it supports other activities and can, therefore, be a vehicle for development. However, the economic impact of tourism cannot exceed the size of the economic base. In order for the benefits of tourism to resonate within the national economy, there must be a sufficient base from which to generate employment, tax revenue, entrepreneurial activity, and balance of payments enhancements. Furthermore, a large economic base minimizes leakages (Vanhove, 2005), which leads to the next point on re-circulation of tourist expenditures.

5. The degree to which tourist expenditures re-circulate within the destination

Archer (1977) termed this the sales or transactions multiplier. This measures the degree to which tourist expenditures re-circulate within a destination. The multiplier represents the ripple effect of tourist spending on the economy, which diminishes largely as a result of leakage in the economy (Archer, 1982). The larger the leakage, then the smaller the re-circulation of expenditures will be and, consequently, the smaller the multiplier. Factors that can inhibit the re-circulation of expenditures within a destination include (Vanhove, 2005, p. 184):

- The saving quota of the population of the destination.

- The import quota, or the share of tourism expenditures that is spent to import products.

- The tax quota, or the share going to the public sector.

6. The degree to which the destination has adjusted to the seasonality of tourist demand

Seasonality is the regular fluctuations in demand for tourism due with the time of year (Vanhove, 2005). Tourist accommodations, tour operators and local investors may suffer from low rates of return if there is high seasonality (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Many of the costs incurred for tourism are fixed. This makes it difficult for the destination to adjust to seasonality, which is critical to the success of the industry. Other negative effects include under-utilization of resources as with hotels, wrong use of resources as with the general tourism infrastructure, high operational costs year-round, seasonal employment and thus seasonal unemployment, congestion accompanied with high prices and reduced quality of services to tourists during peak periods, and the ecological danger of exceeding the carrying capacity during peak periods (Vanhove, 2005).

Further, seasonal spread leads to a number of benefits including (Vanhove, 2005, p. 73):

- Better use of accommodation.

- Less traffic congestion and traffic accidents.

- Reduced overcrowding, leading to greater enjoyment.

- Higher standards of service.

- Price moderation during the high season.

- Less damage to the environment.

- More interesting jobs in the tourism sector.

- Less over-booking.

1.2.1.4 Conclusion

According to the analysis of tourism as a potential source of development, it seems that there is no clear answer. Rather, it depends on the situation and conditions existing in the destination, as well as the magnitude and type of tourism. Therefore, policymakers must be cautious in promoting tourism as a leading sector for development, because the conditions that render the sector a leader must be strong and sustained (Jones, 1991). Otherwise, the failure of the tourism will result in the failure of related industries, and the overall failure of tourism as a

leading sector in development. Therefore it is important to identify key factors that enable tourism to contribute to development in order to consider their representation in the tourism plan.

1.2.2 Planning and Development

One of the main functions of planners is to prepare for development in their jurisdiction. Planners often make development plans and set development controls (Thompson, 2000). One role of planning is to decide between alternative development options. Examples can include deciding between short-term profit and long-term gain, time efficiency versus cost, or compromising the conflicting interests of different groups (Cullingworth & Craves, 2009). In the tourism context, planning is most often carried out to facilitate development. In this sense, development can be viewed as a desired outcome of planning. Additionally, the preparation of a detailed plan is critical to the success of complex development initiatives. Plans can be used to determine the feasibility of development, the nature of the developments that are desired, how development projects are to be implemented, and how they will be monitored (Blakely & Bradshaw, 2002).

It should, therefore, not come as a surprise that the primary aspects of development and planning are similar. Table 1.4 compares the key aspects of development as outlined by Todaro (1997) with the principles of planning presented by Reid (2003). These are found to be similar, reinforcing the link between development and planning. Both share the common themes of life enhancement, promoting human dignity and respect, and increasing freedom.

Table 1.4 A Comparison of Key Aspects of Development and Principles of Planning

Key aspects of development Todaro (1997, p. 670)	Principles of planning Reid (2003, p. 122)
Raising people's living levels—their incomes and consumption levels of food, medical services, education, etc.	[Planning] is a negotiated process and about social interaction, capacity-building and community decision-making which may change the end state from one which focuses on a physical product to one which is more educational and life enhancing.
Creating conditions conducive to the growth of people's self-esteem through the establishment of social, political, and economic systems and institutions that promote human dignity and respect.	Transactive and open planning is political in the good sense of the word in that it features open negotiations, unlike much of what passes for politics today.
Increasing people's freedom by enlarging the range of their choice variables, as by increasing varieties of consumer goods and services.	Planning is a transactive activity which features an open dialogue between the planner and those for whom the plan is being constructed, changing both the desired destination and those involved in the dialogue; it is less a technical activity than a social one; it is creative and partially, at least, artistic. It is comprehensive in its approach, seeking to understand and give expression to a wide range of desired outcomes and the possible paths to their realization.

1.2.3 Tourism Planning and the Need for Research

Despite the abundance of work on planning for tourism, little has been done on the assessment of tourism plans, their effectiveness and whether their goals and objectives have been achieved (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Many tourism plans set goals and objectives to increase the volume of tourism and assume that benefits will accrue to locals through trickle-down effects. Instead, plans should focus on the types of tourism, tourists, and ways to involve local people and maintain the environment (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

Tourism is a particularly interesting venue for examining issues of collaboration and synchronization in development planning because tourism commonly draws upon the inputs of multiple sectors. Achieving development requires collaboration and synchronization on the part of multiple agencies. Different agencies are often unaware of other agencies' goals and objectives, which may be opposing to their own or working in the same direction. Also, different approaches to tourism planning can be taken, which have implications for the impacts of tourism on development. Additionally, the tourism marketing plan has repercussions with regards to the

trajectory of the sector and how it will serve development. These issues are examined later in this thesis.

Although it can be argued that every place and, hence, every plan is unique, it is, nevertheless, suggested that topics and principles may be identified that are relevant across most planning situations, particularly if the planning situation is constrained by scale, for example focussing on national-level tourism plans. Thus, a substantive contribution of the research that will be presented lies in the method of assessment, which will be created such that it can be employed widely to assess the status of plans for tourism destinations. Such a method of assessment is lacking from the literature.

Like development studies, tourism studies are often divorced from their practical implications. They are usually case-specific and focus on a single spatial scale, with comparatively little work across scales and organizations (Pearce, 1990). Similarly, in practice, tourism planners and practitioners often operate as though tourism is a discrete subject, rather than part of an integrated development system (Liu & Wall, 2006). Thus, more work is needed in order to improve the effectiveness of the overall tourism functions and operations as they relate to and link with other sectors.

A substantial difficulty of conducting assessment in planning that is particularly relevant to developing country contexts, is that much of the planning occurs behind closed doors. Furthermore, it may even be a great challenge to acquire copies of the planning documents. It is frequently extremely difficult for an independent third-party researcher to gain access to the required information and to interview individuals involved in the planning process to obtain their genuine reflections. This substantiates the need for the creation of a method of assessment that can be conducted independently of the collaboration or cooperation of planners or other stakeholders. This can be achieved through document asssessment, provided that the planning documents can be obtained and, therefore, such a framework for assessing tourism plans is proposed in this dissertation. Such assessments can contribute to the improvement of future plans and are necessary if learning from experience is to occur.

1.3 Tourism Plans and Scales

Tourism plans are made at a variety of scales from the national, or even trans-national, to those for the development of specific sites. Plans created at different levels should contain different elements and different considerations. At the broader levels, such as planning at the national or even regional level in large countries such as Canada and the United States, plans are likely to be strategic and focus on setting the direction for development, the overall priorities, and provide some directions on how these are to be achieved. At this level, the goals such as increasing tourist numbers, introducing new tourism areas for development, diversifying the tourism portfolio, sustaining the natural and built environments, or preserving local culture may be specified. It is unlikely that the details of how this will be achieved will be discussed at this level, however, as they may differ depending on the location within the country and the specific attributes of particular places. These details should be discussed at the local and site scales, and perhaps to some extent at the regional level depending on the context. The most specific level, the site scale, which is the level of the individual attractions, accommodations, and so forth, should provide much detail on such items as waste disposal, pricing, layout, and rules and regulations. Thus, the broader scales of planning should reflect a more strategic focus, while planning at the smaller scales should be tactical. It is, however, imperative that the plans at different levels are consistent with one another. For instance, if at the national level, the tourism plan aims to attract a small number of high-spending tourists, it would not follow that, at the regional level, many economically-priced tourist accommodation units be constructed to house large numbers of tourists.

It would, thus, be unwise to create a framework for assessing tourism plans at all levels. Different levels have different requirements, and these need to be present in the framework for the scale at which they are being assessed. This dissertation introduces a framework that is applicable to the national-level of tourism planning. This is the broadest scale of tourism planning and it sets the context for much of what is to come at the more specific levels of planning. That the main headings of the proposed framework are goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. These are all considerations at the national-level of tourism planning, and factors that should be considered within them are delineated and discussed in this dissertation.

21

1.4 Research Goal

The objective of this research is to create a framework to assess tourism plans, which can be applied with relative ease to different national-level tourism plans, and to employ this framework to assess the Egyptian national-level tourism plan.

1.5 Conclusion

Tourism, development and planning are three concepts that vary in definition depending on the perspective from which they are viewed and the purpose for their use. The definitions employed for the purpose of this study have been specified, and the relationships between these terms have been discussed. It is concluded that tourism can be viewed as a vehicle for development, while a minimum level of development is itself a prerequisite for substantial tourism to occur. Further, planning is used to shape development so that the benefits are maximised and the costs are limited. This discussion highlights the importance of tourism planning and identifies tourism plan assessment as an important area where research is needed. The literature on tourism planning is explored in more detail in the following chapter.

1.6 Structure of Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into four parts. Part I, Setting the Stage, is an introduction to the research. It contains Chapter 1, which introduces the research area, defines relevant terminology and examines relationships between key concepts; Chapter 2, which is a review of the literature on approaches to the assessment of plans; and Chapter 3, which discusses the methods employed in this study.

Part II covers the framework that is proposed for assessing tourism planning. It contains Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7. Each of these chapters describes one of the four elements of the framework: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing.

Part III contains Chapters 8 through 12, and is an application of the framework to Egyptian tourism planning. Chapter 8 examines the background of Egyptian tourism, and Chapters 9, 10, 11, and 12 assess each of the four elements from Part II in Egyptian tourism plans.

Part IV contains Chapter 13 which is the conclusions, discussion and recommendations for Egyptian tourism planning, as well as reflections on the broader utility of the assessment framework.

Chapter 2: Approaches to Planning Assessment

This chapter addresses different methods of assessment, issues with respect to a holistic approach to planning assessment, and different overarching aspects of assessment. This discussion of methods and approaches is general, rather than specific to tourism, but the features are applicable to the tourism context.

Figure 2.1 Bodies of literature related to this study

Assessing tourism planning
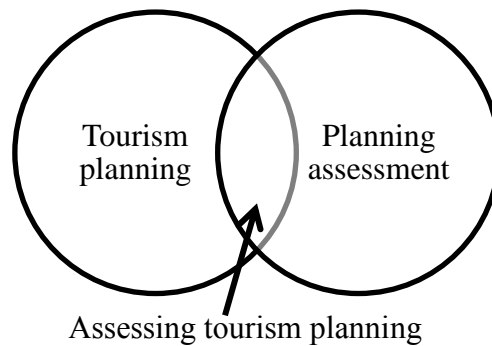
As shown in Figure 2.1, there are two bodies of literature that are most closely related to and directly contribute to this research: tourism planning and planning assessment. Thus, the first section addresses two of the most common methods of assessment: environmental impact assessments, and cost-benefit analysis. Neither of these assessment methods is comprehensive in their approaches, hence the difficulties and advantages of integrated evaluation are discussed. Aspects that can differ between planning assessment approaches are also introduced and explained. The second section then discusses integrated approaches to planning assessment and the third section examines tourism planning in developed and developing country contexts. However, first it is necessary to consider the nature of assessment itself.

2.1 Defining Assessment

In this thesis, a framework will be proposed through which a systematic assessment of tourism plans can be undertaken. It is, thus, necessary to define the meaning of the term assessment as it is used in this study. Bosshard (2000) presented an extensive discussion and definition of the term assessment. In his study, Bosshard discussed the term assessment in light of its application to sustainability considerations in rural planning. Much of this discussion, however, can be carried over and applied to planning outside of this particular case.

Bosshard (2000) defined asessment procedures as systematized value judgements that can be divided into two categories: implicit and explicit assessment procedures. An implicit assessments is a type of judgement that is typically a result of case-specific consultancies, where no framework or pre-defined standard is applied. On the other hand, an explicit assessment is comprised of a set of facts that are regarded as values which are explicitly indicated in the assessment procedures.

The framework constructed in this dissertation, like most other standard assessments, follows an explicit assessment procedure. Based on Bosshard's definition, an assessment procedure should include eight elements: the overall guidelines, the criteria for each of the components in the guidelines, goal definitions which state which characteristics are regarded as positive and negative, delimitations of what will be assessed, a definition of the different indicators employed, how they will be measured, and the standards that determine these indicators to be good or bad.

The framework that is presented in this thesis is not entirely as explicit in its elements as suggested by Bosshard. Bosshard's understanding of assessment stemmed from application to sustainability, where it may be more straightforward to determine favorable characteristics and outcomes than in the more multi-faceted area of tourism planning. In assessing tourism plans, there are many factors to account for, and often there is no one element considered desirable or not, although examination of different elements can shed light upon the plan as a whole. Thus, although the framework that is proposed in this dissertation is to a large extent explicit in its approach, it also contains elements of implicit assessment. The assessment procedure that is suggested in this thesis is comprised of factors and qualities that the plan should possess and that should be examined in order to determine if key topics have been incorporated into the tourism plans that are being examined.

2.2 Conventional Approaches to Planning Assessment

Two assessment methods that have often been used in tourism planning are impact assessments—especially environmental impact assessments, and cost-benefit analyses. However, these methods have seldom been used to evaluate national-level plans. They are tactical rather

than strategic evaluations. Nevertheless, it is necessary for national-level plans to consider environmental implications and costs and benefits in a more general way. Furthermore, it can be argued that these methods focus upon expected outcomes of aspects of a plan, rather than the contents of the plan itself. Each of these assessment methods results in a partial assessment undertaken from a particular perspective. In light of this, it is suggested that a broader, integrated approach to assessment may be appropriate. Such an approach will be defined and described later in this chapter. The following section briefly summarizes these assessment methods and some of their drawbacks.

2.2.1 Environmental Impact Assessment

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is a systematic process that is designed to protect the environment through prevention of negative consequences (Glasson, Therivel, & Chadwick, 2005). EIAs are commonly conducted prior to the alteration of the natural environment. Such modifications can occur through the construction of buildings, roads and other infrastructure. As such, according to the International Association for Impact Assessment (IAIA), an EIA is "the process of identifying, predicting, evaluating and mitigating the biophysical, social, and other relevant effects of development proposals prior to major decisions being taken and commitments made" (IAIA, 2009, p. 1).

EIAs should be systematic, reproducible and interdisciplinary. This means that there are some prerequisite conditions that must be in place in order to conduct proper EIAs. These include knowledge of regulations and governing acts and guidelines, knowledge of the project, and an interdisciplinary team (Sadar, 1994). Ultimately, the purposes of the EIA is to aid in decision making, to aid in the formulation of development actions, and to serve as an instrument for sustainable development (Glasson, Therivel, & Chadwick, 2005).

EIA is most frequently criticized for being overly systematic and scientific in its approach. Assessors should recognize that multiple parties may be involved and this requires attention to communication, coordination and collaboration, all of which are often overlooked in the conduct of EIAs. Additionally, EIAs are seen by some developers and some parts of government as an added bureaucratic task that may result in minor, cosmetic changes, or slow the pace of development (Glasson, Therivel, & Chadwick, 2005).

2.2.2 Cost-benefit Analysis

The cost-benefit analysis method is a tool to aid decision making that relies on testing alternative proposals and estimating the cost, in this case the value of employed resources, and benefits, or value of produced services. The idea is that the social welfare of the produced services should exceed the value of the resources used (Lichfield, 1964).

Although the costs can often be measured in monetary units, the benefits often cannot. For instance, benefits often take the form of social welfare, which can be the result of improved public health, leisure, and education services (Lichfield, 1964). The ease and practicality of the employment of cost-benefit analysis can differ significantly based on the situation at hand. However, generally, cost-benefit analyses should address the following elements (Lichfield, 1964, p. 163):

1. Define the projects, or programmes of projects, which are under consideration, and their alternatives.
2. Estimate the cost of the project, that is the value of the capital and operating resources required.
3. Define the benefits of the investment, and value the benefits by methods appropriate to their nature.
4. Distinguish in the benefits and costs between those which are real, that is resulting in gain or loss to the community as a whole, and the transfers, those which wil be cancelled out by corresponding gains or losses to other secitons of the community.
5. Relate real benefit to cost by an appropriate criterion, such as rate of return, which needs to be carefully selected according to the circumstances, to indicate the course which shows the best value for money.

Cost-benefit analysis is an attempt to convert all costs and benefits into a single currency that can be aggregated. This is true for measurable as well as immeasurable factors such as beliefs and values (Carmona & Sieh, 2008). Lichfield (1964) discussed five issues of cost-benefit analysis that impede its application in planning: the analysis should be made for multi-use projects that incorporate both private and public land use, and transportation and buildings; the analysis should be able to deal not only with independent projects, but also with systems, as

plans are composed of projects that are interdependent in time and space; the analysis should include social costs and benefits as well as the costs and benefits that accrue to the investing agency; intangible costs and benefits should be included regardless of their difficulty of measurement; and attention should be dedicated to the question of who bears the costs and benefits with efforts being made to protect public interests.

2.2.3 Integrated Approach to Planning Assessment

Although EIAs and cost-benefit analyses can be very useful, their drawbacks lead to calls for a different or, at least, an additional approach to assessment. Carmona and Sieh (2008) advocate the use of a holistic measurement approach to planning and, according to their definition, a holistic approach should incorporate a number of dimensions: it should be tailored to different scales and contexts, be applicable to different interest-group priorities, and planning should be viewed as a part of a broader policy. In order to achieve this, performance measurement requires a shared commitment on the part of the various stakeholders involved and data collection should reflect this.

There are a number of different approaches to tourism planning. Appendix A provides some examples of different planning processes. However, despite the abundance of work on tourism planning, little has been done to assess tourism plans, their effectiveness, and whether their goals and objectives have been achieved (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). In general, no objective standards have been proposed with which to assess tourism planning as plans differ based on the circumstances in which they are found. Nevertheless, there are plans that have severe shortcomings and these can be recognized (Reid, 2003). Although there should be some flexibility in the components of a tourism plan, there are certain components that a sound, functional plan should include (Inskeep, 1991; Hall, 2008; Reid, 2003; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003) and it should be possible to determine whether or not these elements are present or absent.

Some scholars have proposed holistic, or integrated approaches to plan evaluations (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984; Alexander & Faludi, 1989). Alterman *et al*. (1984) claimed that integrated evaluation, that includes four components, is valuable in the formation of long-term, strategic, decision making. The four components are monitoring, implementation analysis, economic evaluation, and goal achievement evaluation. Each of these components serves a complementary function. Monitoring indicates what the program has achieved and the extent to

which the plan is being adhered to. Implementation analysis describes the process of decision making and the follow-through of decisions, with a focus on political and administrative aspects of the process. Economic evaluation assesses the efficiency of resource allocation and distributional equity. Goal achievement evaluation, or evaluating program outcomes from a multi-group perspective, presents the outcomes of the plan from different stakeholders' perspectives (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984).

Similarly, Alexander and Faludi (1989) presented a framework for holistic planning assessment, or 'policy-plan-implementation evaluation'. This framework is an amalgamation of three evaluation approaches and is holisitic in the sense that it includes an assessment of different stages of the planning and investment process. According to this framework, the criteria used to assess planning are conformity, rationality, optimality *ex ante*, optimality *ex post*, and utilization. The conformity criterion measures the degree to which decisions and outcomes are consistent. The second criterion, rationality, measures the degree to which predetermined normative requirements are conformed to, and these are generally represented by three conditions: completeness of data and knowledge acquisition and use, consistency in the employed data and methods, and participation of relevant stakeholders. The third criterion, optimality *ex ante*, assesses the relationship between the means and ends to determine whether the prescribed strategy is optimal. The fourth criterion, optimality *ex post*, assesses if the courses of action outlined in the plan or policy were in fact optimal. And finally, the fifth and final criterion, utilization, determines if the policy or plan was in fact used when making operational decisions (Alexander & Faludi, 1989).

These assessment methods proposed by Alterman *et al.* (1984) and Alexander and Faludi (1989) both strive to include as many aspects of the planning process as possible in order to achieve as thorough an assessment as possible. They extend beyond the plan itself to incorporate the ways in which it was prepared as well as the appropriateness of the outcomes. Such procedures are arduous, expensive, and time consuming in their implementations. The difficulties of employing such assessment methods are discussed in more depth later on in this chapter but, first, the term 'integrated assessment' is defined to clarify the way it is used in this thesis.

2.3 Integrated Assessment

The following sub-sections address the term 'integrated assessment' as used in this thesis. First, the term is defined and then the difficulties and advantages of the concept are discussed.

2.3.1 Defining Integrated Assessment

In order to conduct an assessment, it is necessary to determine what will be included in the assessment, as well as what will be excluded from it. There are both advantages and drawbacks to both narrowly and broadly focused assessments. Narrowly focused assessments can be simpler to carry out, while more broad assessments have the advantage of incorporating a greater variety of different, yet relevant factors. As such, the designers of assessment frameworks should determine how broadly to focus the scope of their assessment to maximize the effectiveness of their evaluations (Eckley, 2001).

A broad assessment would attempt to incorporate a wider range of factors than a narrower perspective. These factors include factors that are external to the assessment but have an effect on the element undergoing assessment. A comprehensive approach is an approach that examines all forces that affect the issue under assessment. In many cases this is not possible, particularly when studying a subject as broad as tourism which can be affected by many factors. In such cases attempting to conduct a comprehensive assessment is unrealistic and bound to fail (Wall, 2007). An integrated approach is therefore a more realistic and pragmatic approach which examines aspects that are considered to be of importance to the topic under assessment (Wall, 2007).

The term 'integrated assessment' is arguably an approach that embodies two forces (Rotman and van Asselt, 1996). The first is the aspect of integration, which involves combining different parts to form a whole. In this sense, an integrated approach combines different factors so that "the whole is greater than the sum of the parts" (Wall, 2007, p.194). The second is the aspect of assessment, which involves analysis, estimation, and valuation of the object of assessment, which in this case is the national tourism plan. This is in line with the view of integrated assessment that is employed in this study.

There is a substantial literature that addresses 'integrated assessment' and provides a variety of definitions of the term. Examples include Weyant et al. (1996), Rotmans and

Dwolatabadi (1998), Parson (1996), Ravetz (1997) and Jaeger et al., (1997). The definition that most closely reflects that used in this thesis is that of Rotmans (1998), who defines integrated assessment as "a structured process of dealing with complex issues, using knowledge from various scientific disciplines and/or stakeholders, such that integrated insights are made available to decision-makers" (p.155). These various disciplines differ according to the context in which the integrated assessment is applied. This thesis draws from three main bodies of literature: planning, development, and tourism. The reason for the distinction between scientific disciplines and/or stakeholders in this definition is because Rotmans argued that there are two different approaches to integrated assessment: analytical and participatory. The analytical methods "provide analytical frameworks for representing and structuring scientific knowledge in an integrated manner", while the participatory methods "aim to involve non-scientists as stakeholders in the process, where the assessment effort is driven by stakeholder-scientist interactions" (p. 156). In this thesis, the aspect of stakeholder involvement in the assessment process is not directly pertinent, as the framework is designed to be implemented by a single, third-party researcher and is based directly on the text of the tourism planning document. Additionally, while the literature is strongly supportive of involving stakeholders, the reality is that this does not always occur, particularly in developing countries. Ideally plans should involve stakeholders in their preparation; however this relates more closely to the process through which the plan is prepared while the focus of this thesis is on the product, or the final plan as embodied in the planning document. Thus, the definition of integrated assessment employed by this study takes the analytical stance and the definition that is employed is a slight modification of that proposed by Rotmans. It involves omitting the mention of stakeholders, resulting in the following definition: "a structured process of dealing with complex issues, using knowledge from various scientific disciplines".

In this thesis, the complex issue of assessing a tourism plan is examined from a structured perspective by breaking the plan down into four elements found to be of utmost importance in the assessment of a tourism plan. These are: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. The emphasis that is placed on these four items will be justified in Chapter 3. Each of these elements is further broken down into sub-elements and, based on these, a framework is constructed which, when applied to a national-level tourism plan, should provide insight into its strengths and weaknesses.

31

2.3.2 Difficulties of Integrated Evaluation

There are many difficulties in undertaking an integrated evaluation. Carmona and Sieh (2008, p.452) outlined ten conceptual difficulties of undertaking this approach in planning evaluation:

1. The complexity of planning objectives: although planning objectives are often defined at the national level, planning may be executed at the local level, and should thus be constructed for delivery at the local level, which will differ between locations.

2. The blind pursuit of rationality: efforts must be made to avoid assuming an overly-reductionist approach. Using different measurement tools and approaches to data collection are ways to achieve this.

3. A product and service-based discipline: Although they are often closely related, service and product dimensions of perfomance should be evaluated separately without priority being accorded to one over the other.

4. Reconciling measurement approaches: Different measurement approaches must be reconciled into a common language for the purpose of combining various approaches and reporting across authorities.

5. The multiplicity of stakeholders and roles: The mulitplicity of stakeholders and their roles should be dealt with by involving them in the evaluation process and determining targets.

6. The attributability gap: It can be difficult to measure every influence and attribute credit for some performance aspects to a particular facility. Sustainability is an example of a concept that is difficult to measure.

7. What would have happened anyway?: It is difficult to track the influence of planning and, thus, the argument can be made that planning had no influence on the outcomes.

8. The wider influence of planning: Planning has a wide influence and its outcomes are often indirect.

9. The issue of time: Long and short-term issues are often not discrete in a plan, yet it is important to measure planning effects over the long as well as short term.

10. Clarifying the reason to measure: The data can be presented in different ways depending on the purpose for which they are obtained.

These difficulties can be grouped into broader categories to facilitate understanding and avoid redundance. Based on this list and the one proposed by Alterman *et al.* (1984), the major pitfalls of integrated evaluation can be summarized as: high costs, breadth of data required, multiplicity of stakeholders, and trade-offs between methods of evaluation. The subsequent paragraphs discuss these factors.

One of the most prominent difficulties of conducting integrated evaluation is the high cost associated with it. First of all, it is often difficult to trace the budget due to the multiplicity of costs and outputs. This makes cost-effectiveness analysis very difficult, as it relies on monitoring costs and outputs and measurement of outcomes (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984, p. 386). Integrated evaluation requires trained personnel that have access to substantial financial resources. Further, it usually requires at least two or three years for the evaluation to be completed, which can prove to be quite costly (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984) and even lead to a redundancy of findings.

Another area of difficulty is data, which also relates to high costs. In order to conduct integrated evaluation, a large amount of data are needed and, for this, it is often necessary to have access to inside information, which usually requires the cooperation of authorities. Even with the cooperation of authorities, it may be the case that the required information is unavailable for all of the affected groups. And once these data have been obtained, the researcher is then faced with the challenge of assembling and analysing the data and, perhaps, disseminating the results, for which the costs may be considerable.

Another problematic area in conducting integrated evaluation relates to the multiplicity of stakeholders. Firstly, the number of groups affected by the plan undergoing evaluation may be very large and identifying all of them can be difficult. Assuming that these groups have been identified, it can be difficult to identify their goals and priorities, and it is likely that the spokespeople for each group do not fully represent the views of all in their group. This can be particularly problematic when assessing the effects of programs on various parties. Ultimately, it is important to remember that each individual informant has their own interests and are, therefore, not objective in their represenatation (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984). Additionally, different groups of stakeholders value the various aspects of the evaluation differently. Thus,

defining performance quality should be based on the values and demands of a wide range of stakeholders (Carmona & Sieh, 2008).

When conducting integrated evaluations, researchers may find themselves faced with trade-offs. The most prominent trade-off is between in-depth versus in-breadth evaluative research. Another trade-off relates to the methods employed. Methods that are more scientific, such as quasi-experimental methods, have proven inadequate in plan evaluation. On the contrary however, softer analytical methods can raise doubts about the identification of cause and effect (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984). Furthermore, interpretation of performance data is often done in an overly simplistic manner (Hambleton & Thomas, 1995). It is convenient to aggregate many outcomes into a single index, but this risks oversimplification of data interpretation (Carmona & Sieh, 2008). Having criteria that plans should meet does not necessarily lead to quality plans. A plan that is deemed high-quality based on a set of evaluative criteria may be difficult to implement or have limited effect in practice (Baer, 1997). Furthermore, criteria and principles of planning may prove to be problematic. This can be the case because it can be argued that different aspects relate to various criteria when, in fact, they may only represent the narrow goals of specific interest groups. Furthermore, vagueness, ambiguitiy and inconsistency in a plan may be necessary for the plan's political survival. Another pitfall of integrated evaluation is that it rarely arrives at a conclusion that is definitive in the sense that it states whether the evaluated plan was successful or not (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984).

All of the above-mentioned difficulties of conducting integrated assessments are important and make the assessment process an arduous task. An added difficulty that is particularly prominent in the developing country context is that researchers may find it very difficult, if not impossible, to gain access to the information and informants needed in order to conduct the assessment. This issue can be aggravated depending on the status, sex, age, and background of the researcher. These difficulties suggest the need for a framework for assessing plans that is straight-forward in its application. This will be discussed further in subsequent sections; however, first it is important to highlight the many advantages to undertaking integrated evaluations.

2.3.3 Advantages of Integrated Evaluation

One of the most important advantages of integrated evaluation is that it does not assume that plans should have a single static set of goals and objectives, and that evaluation should be limited to the implementation of these. On the contrary, it addresses the benefits of the program regardless of whether or not they were intended and outlined in the plan. The criteria for measuring success are not limited to those initially intended by decision makers. For instance, relevant groups may be identified that were affected even if they were not represented in the evaluation process. Similarly, the aims of both the suppliers and producers as well as consumers can be incorporated; and the goals of national as well as local decision makers can be included. In a similar vein, integrated evaluation should account not only for the extent of benefits of the program, but also for the distributional effects. It should detail the groups that bear the costs as well as those who receive benefits (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984).

Although integrated evaluations rarely result in clear-cut assessments that deem plans to be successful or not, they arrive at conclusions that are of great value. One of the valuable contributions of integrated evaluations is that they expose the implementation process by attempting to trace connections between inputs and outcomes. This broadens the understanding of reasons for successes and failures, and improves the opportunity for learning from them. Measurement criteria can then be created that are holistic in the sense that numerous stakeholders and benefits are accounted for, even if they were not mentioned in the initial plan This reduces the likelihood that evaluations overlook the effects of plans on certain groups. Furthermore, some of the results can contribute to the creation of an "early warning system" to monitor the results of future plans without having to wait until the results of the evaluation are complete (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984).

2.3.4 Conclusion

In the year 2000, the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) published a study entitled *The Study on Tourism Development Projects in the Arab Republic of Egypt.* It is a comprehensive assessment of the Egyptian tourism environment. This study took two years to complete, and a team of 41 specialists and consultants. This study resulted in many valuable insights in ways to improve the performance of the Egyptian tourism sector as a whole, and regional tourism development plans for selected priority areas. However, by the time the results

of the assessment were published, many of the findings were no longer relevant due to changes in the environment, and new developments in the sector had taken place that were not accounted for. Additionally, this study was conducted by a foreign donor, who was willing to spend the money and time on this project. However, it is unlikely that such an assessment will occur at regular intervals, rendering it a one-time occurance, which is not likely to improve Egyptian tourism planning and performance in the long run. Thus, a more practical, cost-efficient method of assessing tourism performance is required that can be carried out without the assistance of foreign donors. The framework for assessing national-level tourism planning proposed in this thesis addresses these concerns.

This section has investigated some of the difficulties and advantages associated with employing an integrated approach to planning assessments. Although there are many difficulties associated with integrated approaches to planning assessments such as high costs, breadth of data required, multiplicity of stakeholders involved, and the trade-offs between different alternative methods of evaluation, they nevertheless provide a wealth of valuable information that transcend any set agenda, or the views of any one particular stakeholder group, thus contributing to improving our understanding of planning and plans, and facilitating the creation of an early warning system to circumvent the reoccurrence of the same complications in the future, thus improving the functionality of the plan and the planning process.

The framework that will be proposed will take advantage of the benefits of integrated assessments, while reducing the difficulties. Integration recognizes that multiple factors are involved and interact and that the total is greater than the sum of the parts. Not all of the advantages and difficulties are of equal importance in the context of the thesis. For example, the focus here is on the plan as a document and its contents rather than the process that created it or the extent to which it is implemented and the associated outcomes. Of course, the plan and the planning process through which it is created and implemented are not independent and they will vary with context including resources, time constraints, the use of consultants, institutional culture, etc. Thus, not all of the advantages and disadvantages discussed above in the general discussion of integrated assessment are equally valid in the context of this thesis. The focus, here then, is on what should be included in the plan, rather than on process. The differences between assessing plans and planning process are discussed in more detail in a subsequent section.

Additionally, it is worth mentioning that although the resources available to a single person undertaking an evaluation of the plan limit what can be done, there is the advantage that this requires a clear focus on the most important aspects, which is the aim and focus of the integrated approach. Finally, an integrated approach is not the same as a comprehensive approach and thus does not require that all elements and factors are considered in the assessment.

The difficulties and advantages associated with integrated assessments lead to the conclusion that it may be worthwhile to create a simplified means of undertaking integrated assessments. As such, an integrated assessment method based on a set of factors that are crucial to the success of a tourism plan, as determined by an assessment of relevant literature, will be created. These factors are draw from different disciplines, depending on the aspect of the plan that is under scrutiny. The presence of the factors in the plan can be checked by reading the plan carefully. For example, much is revealed in the goals and objectives established for and reported in the plan and the approach to planning that has been employed can be determined from the contents of the plan. The application of such a framework will not provide as rich results as a more comprehensive assessment; however, when considering ease of application, it may provide useful insights into tourism planning. The framework that will be developed will focus solely on national-level planning, and will only consider the document that is the tourism plan. Nevertheless, much can be learned from this, as will be discussed in greater depth later on in this chapter.

2.4 Different Aspects of Plan Assessments

In order to create a truly functional method of assessment, first the literature on assessment methods should be examined. There are many methods of evaluation and assessment, and although they have been compared against each other (Alterman, Carmon, & Hill, 1984; Alexander & Faludi, 1989), they have not been organized in a way that can help planners to select a practical method for assessment or to understand the strengths and weaknesses of different assessment methods. This section seeks to achieve an understanding of the breadth of possibilities in making assessments by examining some of the criteria which differ among approaches.

2.4.1 Timing of Evaluation

Evaluation of plans can be categorized according to their timing, *a priori*, in progress, and *ex post facto*. *A priori* evaluation estimates the future impacts of a plan prior to its instigation, and serves to guide the selection of the best options for the plan. Evaluation in progress is conducted simultaneously with the plan's implementation and serves to monitor implementation and goal conformance. *Ex post facto* evaluation measures the impacts of the plan and, thus, follows the implementation of a plan. The findings of an *ex post* evaluation can provide lessons for future similar undertakings (Alexander, 2006). However, a long period of time may be required to have elapsed before the implications can be fully understood.

2.4.2 Flow of Stages

The flow of stages for an evaluation can be top-down, bottom-up, or any combination of the two (Alexander & Faludi, 1989; Elmore, 1979-1980). The top-down approach commences with a definition of the intent of policymakers and proceeds sequentially to define what is expected of implementors at each lower level. On the other hand, the bottom-up approach does not assume that implementors carry out their tasks and proceeds to question how well specific policies result in desired outcomes. Hence, assuming a top-down or bottom-up approach to evaluation yields different approaches and results. Although both recognize the ability of policymakers to influence the implementation process, top-down methods emphasize factors that can be controlled by policy makers, while bottom-up methods may result in inclusion of factors that policy makers can only indirectly influence (Elmore, 1979-1980).

Alexander (1985) demonstrated how analysis can take an arbitrarily sequential form through the Policy-Program-Implementation Process (PPIP). This process begins with a stimulus which indicates the issue at hand, followed by the policy stage where policy makers provide policy implementers with a specific set of instructions with which to address the identified issue. This is then followed by the program stage, which specifically identifies issues in implementing the plan such as resources, contexts and locations, courses of action and beneficiaries. The final stage is then the implementation, which delivers programs to their intended beneficiaries (Alexander, 1985).

2.4.3 Stage at which Evaluation Occurs

When evaluating a plan, it is important to define the stage of the plan that will undergo evaluation. Baer (1997) outlines an evaluation rubric which contains five sequential stages to plan evaluation: plan assessment, plan testing and evaluation, plan critique, comparative research and professional evaluations, and *post hoc* evaluation of plan outcomes (Figure 2.2). According to these steps, it is important to distinguish who is carrying out the evaluation, when - or at what stage - the evaluation will take place in relation to the plan, and what is being evaluated in order to distingish the stage of evaluation. This can be either (Baer, 1997, p. 330):

1) The substance of plan alternatives; and/or
2) The plan as a package—including the document that communicates:
   i. Goals and objectives.
   ii. Needs or problems.
   iii. Assumptions and method of reasoning.
   iv. Specific proposals.
   v. Perhaps implementation devices (ordinances, budgets, etc.), and/or
   vi. The outcome following plan implementation.

Figure 2.2 Evaluation stages in the planning process
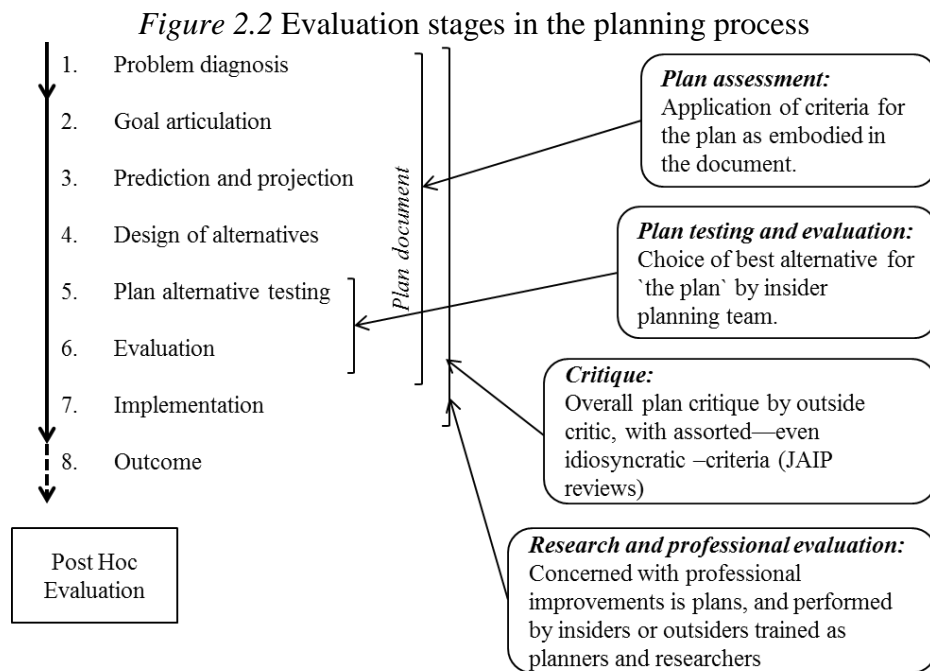
Source: Baer (1997, p.331)

2.4.4 Assessment Methodology

Discussion of the research methodologies employed in evaluation research has been dominated by the influence of data collection methods and techniques of the social sciences. These methods are increasingly proving to be inadequate in the evaluation research context (Madsen, 1983). Environmental and cultural issues, which are central to evaluation, cannot be approached from a purely quantitative standpoint. Wide strategic decisions are involved that involve conflicts of values and judgements, which raise a range of opinions, both scientific and experimental. Impact assessments have proven inadequate in resolving many conflicts, giving rise to the realization that resolving such issues is often outside the capacity of governments (Khakee, 1998).

Traditionally, planners and policy analysts have found comfort in adhering to the "hypothesis testing mindset" characteristic of research in positivist social sciences (Madsen, 1983). However, in order to improve the practical value of assessment research, alternative methods of assessment should be employed and issues such as lack of data, or problematic data, should be addressed and dealt with (Madsen, 1983). Furthermore, purely quantitative techniques pose a particular challenge to evaluation of environmental and cultural problems which require wide strategic decisions, and involve conflicting values and judgements that may not lend themselves readily to quantitive assessement (Vogel, 1986; Khakee, 1998).

For instance, largely as a consequence of the decentralization and diminishing of public sector programs, new research paradigms are gaining popularity and becoming standards for research methodology in assessment. Namely, probabilistic, exploratory and qualitative research are gaining acceptance and respect. Consequently, methods for evaluating these in light of the assessment literature are gaining in importance (Madsen, 1983): comparative case study approaches; problematic risk assessment; small sample and cluster analysis; constrained optimization modeling; and organizational analysis have entered the assessment field (Madsen, 1983, p. 118). Also, new paradigms, such as phenomenological and ethnomethodological ways of thinking, are gaining respect and attention.

2.4.5 Method for Determining Success and Failure

A fundamental issue centres around determining how to evaluate, i.e., how to distinguish between good and bad, or success and failure (Alexander & Faludi, 1989). Plan evaluation can

40

be conducted based on one of two bases: either what the plan is, or what the plan is not (Alexander, 2006). Learning from experience, as suggested by *ex post facto* evaluation, cannot be achieved without systematic evaluation, generalisation, and new theories that result from accumulated knowledge (Alexander & Faludi, 1989), but the method used to determining success and failure can have a substantial influence on the results of the evaluation and, thus, opportunities for learning and improvement.

2.4.6 Conclusion

Based on this discussion, assessments can vary depending upon the timing of evaluation, the flow of stages of evaluation, the stage of the plan at which evaluation occurs, the methodologies employed in conducting the evaluation, and the method by which success and failure are determined.

The framework proposed in this thesis, which is later applied to assess the Egyptian national tourism takes the following stance with regards to each of these items:

- Timing: A priori as it takes place while the plan is in progress rather than waiting until the end of the plan to assess its impacts as with ex post facto evaluations.
- Flow of stages: The assessment only accounts for the plan without its implementation or process, and thus assumes neither a top-down nor bottom-up approach.
- Stage at which evaluation occurs: The assessment is of the plan as embodied by the document.
- Assessment methodology: This thesis adopts a mixed-methods approach as it contains elements of both qualitative as well as quantitative methods. A case study of Egypt is then applied. A deeper discussion and explanation of methodology is the focus of Chapter 3.
- Method for determining success and failure: This study recognizes that different plans will have different characteristics depending on the intended use or the specific case, however there are general characteristics and considerations that all tourism plans should share, and it is these that are the focus of the framework proposed in this thesis.

2.5 Planning and Scale

Planning takes place at different scales. At its broadest level, planning occurs on a global scale largely through international institutions such as the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Wheeler, 2004). Next, planning occurs at the national level, usually by national governments. The power that federal government has in planning differs between countries. For instance, in Canada and the United States, national governments have relatively little power in directly regulating physical planning, but different provinces and states are obliged to adhere to federal laws and regulations such as those relating to transportation, housing, taxation and environmental protection. In contrast, in other countries such as France, Sweden and Japan, national governments are directly involved in physical planning and development policies (Wheeler, 2004).

The next level of planning is by state or province in countries such as Canada and the United States, which are large enough to contain this level of planning. At the provincial or state level, planning can involve land use decisions and infrastructure allocations (Wheeler, 2004). In smaller countries, the next level of planning is typically regional planning, which focuses on issues that are not tied to a particular city or county, such as issues of water and air pollution, affordable housing, transportation and equity. At a smaller planning level is the most detailed level of urban planning and it may include detailed functional plans. This is at the level of local government, and includes cities, towns and counties. Many non-governmental organizations contribute to planning at this level, such non-profit organizations, consultants, and business groups (Wheeler, 2004). The smallest commonly regarded scale of planning is typically neighborhood or site plans. These plans often focus on community facilities, parks, streets and other public places (Wheeler, 2004). The goals and policies of each of the different levels should, in theory, serve planning at the subsequent smaller scales. In reality, this may not be the case, but efforts should be made to link and integrate the different planning scales in order to unify efforts of development into a common trajectory.

When examining planning scales for the planning of tourism, scales are commonly divided into three categories: site scale, destination scale, and regional scale (Gunn, 1994), although in many cases the region may in fact be the nation. Site scale focuses on the development of individual properties such as parks, golf courses, and accommodation

establishments. Planning at this scale can involve many different participants; including governments, NGOs and businesses, and can involve a wide variety of activities. The destination scale focuses on planning a destination zone, which is typically comprised of a collection of tourism attractions and related establishments and infrastructure. At this scale, planning usually focuses on transportation, public utilities and other supporting tourism facilities. The third scale of tourism planning discussed here is the regional scale. This can involve states, provinces and nations, depending on the context of planning. This is the most comprehensive planning scale as it involves a diverse array of resource areas, political jurisdictions, and longer time periods (Gunn, 1994). This thesis focuses on tourism plans at the national-level, although many of the points that are made are relevant to multiple scales. At this scale, there are commonly a wide range of institutions that contribute to the planning process and there are a large number of factors to be considered in assessing plans at this level. These factors are discussed in Chapter 3.

2.6 Assessing Plans versus Assessing Planning

Although the discussion in this chapter thus far has been about planning assessment, the focus of this study is on the assessment of plans rather than planning. Plans are a product of planning. The evaluation of plans is an important yet understudied area of research (Alexander, 2002).

Plans represent "the major printed currency of the planning profession" (Ryan, 2011, p. 309). They are also "planners' most important product" (Alexander, 2002, p. 191). However, although plans are read frequently, they are often regarded as something that is too obvious or unimportant to be directly examined and discussed, which is unfortunate because plans communicate a rich amount of information beyond the plan itself and the recommendations that it suggests (Mandelbaum, 1990). The insufficient examination of plans as stand-alone documents may be attributed to the differing academic views about the purpose that plans are intended to serve (Berke & Godschalk, 2009).

When the importance of plan evaluation is criticized, it is often in light of the importance of implementation, with the argument that evaluating the implementation process takes precedence over the evaluation of a plan. Talen (1996) suggested that the value of the plan lies in

its implementation. Accordingly, evaluating a plan can be viewed merely as being a step that should be done to serve the plan's implementation. Hoch (2000) assumed a parallel perspective where the plan is viewed as a promise that must be honoured by its implementation.

It is naïve to assume that the only rationale for developing a plan is for its eventual implementation. Plans are often developed for other purposes, such as acquiring funds, drawing attention to an area, or promoting a particular idea for future development. Plans, thus, have the ability to influence policies and may be powerful documents even without their implementation (Cullingworth & Craves, 2009).

Ryan (2011) countered the view held by Talen (1996) and Hoch (2000) by arguing that their perspective discredits the value of examining plans that are no longer suitable for implementation. He argued that plan quality may be only lightly connected to plan implementation, just as plan content may be only lightly connected to plan quality. He contended that the value of interpreting a plan extends beyond its implementation and that many valuable lessons can be learned as plans are a reflection of a broad scheme of factors such as the social, economic and political influences of their setting. Evaluating a plan based on a set of standards of good practice serves the learning process for making future plans (Berke & Godschalk, 2009). Additionally, plans should be read not only for their proposals but also as a reflection of the ideas that they embody, the social and political values they reflect, and where they stand in the evolution of planning ideologies (Ryan, 2011).

The view adopted in this study is in line with that of Ryan (2011) and Berke and Godschalk (2009). Plans are seen as documents that serve purposes that may or may not be associated with implementation, and their ability to reflect and influence policy is independent of direct implementation.

2.7 Tourism Planning in Developed vs. Developing Countries

Tourism differs between destinations but these differences can be broadly generalized into differences between the evolution of tourism in developed and developing countries. Getz (2001) raised the issue of tourism planning within the context of the surrounding governing and

planning styles, and found that the evolution of tourism planning in industrialized, developed countries has taken place more rapidly than in developing nations. Many developing nations still conduct tourism development and marketing through powerful government agencies (Getz, 2001). For instance, Mexico's resort sector is planned through the national tourism development agency, FONITUR, which is partially funded by a national tourism bank (Getz, 2001).

International agencies such as the World Bank (WB) and World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) have played a significant role in tourism development in developing nations through the provision of planning assistance and project funding (Getz, 2001). The UNWTO has been a strong advocate for tourism planning since the 1970s through publications and by sponsoring tourism planning studies for developing countries in cooperation with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (Inskeep, 1991). Some scholars have argued that such intrusion is a form of neo-colonialism (Bruner, 1989; Matthews, 1977; Van Den Abbeele, 1980). Excessive foreign ownership, promotion of mass tourism, and developed country power over developing country tourism can make the resulting tourism economically, socially and environmentally unsustainable (Mowforth & Munt, 2003). The pervasiveness of such policies on tourism in developing countries is arguably profound to the extent that "now all formerly socialist nations play the tourism development game the same way, which means dependence on foreign investment and mass tourism" (Getz, 2001, p. 267). This view is reflective of dependency theory.

Government and private sector levels of control of tourism planning influence the priorities of development. The goals of tourism development differ from micro to macro levels. Individual businesses are usually concerned with the bottom line - profit generation. At a national scale, however, tourism is also promoted and facilitated for broader economic purposes. Developing countries, especially, have used tourism to improve the balances of payments, increase income levels, generate employment, promote economic diversification and reduce regional imbalances (Theuns, 2002), reflecting and leading to a "competitive frenzy for economic performance, fuelled in large part by government's need to show job creation" (Getz, 2001, p. 266). This is achieved through business creation, especially in accommodation and food and beverage sectors, and transportation. These emphases are reflected in the national tourism

indicators that are employed, such as revenues, hotel capacity, number of tourist nights, tourist spending, employment generated from tourism and number of tourism businesses (Appendix B).

Wall and Mathieson (2006) mentioned the differences in status of tourism planning between developing and developed countries. Based on their findings, developed countries emphasize master planning at national and state / provincial levels, often undertaken by external consultants, while developed countries tend to focus on smaller sites, with tourism-related planning incorporated into other broader planning exercises. Further, governments in developing countries exercise greater direct influence over investment in tourism and often exercise greater control over who can invest, which is characteristic of the endogenous growth theory. Meanwhile, developed country governments tend to share this responsibility in a more integrated manner with the private sector, which is representative of the neo-classical approach to development.

2.8 Conclusion

Based on the concepts and approaches identified and discussed above, four major factors can be identified that should be examined in assessing tourism planning. Further justification for emphasizing these four factors will be provided in the discussion of research methods that follows. By assessing these four elements and considering the relationships between them, an integrated assessment of tourism planning can be achieved. These elements are:

- Goals and objectives
- Institutional elements
- Approach to tourism planning
- Marketing

These factors provide the backbone for the framework for assessing tourism plans in this thesis. Although these factors are interrelated, each factor is examined independently, and together they form a holistic representation of national-level tourism planning. However, it may also be helpful to consider the relationships between the four factors.

The following chapter discusses the methods employed in this study. It explains how the framework was constructed, and how it was applied to the national-level Egyptian tourism plan.

This is then followed by Part II, which covers the details of each of the above-listed four elements that are included in the assessment framework.

Chapter 3: Methods

This chapter discusses the purpose, aims and objectives of this study, in addition to the methodological approach employed. A research purpose was identified in Chapter 1. The research purpose is extended in this chapter through a discussion of the aims and objectives of this study. This is followed by an explanation of the research methods that were employed, research design, and the research approach. It also describes the stages and procedures that were undertaken in the development of the framework, and how it was applied to the Egyptian tourism plan.

3.1 Purpose, Aims and Objectives of Study

3.1.1 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to create a framework to assess national-level tourism plans through an analysis of tourism planning documents. This framework is then used to assess the Egyptian national-level tourism plan.

3.1.2 Aims of Study

There are two central aims for this research:

1. Develop a framework to assess national-level tourism plans.
2. Apply the framework that is developed to assess the Egyptian national tourism plan, the National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP).

Accordingly, the following objectives have been determined in order to achieve the purpose and aims.

3.1.3 Objectives of Study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1. Review tourism planning, and planning evaluation literatures to identify needs and issues.
2. Identify issues that should be addressed when assessing tourism plans and the characteristics that should be present in such plans.
3. Identify the sub-elements in each of the above (issues and characteristics) that should be assessed in evaluating tourism plans.

4. Obtain the Egyptian national-level tourism plan (NSTSP).

5. Assess the NSTSP based on the criteria as determined in Objectives 2 and 3.

6. Make suggestions to improve tourism planning in Egypt based on the assessment of the NSTSP.

This research provides greater understanding of how to assess tourism plans through undertaking a tourism assessment project. Key elements are identified that can be examined in tourism planning documents. Using the framework that is derived as a template for assessment, Egyptian tourism documents are then examined.

3.2 Research Methods

There are three basic approaches to research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Each of these approaches has different knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, and associated methods (Creswell, 2003). Although in the past, research was often viewed as being strictly either qualitative or quantitative, it is becoming increasingly viewed as a spectrum, where a research project may contain elements of both qualitative and quantitative inquiry but can tend towards one design more than the other (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative research is associated with certain field methods such as interviews, focus groups and observation, while quantitative research relies on surveys and experiments. Mixed methods are more flexible, and contain elements of both qualitative and quantitative research. The inclusion of aspects from both methods facilitates the neutralization of biases that are associated with strict adherence to any one method (Jick, 1979).

On the spectrum of research approaches, the approach employed in this study tends towards a qualitative approach; however it contains elements of quantitative research by acknowledging different numerical and statistical indicators, and thus adopts a mixed methods approach.

3.3 Research Design

The stance, or world view, plays an important role in mixed methods research. In order to understand the stance that a researcher takes, alternative world views should be acknowledged. There are three stances that are commonly discussed in the mixed methods literature (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 26):

1. There is one "best" paradigm or world view that fits mixed methods research.
2. Researchers can use multiple paradigms or world views in their mixed methods study.
3. World views relate to the type of mixed methods design and may vary depending on the type of design.

The stance taken in this study is most closely aligned with the second one, which states that different paradigms can be used in a single study in mixed methods research, and that the tensions and, possibly, contradictions between paradigms should be honoured as they cannot be reconciled.

Table 3.1 Four Worldviews Used in Research

Positivism	Constructivism	Advocacy and Participatory Research	Pragmatism
• Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Theory verification	• Understanding • Multiple participant meanings • Social and historical construction • Theory regeneration	• Political • Empowerment and issue oriented • Collaborative • Change oriented	• Consequences of actions • Problem centered • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented

Source: Creswell (2003)

There are four world views that can be taken in research: positivism, constructivism, advocacy and participatory research, and pragmatism. The main ideas of each of these views are summarized in Table 3.1. Positivism is generally associated with quantitative approaches. Knowledge claims are based on determinism, reductionism, observation, and testing of theories. Constructivism, which is most frequently associated with qualitative approaches, interprets the meanings of phenomena through participants' 'eyes'.

Advocacy and participatory views are also mostly associated with qualitative approaches. They are influenced by political concerns and the need to improve society and attend to

marginalized groups. Pragmatism is associated with the research question at hand. It is centred on the problem, which is the main dictator of the course of action (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). This research is most closely aligned with a pragmatic perspective. It focuses on the problem at hand rather than constraining the research to the scope of any one epistemology, axiology, methodology, or rhetoric that is associated with the other three world views.

3.4 Research Approach

Generally, research is viewed as either inductive or deductive. The iterative approach contains elements of induction and deduction. It is built on the principles that a cyclical research process is necessary for forming new theory as it provides the opportunity for change in the research question and acknowledges that new research strategies are based on changes in the research question, often leading to a combination of different research strategies in a single study (van Drongelen, 2001). This approach is non-linear and comes with a number of challenges, including the need for improvisation that comes with the uncertain nature of the iterative process, the need for managing multiple themes that may arise, and the juxtaposition of process, theory and data analysis can result in complexities that are not associated with inductive and deductive research (Orton, 1997).

An iterative approach was used in this study. Thus, it was not possible to design a rigid research plan at the onset of the research process. A 'timid' research plan was designed at the inception of the project, based on a combination of literature review and field investigation; particularly to acquire plans and related documents. However, at the early stages of the research project, it was difficult to determine the best course of action and to anticipate all of the issues that would arise. Consequently, changes to the original plan were expected in order for the best course of action to be taken.

3.5 Research Process

The research plan underwent modifications from the original plan. This was anticipated and is characteristic of the iterative research approach. For example, planning documents are not

always easy to locate and access and it was expected that contacts would need to be established both to access plans and to acquire feedback on their contents. Modifications to the original plan are discussed in the subsequent section. The final research process which was employed is shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Research Process

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         1. Identification of research problem               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│             2. Review of the literature                     │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  3. Construction of model for assessment of tourism planning documents  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│             4. Exploratory field visit to Egypt             │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        5. Application of model to Egyptian tourism planning  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        6. Draw conclusions about Egyptian tourism planning   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  7. Validate findings                       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
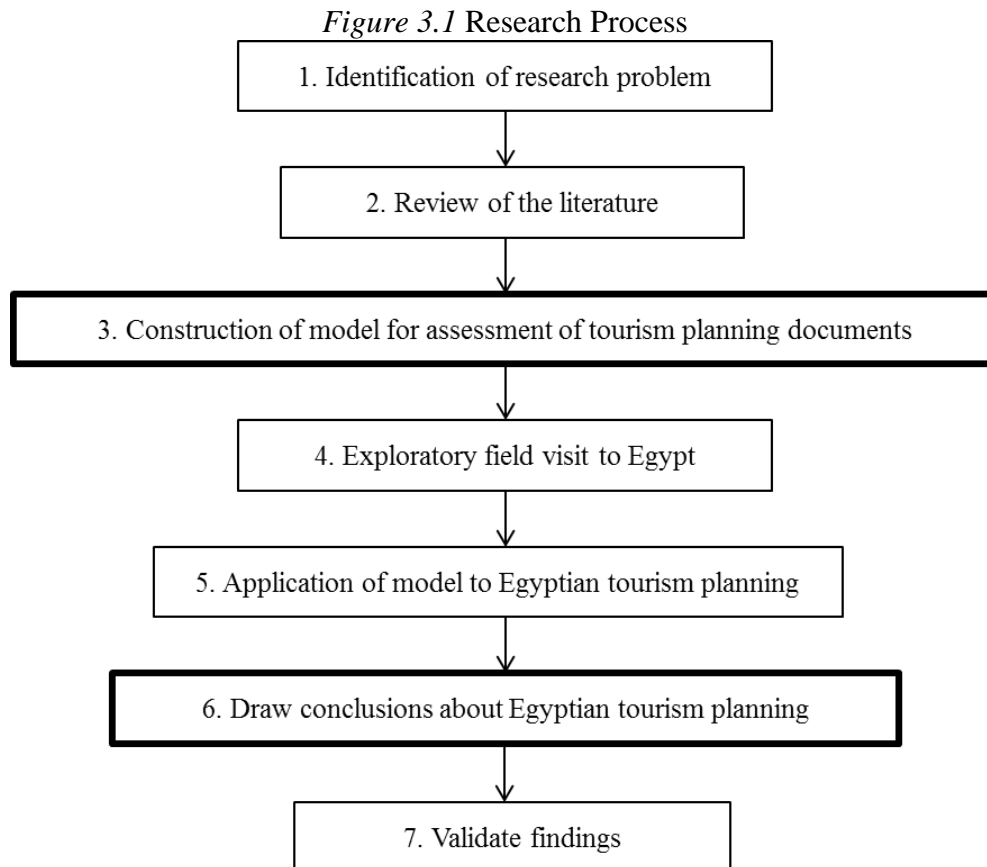
3.5.1 Framework Construction

First, the research problem was identified. In order to identify a relevant research problem, literature on planning assessment and tourism planning was reviewed. The literature review revealed that although there is a vast literature on tourism planning, there is limited work that assesses tourism plans (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Additionally, the literature on planning suggests that the examination of plans independently of the planning process has the potential to contribute much to learning about and improving planning (Mandelbaum, 1990; Alexander, 2002; Ryan, 2011).

52

Following this, the literature on plans and planning, both in general and in the context of tourism, was extensively reviewed with particular attention being given to identification of topics that should be present in tourism plans. Different sources present different aspects that should be present and accounted for in tourism plans. These literatures were compiled and organized. They were organized into four subjects, which form the skeleton of the framework. The subjects are goals and objectives, approaches to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. Where deemed necessary, other literatures more specific to each subject were sought and drawn from, resulting in the creation of secondary topics that are subsumed under the four main headings. Each sub-topic encompasses a crucial aspect of the national-level tourism plan. They are described in the following paragraphs.

The goals and objectives dictate the direction of the plan, and ultimately every aspect of the plan should contribute to their achievement. It is difficult to imagine a plan without goals and objectives but they may not always be expressed clearly or in ways that are amenable to assessment of their achievement. It is, thus, necessary to assess their presence, the detail in which they are presented, the consistency with which they are adhered to throughout the plan, and the priorities they represent.

The planning literature contains extensive discussions of different approaches to planning. However, the approach to planning that has been adopted is rarely stated explicitly in a plan but, by reading the plan, it is usually possible to infer the approach to planning that has been employed. The second section is thus entitled approach to tourism planning and it is concerned with identification of the ideologies that the plan represents. This includes identification of the theoretical positions, and other approaches that are not necessarily stated explicitly in the plan, but are relayed through the language, tone, priorities, and style of the plan. When reviewing and organizing the literature on approaches to tourism planning, it was found that some approaches can coexist in a single plan, while others tend to be contradictory and, thus, are mutually exclusive. The method of organizing the different approaches in the framework was thus literature review guided by the approaches to tourism planning that are specified in the planning literature.

The third element in the framework covers institutional elements. Institutional elements are important in planning, especially in planning tourism. Tourism is a multidisciplinary field

53

and, thus, collaboration among and contributions from different bodies are essential for the development of a complete, functional plan. The planning and tourism literatures are extensive in their examination and discussion about institutional factors. Institutional elements are very diverse, and attempting to examine all of the institutions that contribute to tourism, and their presence in the plan can be a long, tedious, and possibly unmanageable process. Thus the tourism planning literature tends to focus on key players when examining institutional elements. These differ depending on the scale at which planning takes place. The major institutional elements recurrent in the literature of national-level tourism planning are the National Tourism Administration (NTA), manpower planning, relevant organizational structures, related legislations, and tourism investment incentives. Institutional features that should be present are discussed and common challenges are identified that relate to institutional elements and that need to be faced in the creation of national tourism plans.

The fourth and final element in the framework is marketing. The argument can be made that marketing is not part of planning. This framework, however strives to be as comprehensive as possible in including all relevant aspects of tourism plans, and marketing is a significant part of tourism plans. Ultimately, it is the market that dictates much of the plan and without a consideration of marketing, any form of assessment assumes that the plan operates in a vacuum, and is thus incomplete. In fact, a marketing plan must not only consider the market, but must also account for the resources that the destination can provide, and must accordingly coordinate between the two (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). Assessment of marketing is a well-established subject, and assessing tourism marketing plans draws from this literature. Thus, in creating the marketing aspect of the framework, the criteria are based on conventional marketing concepts.

Although, for ease of presentation the four main subjects are presented in separate sections, as indicated in the preceding paragraph, they are, in fact, intertwined. The purpose, aims and objectives should both inform and be informed by the market and its development, and the treatment of both will be influenced by the approach to planning that is adopted and the institutional inputs, arrangements and recommendations that underpin the plan. Thus, these subjects are not as discrete as they may at first appear. Reflection upon their relationships to determine the degree of consistency among them can be an important check in the evaluation process.

3.5.2 Case Application

The case study approach was decided upon because it is necessary to apply the framework for assessment to a particular case to demonstrate its applicability and utility. As a research approach, case studies focus on a single setting to understanding the topic at hand in considerable depth. They typically combine different methods of data collection such as interviews, questionnaires, observations and archival research. They can be qualitative, quantitative or both in the approach that is adopted (Eisenhardt, 1989).

After the framework was created, it was applied to the Egyptian national-level tourism plan, which is entitled the National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP). Egypt was selected as a case study location, largely based upon personal interest and familiarity with the country. In order to assess each of the four elements thoroughly, the plan was read numerous times, in light of each element in the framework individually. This was done in recognition that any excerpt from the plan can be relevant to more than one of the four subjects. Therefore, the plan was read with each element of the framework in mind, in order to determine the stance of the plan on each topic. Some themes were recurrent and surfaced in different forms throughout the framework. This was expected and this serves to validate the findings. These themes were noted and they provide the basis for the recommendations and discussion of the Egyptian tourism plan (Section 13.2).

In many developed country contexts, planning documents are available to the public. This, however, is not the case in many developing countries, and it is not the case in Egypt. Therefore it is pertinent to discuss the availability of documents for plan evaluation.

The national tourism plan for Egypt was obtained, although it was not an easy task and required multiple visits to different Ministry of Tourism (MOT) offices and discussions with different government employees. An exploratory field visit to Egypt was undertaken during July and August of 2010 in order to determine the suitability of Egypt as a case study location for applying an assessment framework. Informal interviews and discussions were undertaken with key participants and government employees who had access to planning documents or who participated in the planning process. These included two individuals from the Egyptian consulting company that took part in the development in the NSTSP, the President, and the Executive Manager. Although these individuals were extremely helpful in providing information

on about the process through which the plan was constructed, they refused to make the NSTSP available. I then contacted different employees from the Ministry of Tourism, who eventually led me to the Tourism Development Authority (TDA), which is the branch of the ministry responsible for planning tourism development. It was through connections that were built at the TDA that I was able to obtain NSTSP. Much of this process relied on prior experience of conducting tourism research in Egypt. The preliminary stages of the exploratory field visit relied on communicating with individuals who had been contacted previously when undertaking the research for my Master's thesis in 2008, and examined the environmental impacts of tourism on the Egyptian Red Sea coast. These contacts facilitated my meetings with individuals who had knowledge of and access to relevant information that they were willing to share.

National development plans are available online on the Ministry of Planning's website. Tourism legislation documents were purchased both in English and Arabic from a private bookstore in Cairo that specializes in translating and categorizing Egyptian legal documents.

Accordingly, the following documents were acquired and are included in the document assessment process:

1. National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan:
   o Tourism development strategy executive summary.
   o Phase 1: Tourism development strategy.
   o Phase 2: Strategic plan for the year 2020.
   o Phase 3:
      ▪ Action plan
      ▪ Five-year marketing plan.
2. National development plans:
   o 6th 5-Year Development Plan for Socio-Economic Development (2007-2012).
   o 5th 5-Year Development Plan for Socio-Economic Development (2002-2007).
3. Laws and legislation:
   o Tourism legislation:
      ▪ Law no. 38/1977: concerning the reorganization of tourist companies.
      ▪ Decree no. 209/2009: concerning the executive regulations of law no. 38/1977 on the organization of tourist companies.

- Law no. 1/1973: relating to hotels and touristic constructions.
- Ministerial decree no. 343/1974: concerning the implementation of certain provisions of law no. 1/1973 on hotel and tourist establishments.
- Law no. 2/1973: relating to the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism on touristic zones and their exploitation.
- Ministerial decree no. 194/1997: concerning activities as carried out by tourist companies considered to be tourism activities.
- Prime minister's decree no. 1034/2002: setting controls on investment guarantees and incentives enjoyed by touristic development activity.
- Ministerial decree no. 83/2008: adding provisions to the general prerequisites for granting or renewing licenses for tourist establishments.
- Ministerial decree no. 176/2008: concerning the provisions of granting a license for a tourist establishment to land transportation buses for transporting tourists.
- Ministerial decree no. 150/2010: regarding the conditions and regulations governing the timeshare system in hotel establishments, tourist villages and resorts.
- Ministerial decree no. 300/2011: on restaurants and tourist shops.
  - Law no. 4/1994: the environment law.
  - Law no. 8/1997: concerning investment guarantees and incentives.

Also included in the assessment are historic secondary tourism statistics and economic indicators. These were obtained from a variety of governmental and non-governmental sources. The assessment was then conducted based on the framework that was constructed at an earlier stage of the research project.

3.5.3 Modifications to the Original Plan

During this project, two major modifications were made to the initial research plan. The first modification was to the framework for assessment and the second modification was to the method for validating findings.

The framework for assessment was modified, resulting in the merging of one of the assessment elements into the other elements. The original plan for assessment included five

elements: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, marketing planning, and environmental and socio-cultural considerations. These elements were selected based on an extensive review, as mentioned in the previous section, which revealed these themes to be recurrent and well-suited for the anticipated method of assessment. The elements are sufficiently different from one another that the resulting assessments are not repetitive, yet cover different aspects of a plan holistically. However, during the construction and application of the assessment, it was revealed that environmental and socio-cultural considerations are a crucial element of each of the other elements being considered. Accordingly, they were included in the assessment of the other elements, rather than being assessed on their own. Dedicating a specific assessment section to environmental and socio-cultural considerations in the plan would have either been a repetition from the analyses of the other elements or, if environmental and socio-cultural considerations were not discussed in the other sections in order to be 'saved' for a separate section, the completeness of the other sections would have been sacrificed.

Originally the research plan was to validate research findings by conducting interviews and discussions with government officials and other tourism stakeholders in Egypt. This proved to be very difficult to achieve for it is very difficult to acquire the genuine opinions of such stakeholders on tourism plans, especially in places like Egypt. There are many factors that hinder them from presenting their sincere views, which results in opportunities for erroneous interpretation on the part of the researcher.

During the second field visit to Egypt in July 2011, when the researcher attempted to engage different stakeholders in a discussion about their views of the plan, this was found to be a fruitless process. Egypt has undergone recent dramatic changes in government resulting from the revolution that started in January 2011. This increased the difficulty of engaging stakeholders in a candid discussion about their views and concerns about tourism planning. Consequently, the research plan was modified, and instead of validating the findings through interviews with stakeholders, the findings were validated against literature and indicators of Egyptian tourism performance.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the purpose, aims, and objectives of this study. It also examined the research methods that were employed. The research approach adopted is a mixed-methods approach and it contains elements of qualitative and quantitative research. It was assumed that the adoption of multiple paradigms could benefit this mixed methods study and, thus, no one particular paradigm is adhered to. An iterative approach was used and a tentative research plan was designed at the onset of the study and was modified as needed throughout the course of the study.

PART II: FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSING TOURISM PLANNING

A framework for assessing tourism planning documents has been constructed based on the following four elements: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. These are shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Framework for Assessing Tourism Planning
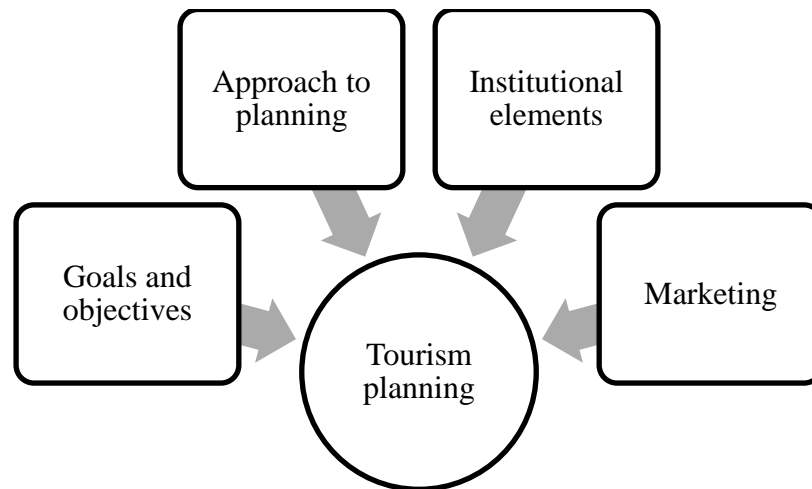
Part II, comprised of Chapters 4 to 7, describes each of these elements and the characteristics that are necessary for assessment. This is then followed by Part III, which is an assessment of Egyptian tourism planning documents using this framework. The following chapter, Chapter 4, commences Part II by discussing the goals and objectives of tourism planning.

Chapter 4: Goals and Objectives

Defining the targets of development, along with their limiting factors, is the first step in the planning process. Plans are proposed to achieve outlined targets within the limits set by the constraints (Gearing, Swart, & Var, 1976). There are three main purposes for defining the mission statement and the corresponding goals: they are the linchpin that dictates the entire strategic plan, they provide a common focus for all segments and individuals in the organizations involved, and they contribute to the establishment of a corporate identity for the organization (or destination) (Veal, 2002).

Further, the goals and objectives for tourism suggest the desired results of development and usually include aspects of socio-economic benefits and minimization of environmental and socio-cultural impacts (Inskeep, 1991). In this sense, environmental and socio-cultural impacts are often major constraining factors that should be heeded when planning for development targets. Tourism development targets are often dictated by broader national economic intentions, as tourism is only one aspect of a national economy. Some common targets include improving the balance of payments, increasing employment, raising income and overall economic growth (Gearing, Swart, & Var, 1976). Ideally, tourism development should not be in itself a target rather it is a means to achieve broader development objectives (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

4.1 Goals and Objectives as Part of the Strategic Plan

Goals and objectives are typically a significant component of the strategic plan as they determine the trajectory of all of the other items in the plan. A strategy document typically commences with a statement of the mission, the goals and objectives, and then continues to address the more specific issues of individual projects and programmes that should ultimately serve the mission and goals. In general, these other items usually include a summary of environmental appraisal (context) and public consultation; different policies/projects/programmes; the goals, objectives and targets of individual projects/programmes; performance indicators; and persons accountable for implementation

(Veal, 2002). Goals and objectives thus represent a crucial part of the plan, and should be examined when assessing a tourism plan.

4.2 Defining the Terms: Goals and Objectives

The terms goals and objectives are related although they are not synonymous. Goals stem from and represent a more detailed statement of the mission. They provide direction for the more specific objectives and policies that follow (Gunn, 1994; Sinha, 1998; Veal, 2002). Objectives, on the other hand, are "specific, real, and actual activities that can be accomplished within a given time" (Gunn, 1994, p. 11). They are usually linked to particular programs or facilities, and tied to a time frame and a quantifiable measure (Veal, 2002). Planners often use goals in reference to general development aims, and use objectives in reference to more specific ones (Inskeep, 1991). Both goals and objectives should be dictated by the mission or purpose, which is essentially the "*raison d'être*" of the organization (destination) (Veal, 2002, p. 101). In this sense, there is a hierarchical relationship between these different terms, as shown in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Mission-Goals-Objectives: Hierarchy
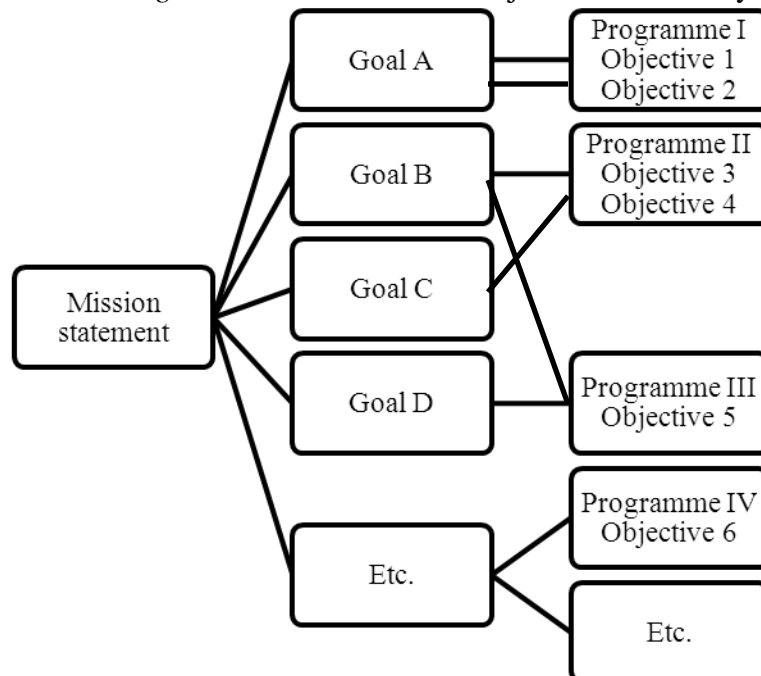
Source: (Veal, 2002, p. 101)

4.3 Tourism Goals

Although goals are usually broad, they should also be feasible. This means that they should have the support of stakeholders and be realistic in their views of the tourism market and demands of tourists. Although different countries have different environments and different plans, there are some common aspects that the goals of tourism plans should possess. Different literatures propose various aspects, and these literatures generally take one of two stances: a focus on visitor satisfaction (Gunn, 1994; Sinha, 1998), or a focus on accruing benefits from tourism to the destination area (McIntosh, 1977; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). These two stances are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Goals of Tourism Development

Gunn (1994) and Sinha (1998)	McIntosh (1977) and Goeldner & Ritchie (2003)
1. Enhanced visitor satisfaction 2. Improved economy and business success 3. Protect resource assets 4. Community and area integration	1. Providing a framework for raising the living standard of the people through the economic benefits of tourism 2. Developing an infrastructure and providing recreation facilities for visitors and residents 3. Ensuring types of development within visitor centres and resorts that are appropriate to the purposes of those areas 4. Establishing a development program consistent with the cultural, social, and economic philosophy of the government and the people of the host country or area 5. Optimizing visitor satisfaction (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003)

Although there are differences in the representation of these goals, there are four main underlying themes. These are: visitor satisfaction, community livelihoods, resource protection, and economic development. This choice of goals for tourism is rarely surprising as ultimately, the prime motive for tourism development initiatives are usually economic gain both on the part of private investors as well as governments (Sinha, 1998).

The goals suggested by McIntosh and Goeldner and Ritchie tend more towards a focus on the benefits of tourism to the community rather than what the community has to serve tourists and ensuring tourists' satisfaction which, although also important, should be considered secondary to accruing benefits to communities. After all, tourism goals should serve broader national development objectives. This standpoint is also reflective of that of the 1966 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) seminar, Tourism Development and Economic Growth (OECD, 1966).

It is critical to remain mindful of the fact that tourism development should not be an end in itself. Rather, it is a means to achieve broader development objectives. Goals, therefore, should not be specified in terms of numbers of tourists, and satisfying those tourists, but on such things as promoting regional development, decongesting popular sites, and enhancing the lifestyles of local residents (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

4.4 Tourism Objectives

The objectives of tourism are main determinants of the policy and plan. They should be decided at the preliminary stages of the plan formulation; however they should be tentative because later investigation may reveal that some may not be feasible or they may conflict with one another, which may then require reassessment and modification (Inskeep, 1991). Furthermore, objectives should be defined in great detail for all levels in a way that clearly associates personal and departmental objectives with larger sectoral and national objectives (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984).

The literature does not contain actual objectives that should be present in tourism plans, as it is implied that objectives should be reflective of the broader goals that they represent. However, the UNWTO (1978) summarizes common tourism objectives as pertaining to: foreign earnings; economic spin-off; parallel development of other sectors of the economy; social, cultural and political objectives; and preservation of the natural environment. However, such statements on broad objectives fail to contribute substantially to the assessment of tourism objectives as there could be a list of perfectly legitimate objectives that have other foci. Hogwood and Gunn (1984, pp.159-164) addressed this by suggesting a checklist of questions that should be addressed by those creating objectives. The following is a list of points that should underpin tourism objectives based on Hogwood and Gunn's checklist:

1. Where you are now
2. Where you want to be
3. Factors that are stopping you
4. Delineation of what is needed from other agencies
5. Allocation of responsibility within the agency

6. How multiple objectives will be handled

7. What will be regarded as 'success"

8. How success will be quantified

9. Conditions upon which success is contingent

10. What to do if the objectives are not achieved

This checklist is useful as it contains a variety of important concerns that include assessing the present status of tourism; allocation of responsibility both within the tourism authority and with other agencies; a clear account of what is to be deemed successful, and what to do if the plan is not successful. Due to its comprehensive nature, this checklist can be used as a guideline for examining the objectives of a tourism plan, and what factors can be included to improve the objectives of the plan.

4.5 Common Problems with Tourism Goals and Objectives

Although goals and objectives are the linchpin of tourism planning, there can be problems than can hinder the process of identifying and maintaining the influence of goals and objectives so that they remain resonant throughout the planning and development processes. Based on a survey of the literature, these problems are found to frequently fall under one of the following three headings: multiplicity of stakeholders and agendas; identification and quantification; and inconsistencies. Each of these is described in turn in the following subsections.

4.5.1 Multiplicity of Stakeholders and Agendas

Complications can arise from value differences both between different political interest groups, and within government, both horizontally and vertically. However, these can be rectified by ensuring that the government has a hierarchy of mission/goals that are tailored to different levels of administration, all of which serve its broader goals (Veal, 2002). Government institutions must address both internal goals that enable their survival as well as external goals that serve broader national agendas (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). Such is the case in tourism, which may result in contradictory effects resulting from attempting to maximize some effects while reducing others (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

65

4.5.2 Identification and Quantification

Identifying goals can be difficult. Although on paper the goals may be laid out in a clear and coherent manner, in practice they may be diffuse, unspecific, unclear and internally inconsistent. Furthermore, there could be dissonance between the goals stated in planning documents and the actual goals (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984).

Further adding to the difficulty of ensuring a single set of goals is the challenge associated with quantifiably assessing goal achievement. Unlike the private sector, where the main goal is to maximize financial gain, which is measured in profit, tourism and often other segments of the public sector do not have a single bottom-line goal, which makes measuring goal achievement difficult. For instance, comparing the trade-offs between conservation and development can be difficult to assess quantitatively (Veal, 2002).

4.5.3 Inconsistencies

There are often inconsistencies between goals. Such inconsistencies can be internal or external. Internal inconsistencies may arise within a government body, while external inconsistencies may arise between different government bodies, stakeholders, political groups, and other stakeholders who do not share the same views on the role of the state in tourism and leisure, which can lead to differences in their respective goal statements.

Internal inconsistencies may arise from the incompatibility of stated goals with each other. They may address multiple goals rather than a single unitary goal and, in effect, may contradict one another (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). Furthermore, goals may change over time, so even in cases where consistency has been ensured, the supportive relationship between different segments may break down over time if not regularly maintained (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984).

One possible remedy for inconsistencies is for statements to be general enough to accommodate different value positions. However, this can result in later disagreement in execution, such as one group envisioning high-rise four-star hotels, while another group envisions backpacker hostels (Veal, 2002). Hogwood and Gunn (1984) suggested that objectives should be specific and widely understood, and give direction in order for the broader goals to maintain their influence. Although some of the stakeholder groups may grudgingly accept broad

objectives, some may derive satisfaction from the unifying purpose they serve and, thus, become increasingly motivated to work towards them.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the goals and objectives of tourism plans and the items that should be considered in assessing them. Additionally, common problematic issues associated with tourism goals and objectives have been discussed, thereby informing the assessment of goals and objectives in tourism plans.

This discussion thus serves to facilitate the assessment of goals and objectives by defining the characteristics that should be present in the goals and objectives of national tourism plans. Tourism goals commonly address the issues of visitor satisfaction, community development, resource protection, and economic development. As for tourism objectives, a similar list of requirements of characteristics was derived from Hogwood and Gunn's (1984) checklist of questions that should be addressed in the formulation of objectives. This checklist covers the issues of determining the current situation, the vision for tourism, issues that hinder the materialization of the vision, cooperation within and outside of the planning body, quantifying success, and the subsequent course of action in case objectives are not achieved.

Common problematic issues that face makers of tourism goals and objectives have also been raised. These are the multiplicity of stakeholders and agendas, difficulty in identifying organizational and other goals and quantifiably assessing goal achievement, and difficulty attending to inconsistencies between different goals. Thus, potential problems in the delimitation of goals and objectives have been identified, as well as the reasons behind them. The following chapter discusses the different approaches to tourism planning that are found in the literature and may be assumed by tourism planners.

Chapter 5: Approaches to Tourism Planning

Although the main purpose of this thesis is to develop a framework for the assessment of national-level tourism plan, such plans can be developed in different ways on the basis of different assumptions. Thus, it is pertinent to consider the approaches to planning which are widely discussed in the planning literature. These approaches differ depending on the context of planning in which they are discussed. Some of these are broad in the sense that they can be applied in different contexts, while others are context-specific, and are created with a particular form of planning in mind, such as with planning for tourism development. Both of these types of approaches are relevant to tourism planning, and much can be learned about the plan, its priorities, stance, and how it can be improved by examining it in light of different planning approaches.

There is a plethora of different approaches to planning that have been reported in the literature, and to include them all in the proposed assessment framework would be tedious and redundant. For this reason, categorizations of approaches were selected that differ substantially from one another in order to cover as broad a conceptual background as possible. The categories selections included those that were deemed to be most comprehensive in their group. For instance, Khakee (1998) suggested a categorization of the different planning approaches that is not necessarily unique, as the groupings can be found in other literature sources; however it is more comprehensive in the sense that most other categorizations are not as thorough in the breakdown of their classifications. The other approaches described draw from a variety of sources based on their relevance to tourism planning, and because they were deemed different enough from one another to avoid redundancy and, at the same time, to maintain comprehensiveness in the analysis of the approach taken in the tourism plan.

After the approaches that were to be included in the assessment framework were determined, a method for categorizing these different approaches was needed to provide organization and structure to the framework. Different ways of categorizing these approaches were considered, and it was noticed that some of the categorizations that result from classification are mutually exclusive in the sense that any given plan can only fall under one of the categories. Others are not mutually exclusive, so a single plan can display characteristics of

multiple approaches. Generally, the more of these characteristics that are embodied in a plan, the more robust it is. Accordingly, tourism planning approaches in the framework proposed in this thesis are divided into mutually exclusive and non-mutually exclusive approaches.

Before exploring the different approaches that can inform a tourism plan, first the evolution of tourism planning is described. It is valuable to understanding where a destination stands in the evolution of the tourism planning process for this can shed light on the reasoning behind the approach that has been assumed. These eras are categorized and described in a succinct yet inclusive manner by Tosun and Jenkins (1998), and this categorization is thus adopted in this thesis. This categorization of the stages of evolution of tourism planning is described in the following section and followed by a brief discussion of its implications for the approach assumed in a tourism plan.

5.1 Evolution of Tourism Planning

The evolution of tourism planning is, much like tourism practice, sporadic, and is difficult to divide it into distinct time periods that represent particular prevailing emphases. Different countries have developed at different paces. Nevertheless, the evolution of the ways that development has been incorporated into tourism planning can be outlined in five main periods (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998, p. 102):

1. *Unplanned tourism development era*: The first is an era of unplanned tourism development, where governments commonly held the attitude that tourism development is the business of the private sector.
2. *Beginning of partly supply-oriented tourism planning period*: The main concern is with building amenities such as attractions, hotels and transportation links.
3. *Entirely supply-oriented tourism planning period*: The planning agenda is consumed with meeting increased tourism demand.
4. *Market or demand-oriented tourism development planning period*: Planning is focused around marketing to attract larger numbers of tourists.
5. *Contemporary planning approach*: Commencement of consideration of environmental, cultural and social issues associated with tourism development.

Although more than a decade has passed since the publication of this assessment and some may argue that there has been increased emphasis on themes such as sustainability, and a proliferation of approaches to tourism, such as alternative, ecotourism, pro-poor, community-based, participatory and responsible tourism development, it can also be argued that there is a gap between rhetoric and reality and that the broad description of a contemporary planning approach, although perhaps better understood in the plural as *approaches*, is still a useful endeavour. Alternatively, it may be possible to add a sixth phase that emphasizes sustainability through small-scale, community based approaches that consider increasingly the needs and opportunities of peripheral and disadvantaged destinations and people (for example, through pro-poor tourism).

These stages are not distinct in time but, rather, have been ongoing and overlapping in their evolution since the 1950s. Further, they do not represent the attitudes and values of government alone, but of the joint influence of a variety of stakeholders (who have probably increased in number over time). It is, however, worth noting that there has been a trend away from rigid, centralized planning and an inclination towards a community approach that promotes community involvement, as well as the social, cultural and environmental aspects of tourism (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). This may be a consequence of a combination of disfavour for rigid, centralized planning following the disintegration of the former Soviet Union (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998) and the borrowing of a strategic planning approach from the corporate world in the 1990s (Getz, 2001). Regardless of origin, this trend has had a compelling effect on tourism planning as many governments, especially in the developing world, have ceased direct intervention, turning these functions over to industry. Some governments have altogether abandoned tourism policy making (Getz, 2001). On the other hand, it can also be argued that it is difficult, particularly in developing countries, to embrace public participation and decentralised planning in the creation of national tourism plans.

It is useful to distinguish between the different eras of tourism planning when evaluating tourism plans because, by doing so, the plan undergoing evaluation can be placed in an appropriate context and understood as a product of a particular time period. This can facilitate the formation of insight about the current status of the plan as well as the direction in which it is likely headed.

70

5.2 Theoretical Positions in Planning Theory

According to Khakee (1998), there are eight theoretical positions on development planning and these are listed in Table 5.1. There are three common elements in all planning approaches: learning, decision making, and action. The differences between these approaches come from the relationships between these elements and the role they play in evaluation (Khakee, 1998). The following sub-sections briefly describe each of these approaches.

Table 5.1 Planning Theories and their Major Characteristics

Theory	Major characteristic
Rational planning	Reaching the best possible relationship between goal achievement and resource usage
Incrementalism	Economic-technical analysis subordinated to political decisions
Advocacy planning	Comparative consistency evaluation of competitive value systems
Implementation-oriented planning	Assessing the complexity of policy process and premises for implementation
Strategic planning	Iterative and recurring adjustment of commitment package
Transactive planning	Description of planning results with respect to the organization of planning process as knowledge mediation
Negotiative planning	Assessment of the second-best solutions as a result of verbal undertakings
Communicative planning	Appreciation of communicative rationality and robustness of policy alternatives

Source: adapted from Khakee (1998, p.372)

5.2.1 Rational Comprehensive Planning

This approach assumes that planning is an ordered process where decision makers set questions about policy measures to planners based on their goals (Faludi, 1973). There are many problems with this approach that Faludi (1973) points out: programs are often poorly defined; goals cannot be qualitatively formed, they must be quantitative, there is an uncertainty and scarcity of knowledge resulting in a poor relationship between goals and means; and there is a lot of politics involved in goal formulation.

5.2.2 Incrementalism

This approach recognizes that there are limited options for evaluating planning and policy decisions as a result of limited resources to develop alternatives. The number of alternatives chosen for evaluation is determined by political rather than technical factors. The incremental approach can be described as 'muddling through' using different decision strategies and it leads only to marginal policy changes taken a little at a time (Lindblom, 1959; 1979).

5.2.3 Advocacy Planning

This planning approach comes from the idea that a society is composed of many different groups, each with different values and preferences. More well-to-do groups are more capable of influencing the public sphere, while their less well-off counterparts need the help of a professional to voice their concerns. Planning authorities should thus establish dialogue with advocates of different groups (Davidoff, 1965). One problematic issue underscored by this approach is how to manage competing plans so that common interests can be achieved (Peattie, 1978).

5.2.4 Implementation-oriented Planning

The implementation-oriented planning approach stems from the idea that other planning approaches do not adequately address how the plan will be implemented. This approach emphasizes the relationship between policy making and implementation (Khakee, 1998). Implementaion approaches can be divided into three categories (Khakee, 1998): top-down, bottom-up, and a hybrid approach. The top-down approach begins by analysing defects in goal formulation, while the bottom-up approach emphasizes the role of field workers in implementing policies. Hybrid theories involve environmental and institutional considerations in implementation. Both *ex ante* and *ex post* evaluations are important from the implementation perspective. *Ex post* evaluation is of particular importance as it measures how well a plan has been implemented and determines the factors that limit its implementation (Khakee, 1998).

5.2.5 Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is a long-term oriented planning processs that produces strategies. It is "a systematic process which defines the way to guarantee the permanent accomplishment of the company's overriding goals and objectives" (Grunig & Kuhn, 2004, p. 9). The strategic planning approach relies on predicting the future based on understanding the past. Planning thus must be

72

flexible and adaptable to changes in information availability and the occurrence of unexpected events. Thus, under the strategic planning approach, 'commitment packages' rather than 'solutions' are proposed (Khakee, 1998).

5.2.6 Transactive Planning

The transactive planning approach is also known as 'new humanism'. Emphasis is on small-scale social organizations which provide opportunities for different planning actors to interact. This approach emerged as a result of the realization that communication between professional planners and the public can be problematic. Planners rely on expert knowledge while the public uses their experiences and personal knowledge (Friedmann, 1973).

5.2.7 Negotiative Planning

The negotiative approach to planning is based on the idea that previous decision processes that were viewed as either purely market- or public-oriented are actually intertwined. This approach functions under the premise that planning does not exist *per se*. Rather, public authorities and market actors negotiate about specific development projects. The final product usually includes a verbal agreement. Accordingly, participants in the negotiation process expect to gain advantages from the final decisions (Khakee, 1998).

5.2.8 Communicative Planning

Communicative planning is a view about the practice of planning. It describes what planners do and explains the forms of planning that should be practiced based on ethical and social considerations. The emphasis of this approach is on interaction between stakeholders and iteration that aims to achieve agreement between them (Khakee, 1998).

The approaches to tourism planning that have been outline address the process through which the plan has been created, rather than the contents of the plan itself. However, the approach that is adopted has implications for not only who is involved in making the plan, but also what issues are deemed to be important and consequently, the goals and objectives that are deemed to be pertinent. Thus, they have implications for the content of plans.

5.3 Mutually Exclusive Approaches

Approaches to tourism planning can be mutually exclusive. Each mutually exclusive element addresses different factors, so essentially they are not repetitive, and all of the mentioned approaches can be employed to cover different aspects in an evaluation of the approach to tourism planning. The following are some mutually exclusive elements derived from the literature. Each of which will be considered in turn:

1. Market-led versus product-led approach (Inskeep, 1991).
2. Interactive versus conventional planning (Lang, 1986).
3. Development first versus tourism first approach (Burns, 1999).
4. Mass tourism versus niche marketing (Getz, 2001).

5.3.1 Market-led versus Product-led Approach

There are different ways to match products with markets. The three ways by which tourists and products can be matched are a completely market-led approach, a product-led approach, or a balanced approach (Inskeep, 1991).

A market-led approach relies on the demands of tourists to shape the product portfolio offered by the destination. The desires of the tourists are used to shape the attractions, facilities and services offered, regardless of whether they are environmentally or socio-culturally appropriate choices for the destination. The main idea behind this approach is that it reaps short-term economic benefits and does so by ignoring associated longer-term costs.

A product-led approach, on the other extreme, only offers products, facilities and services that are best suited for the destination. This approach results in minimal impacts on the environmental and socio-cultural integrity of the destination. Only tourists who are interested in these products are targeted in the marketing campaign.

A balanced approach is an amalgam of the two above-mentioned approaches that strives to balance economic, environmental and socio-cultural objectives, recognising that products should be developed based upon the availability of, ideally local, resources but that they must also cater to the needs of viable market segments.

5.3.2 Interactive versus Conventional Planning

The approach to planning can be distinguished based on the process by which decisions are made. Planning can take an interactive approach or a conventional approach (Lang, 1986).

An interactive approach to planning relies on feedback, negotiation and consultation between stakeholders from the onset of the planning process and, ideally, throughout the entire process, from visioning and goal-setting to implementation and monitoring. On the other hand, a conventional approach to planning may include some consultation with stakeholders, but this is usually done towards the end of the planning process. It mainly depends on gathering information and working with implementers. A more detailed comparison of the two approaches is found in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Interactive Planning versus Conventional Planning

Interactive Planning	Conventional Planning
Includes information-feedback, consultation, and negotiation	Mostly information-feedback; may be some consultation
Interaction occurs early on and throughout the planning process, with a full range of stakeholders	Early interaction with implementers: affected interests not involved until late in the process
Assumes that open participation leads to better decisions	Assumes that better information leads to better decisions
Planner as value-committed advocate	Planner as value-neutral expert
Focuses on mobilization of support	Focuses on manipulation of data
Plan = what we agree to do	Plan = what we should do
Success measured by achievement of agreement on action, and by resulting changes	Success measured by achievement of the plan's objectives

Source: Lang (1986, p.39)

5.3.3 Development First versus Tourism First Approach

With regards to development considerations in planning, one way to examine this issue is by considering two ends of a planning spectrum. On one end, planners can assume a "development first" approach, and on the other end there is a "tourism first approach" (Burns, 1999). This model spectrum acknowledges different approaches to planning based on whether the primary agenda focuses on the tourism sector, as in the Tourism First approach, or on social

development, as in the Development First approach. These extremes are shown in Table 5.3. It is unlikely and unsustainable for a planning approach to strictly adhere only to either a development first or tourism first approach (Burns, 2004). It is more likely that the plan will tend towards one approach or another, but will contain aspects of both.

Table 5.3 Bipolar View of Tourism Planning Approaches

The Leftist "Development First"	The Rightist "Tourism First"
Sustainable human development	Economic enlargement
Tourism-as-system	Tourism-as-industry
Tourism-as-culture	Tourism-as-consumerism
Modern world systems	Globalization
Periphery	Core
Underdevelopment	Modernization
Aiming for an independent, differentiated destination with minimal dependency on the core. Focus on sustainable human development goals as defined by local people and local knowledge. The key question driving development is "What can tourism give us without harming us?"	*Aiming to maximize market spread through familiarity of the product. Undifferentiated, homogenized product dependent on core with a focus on tourism goals set by outside planners and the international tourism industry*
Holistic	Economistic

Source: Burns (2004, p. 26)

5.3.4 Mass Tourism versus Niche Marketing

Tourism marketing can be categorized either as being oriented towards mass tourism or niche marketing (Getz, 2001). However, in reality, these are two extremes on a continuum and there are a variety of intermediate positions. Mass tourism seeks to appeal to the widest possible market and often relies on price competition as a major strategy. It is designed for large numbers of tourists, so infrastructure and services should be designed accordingly. Niche marketing, on the other hand, caters to a narrow market, and relies on high prices to compensate for the small number of tourists attracted. Table 5.4 compares the main differences between these two types of product and associated marketing emphases.

Table 5.4 Mass Tourism and Niche Marketing Compared

Mass Tourism	Niche Marketing
- Widest possible appeal - Price competition is high - Large volumes of travellers - Requires massive infrastructural development (airports, roads, cruise-ship terminals, resorts) - Tourism planning stresses development and marketing - Constant impact monitoring and growth management are essential to prevent destination decline - Host areas are permanently altered, becoming urbanized resorts and lifestyle regions - Environmental and social impacts of tourism can be expected to increase	- Narrow target marketing (e.g., cultural tourists and ecotourists) - Stresses high yield and quality of visitors, not quantity - Focus on value, not price (results in rationing by price) - A strategy available only to areas with tight development controls in place - Mostly uses existing infrastructure - Might require "de-marketing" - Focus on preserving resources and existing attractiveness (application of principles of sustainability) - Visitors are "managed"

Source: Getz (2001, 274)

5.4 Non Mutually-Exclusive Approaches

The non-mutually exclusive approaches to tourism planning are somewhat repetitive and build upon one another. Thus, it is not necessary to use them all individually in assessing the approach to tourism planning. Rather, one recent approach can be used, or different elements from each approach can be combined to create an amalgam of criteria to be employed in assessing tourism plans.

The following non-mutually exclusive approaches will be discussed:
1. Approach as determined by purpose of tourism planning and development.
2. Other non-mutually exclusive approaches.

5.4.1 Approach as Determined by Purpose of Tourism Planning and Development

The purpose for which tourism is being developed is another way by which tourism planning approaches can be categorized. Tourism is most often developed for one of the following purposes: boosterism, economic considerations, physical-spatial considerations, or community considerations (Getz, 1987). These approaches are not mutually exclusive, as tourism can be employed for several purposes simultaneously. Table 5.5 describes these approaches and the main idea behind each of them. A national-level tourism plan can be examined in light of

each of these approaches in order to identify whether or not it assumes each approach, and the extent to which the considerations associated with each approach is represented in the plan.

Table 5.5 Getz's Approaches to Tourism Planning

Boosterism	This approach views tourism as a positive force and ignores all negative consequences that may arise. Mass tourism is reflective of this approach (Baidal, 2004).
Economic approach	This approach views tourism as an instrument by which economic aims can be achieved. Although it may consider social and environmental consequences of tourism, it does so in light of their impact on economic efficiency (Baidal, 2004). Furthermore, this approach does not consider the social distribution of benefits from tourism (Burns, 2004).
Physical-spatial approach	This approach views tourism as a way to distribute economic activity spatially, while maintaining rational land use. Preserving natural resources and managing environmental impacts are concerns of this approach (Baidal, 2004).
Community-oriented approach	This approach goes beyond involving the community in the planning process. It reflects the belief that residents should be the main benefactors of tourism development, and aims to plan tourism in a way that ensures that this is achieved (Baidal, 2004).

5.4.2 Other Non-mutually Exclusive Approaches

There are different approaches to tourism planning. Table 5.6 summarizes different approaches as reported in the literature. In comparing the different approaches, it can be concluded that, based on the elements included in each approach, Tosun and Jenkin's (1998) and Inskeep's (1991) approaches to tourism planning are closely aligned. All of the elements in Tosun and Jenkin's (1998) categorization are also present in Inskeep's (1991) list. Inskeep's categorization has two additional components: implementable component and application of a systematic planning process. The UNWTO view is slightly different as it does not include components that address comprehensiveness and flexibility, and it adds a long-range and strategic planning component, which is not considered by Tosun and Jenkins (1998) or Inskeep (1991).

For the development of an evaluative framework, an approach that assumes an integrated view of the overall components that a tourism plan should possess is needed. The approach that is most closely aligned with the requirements for the framework is that offered by Inskeep (1991, p.29), which applies to "all levels and types of tourism planning" (Inskeep, 1991, p. 29).

78

Accordingly, in creating a framework for assessing a national-level tourism plan, these characteristics can be employed, and the plan can be evaluated based on how well these criteria are met.

Table 5.6 Non-mutually Exclusive Approaches to Tourism Planning

Tosun and Jenkins (1998)	Inskeep (1991)	UNWTO (1994)	Getz (1987)
1. Sustainable development approach 2. Systems approach 3. Community approach 4. Integrated planning approach 5. Comprehensive 6. Continuous and flexible	1. Continuous, incremental and flexible 2. Systems component 3. Comprehensive component 4. Integrated component 5. Environmental and sustainable development component 6. Community component 7. Implementable component 8. Application of a systematic planning process	1. Planning as an integrated system 2. Planning for sustainable development 3. Long-range and strategic planning 4. Public involvement in planning	1. Boosterism 2. Economic 3. Physical-spatial 4. Community-oriented 5. Strategic approach* 6. Planning for sustainable development* * added by Baidal (2004)

Getz (1987) presents a different categorization of approaches to tourism planning, which was discussed in the previous section. Getz's categorization is based on the purpose for tourism development, whereas the other approaches examine different characteristics that could or should be present in tourism planning. Getz's schema is not mutually exclusive, as tourism development can simultaneously serve multiple purposes.

As such, the approaches of Tosun and Jenkins (1998), Inkseep (1991) and UNWTO (1994) are examined together, whereas Getz's (1987) categorization is discussed separately in the previous section. The next section addresses each of the categories addressed in the first three approaches. Most of the elements in these categories intersect with the exception of a few, but they are all examined in the following section.

5.4.2.1 Continuous, Incremental, and Flexible Component

The planning process should be continuous and linked to feedback and monitoring (Tosun & Timothy, 2001). Flexibility means that plans should be capable of being adapted to rapidly-changing environments (Gunn, 1994). A continuous, incremental, and flexible approach to planning is especially critical to tourism planning as tourism is multi-sectoral and planning for it should be a continuous process so that changes can be made as appropriate (Inskeep, 1991).

Many developing countries suffer from the rigidity of their planning approach. The central government may be the only body with the authority to make planning decisions. It is frequently located in the capital city and, thus, may be disconnected from tourism locations, rendering the planning and monitoring process rigid and inefficient (Tosun & Timothy, 2001).

5.4.2.2 Systems Component

Tourism should be planned as an interrelated system rather than as individual unrelated steps in a process. There should be coordination among the organizations involved in the various aspects of tourism planning, as well as between the different scales of development. Changing one element of the system affects the rest of the system (Mill & Morrison, 1998). According to Lieper (1990), there are three basic components in the tourism system: tourists, geographical elements and the tourism sector. And, since elements of the tourism system are interrelated, it should be planned accordingly using appropriate systems analysis techniques (Inskeep, 1991), which can be applied to different levels as the systems approach is flexible (Murphy, 1985). This perspective is particularly relevant to coordination among government levels, which Getz (2001) found to be a key issue in tourism planning and management.

5.4.2.3 Comprehensive Component

Comprehensive planning aims to improve coherence among the different aspects involved in a plan. All aspects of tourism development should be analyzed and planned comprehensively. For instance, comprehensive planning is necessary for achieving sustainable tourism development (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998).

Areas that should be addressed by tourism policy and, hence, plans include (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003, p. 149):

- The roles of tourism within the overall socio-economic development of the destination region
- The type of destination that will most effectively fulfill the desired roles
- Types and levels of taxation
- Financing for the tourism sector (sources and terms)
- The nature and direction of product development and maintenance
- Transportation access and infrastructure
- Regulatory practices (e.g. airlines, travel agencies)
- Environmental practices and restrictions
- Industry image and credibility
- Community relationships
- Human resources and labour supply
- Union and labour legislation
- Technology
- Marketing practices
- Foreign travel rules

Assessment of the comprehensiveness of the plan can be undertaken by examining if and how each of these areas is addressed in planning documents, and the degree of specificity to which they are addressed. However, it is impossible to encompass everything in one plan and, therefore, true comprehensiveness may be an unobtainable ideal. An integrated approach is more modest as it acknowledges that it is not possible to be fully comprehensive but it is important to consider the interaction of key aspects of the system under consideration.

5.4.2.4 Integrated Component

Tourism planning should be integrated both within itself and within the greater development plan. Integrated planning views the inputs of different sectors, agencies and disciplines as essential to successful planning and, in tourism, integrated planning should include integration of sub-national, national and international markets (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). There are many similarities between an integrated and a systems approach. The difference that is made here is that an integrated approach views tourism as one component of a broader system of which tourism is a part, whereas a systems approach emphasizes the relationships between elements of

tourism, particularly the tourism product. Although there is growing recognition of different approaches to tourism planning (see Hall, 2008, p.50), there is a trend towards an approach that emphasizes integrating tourism with other forms of social and economic development. Researchers, therefore, increasingly emphasize the need to integrate tourism planning with broader development objectives (Timothy, 1999). For instance, tourism development plans should be integrated into national socio-cultural and political policies, and also address environmental matters, as well as socio-cultural traditions, other related economic sectors, and international relations (where international tourism markets are concerned) (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998).

Tourism planning has evolved to reflect a more sophisticated view of tourism and this has engendered a trend towards a more integrated planning approach (Burns, 1999). Unfortunately, however, this remains an area that many tourism planners struggle with, particularly at the national level (Getz, 2001).

5.4.2.5 Environmental Component and Sustainable Development

This component addresses the degree to which natural and cultural resources are addressed and likely to be maintained. This could require the consideration of carrying capacity although this is a difficult concept to work with and other concepts, such as limits of acceptable change, address similar concerns and can be easier to use (Butler, 1996). As a minimum, possible adverse environmental and socio-economic consequences should be acknowledged, commonly involving the use of environmental and social impact assessments. In order to maintain the quality of natural resources, sound principles, such as zoning and infrastructure regulations, should be included in tourism plans. Further, tourism should be developed gradually in order that impacts can be monitored and plans can be adjusted accordingly. Unfortunately, it is not uncommon for the pace of change to date static plans and rapidly render them irrelevant. Additionally, smoothing out seasonality also facilitates sustainability (UNWTO, 1994). A main objective behind sustainability considerations is to ensure that as few options as possible are foreclosed and that future generations are not worse off as a result of current development activities (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). In addition to these general approaches, specific environmental impact control measures should be taken that are context-appropriate. Specific

environmental and socio-cultural control measures that may be applicable to specific situations can be found in Appendix C.

5.4.2.6 Community Component

There is a trend towards decentralization in political power throughout much of the world and it can be argued that the community approach to planning may be a result of and facilitated by this democratisation (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). This component addresses the level of community involvement and participation in tourism planning and decision making. This can be a particularly problematic aspect for developing countries, where the central government may interpret community involvement as citizen empowerment and involvement in decision making as it has evolved in many Western countries (Tosun & Timothy, 2001). Involving residents in the decision-making process is commonly seen as being essential for the achievement of sustainability and it is widely viewed as being a right of people to be involved in the formulation of decisions that affect their lives (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998).

Figure 5.1 Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Citizen Participation
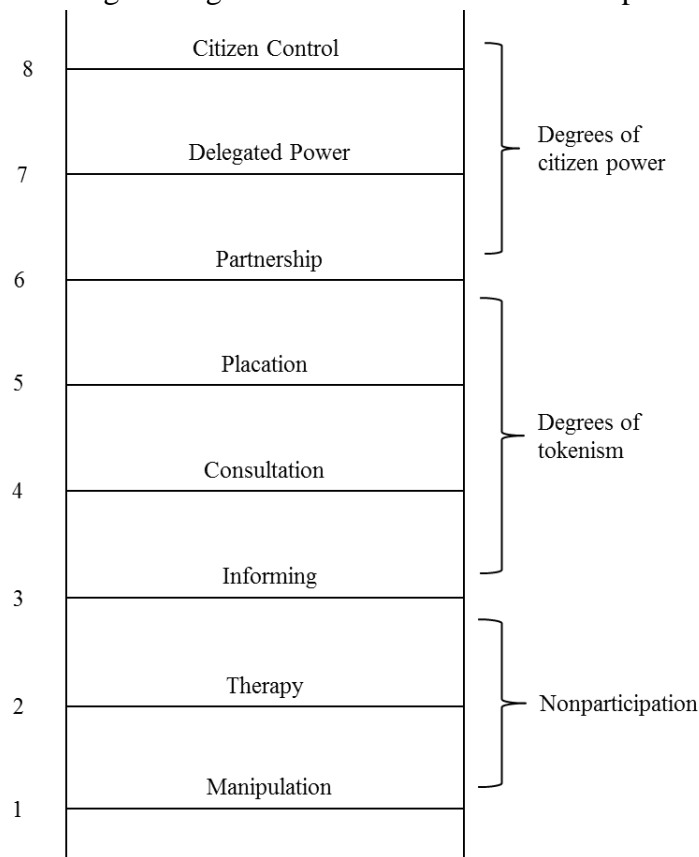
Source: Arnstein (1969, p.217)

83

One of the earliest and most influential works attempting to categorize and understand different degrees of community development is Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizenship Participation. The rungs of the ladder indicate the degree of citizen participation in planning in eight categories. At one extreme, the bottom rung represents absolutely no citizen participation, or what Arnstein calls manipulation. Moving up the ladder represents increasing citizen participation, which is represented by the subsequent categories of therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power and, finally, at the other end of the spectrum, citizen control. These eight categories are divided into three groups: non-participation, degrees of tokenism, and degrees of citizen power. These are shown in Figure 5.1. Arnstein recognized that this ladder is a simplification of the actual situation as citizen participation cannot be divided so precisely, however the ladder provides an understanding of types of participation.

Later, Rocha (1997) proposed a similar categorization based on Arnstein's work and other literature that had been developed on citizenship participation. Rocha proposed five stages of empowerment ranging from the little empowerment, to the highest level of community empowerment: atomistic individual empowerment, embedded individual empowerment, mediated empowerment, socio-political empowerment and, finally, political empowerment. These stages are based on an examination of four dimensions: locus, process, goals, and power experience (Rocha, 1997, p. 34). These dimensions can be used to gauge the degree of community involvement and participation in tourism planning. They can be determined through an analysis of tourism planning documents for indications of community involvement, as well as from interviews with community members.

5.4.2.7 Implementation Component

This component addresses the degree to which tourism development policy and planning are realistically implementable and it identifies the specific implementation techniques that will be used. This point is of particular relevance to developing countries that are quick to form plans, many of which are never implemented (Tosun & Timothy, 2001). Mazmanian and Sabtier (1983) asserted that implementation studies should assess four central questions:

1. To what extent are the outputs or outcomes of the implementation process consistent with the objectives enunciated in the original statute?

2. Were the objectives successfully attained? Over what time period?

3. What factors affected policy outcomes or caused the goals to be modified?

4. How was the policy reformulated over time in the light of experience?

These questions can be used to assess the degree to which tourism plans are or have been implementable. Assessing this component requires access to historic secondary tourism statistics and tourism planning documents.

5.4.2.8 Application of a Systematic Planning Process

The planning process should be systematic in the sense that it is based on a logical sequence of activities. A systematic planning process can be particularly arduous as the relationship between research and development is far from linear. This can be attributed to the weakness of links between understanding and action, rendering many development efforts irrelevant to the problems they attempt to address (Edwards, 1989). Nevertheless, there should be sufficient feedback loops and monitoring between stages to ensure that the planning process is continually adapted (Getz, 1986).

Assessing a national-level tourism plan can be ongoing with the aim of improving the overall tourism planning process. A planning model that adopts this approach is Chadwick's (1978) model of systemic planning. This process has two directions of inquiry: one to recognize and describe the system, and the other to test the process. Getz (1986) has adapted this model to be specific to tourism planning. Each step of the planning process is coupled with an evaluative criterion. This facilitates an internal, ongoing assessment of tourism planning that should feed back into the system and improve the planning process and the making of a plan.

5.4.2.9 Long-Range and Strategic Planning

Tourism plans should be prepared for long-term development - typically 10 to 20 years. This is because it usually requires a long timeframe to prepare and implement policies and plans. Strategic planning differs from comprehensive planning by focusing on future development patterns and dealing with unexpected events rather than focusing on immediate issues (WTO, 1994). In this sense, a strategic plan is:

> [A] disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions shaping the nature and direction of an organization's (or other entity's) activities within legal bounds. These decisions typically concern the organization's mandates, mission and product or service

level and mix, cost, financing, management or organizational design (Bryson, 1988, p. 74).

Accordingly, strategic tourism planning requires forming a vision statement that includes desired levels of growth and development, tourism goals and objectives, regulation of planning and development through feedback and monitoring (Jamal & Getz, 1995). The following are some suggested steps for strategic planning (Bryson, 1988, pp. 74-78):

1. Development of an initial agreement concerning the strategic planning effort
2. Identification and clarification of mandates
3. Development and clarification of mission and values
4. External environmental assessment
5. Internal environmental assessment
6. Strategic issue identification
7. Strategy development
8. Description of the organization in the future

There are many benefits to strategic planning. It can help organizations to (Bryson, 1988, p.78):

- Think strategically
- Clarify future direction
- Make today's decisions in light of their future consequences
- Develop a coherent and defensible basis for decision making
- Exercise maximum discretion in the areas under organizational control
- Solve major organizational problems
- Improve performance
- Deal effectively with rapidly changing circumstances
- Build teamwork and expertise

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter different approaches to tourism planning have been discussed. It can be argued that to separate what is a complex and evolving process into a series of dichotomies, mutually exclusive and non-mutually exclusive, is to run the risk of over-simplification. However, at the same time, the identification of a limited number of categories is necessary to facilitate meaningful generalization. It is suggested that the use of the non-mutually exclusive approaches to categorization goes some way towards softening and reducing the reliance on the dichotomous mutually-exclusive categories, but both approaches to categorization are relevant, complement one another and better reveal the unique approach that a given tourism plan assumes.

Discussion of planning approaches inevitably emphasizes the process through which a plan is created. In so far as the plan is the outcome of a process, then understanding this process can be helpful in understanding the contents of the resulting plan and enphases, gaps and deficiences within it. Thus, although the emphasis of this thesis is on the contents of plans, it is helpful to understand the approach that underpins it. However, in developing countries, it may not always be possible to determine explicitly the approach to plan-making that was adopted, although insights into this can often be obtained through examination of the planning document itself.

The following chapter discusses institutional elements as they relate to tourism planning, and some of the challenges associated with them.

Chapter 6: Institutional Elements

There is no 'industry' that involves so many different types of products and services as tourism (Edgell, 1990). It is, thus, important to study the institutional elements associated with tourism planning to ensure consistency and efficiency. Also, this feature makes integrative planning crucial to the success of tourism planning and development. Government agencies, different levels of government, and public and private sectors must cooperate in order to achieve successful integrative planning (Timothy, 1998). In order to make tourism a more sustainable practice, a holistic, integrated perspective must be taken that embraces all related resources and producers. This cannot be achieved without government policy intervention that emphasizes sustainability in tourism (Dodds, 2007).

It is not sufficient to have policies; they must also be implemented. This involves addressing and negotiating tensions among the various actors implicated in these policies, especially as different government agencies, tiers, and actors may have different views about the appropriateness of policies as well as on their implementation (Krutwaysho & Bramwell, 2010). Policy-related activities occur between actors every day, although the interests of the state usually prevail. Thus, these actors should work together to pursue common interests and influence the state (Marsh & Smith, 2000).

This chapter addresses institutional elements as they relate to tourism plans. These considerations span different levels of activity and involve a variety of stakeholders. This chapter begins by introducing some national-level considerations. Then, some more specific elements regarding institutional arrangements are examined. Finally challenges that are associated with institutional elements in tourism planning are discussed.

6.1 National Tourism Administration

Considerations of institutional elements span all jurisdictional levels. It is convenient to begin at the national level where most of the power usually resides. In order for a national government to be able to handle its functions, it should establish a National Tourism Administration (NTA), such as a Department or Ministry of Tourism. The NTA is commonly

viewed as adhering to one of two possible organizational structures: single portfolio or mixed portfolio (UNWTO, 1994).

A single portfolio ministry is responsible for tourism alone, while in a mixed portfolio structure, the ministry is responsible for tourism among other industries. The single portfolio arrangement usually gives the Ministry of Tourism higher priority in the government structure than its mixed portfolio counterpart. Such a ministry often has regional divisions and it can also have sections responsible for different functions. These functions are typically divided into marketing services, planning and development, statistics and research, and education and training. Details of the possible functions of such divisions can be found in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Model NTA Structure

Ministry or Department of Tourism	
Marketing services • Market planning and promotion • Operation of overseas tourism offices • Operation of local tourist information offices	Planning and development • Development policy and planning • Coordination of development implementation • Establishment and administration of facility and service standards
Statistics and research • Statistical collection, compilation and reporting • Operation of the tourism information system • Conducting research studies	Education and training • Manpower planning and programming • Establishment and administration of training standards • Operation of training programmes and institutions

Source: UNWTO (1994, p.40)

6.2 Institutional Elements of Tourism

Regardless of whether the NTA assumes a single or mixed portfolio structure, certain institutional elements should be in place if tourism is to be developed, operated and managed efficiently and effectively. These elements include manpower planning, organizational structures for tourism, tourism-related legislation, and tourism investment incentives (Inskeep, 1991; UNWTO, 1994). Each of these elements is examined individually in the following sections.

6.2.1 Manpower Planning

Tourism is a highly seasonal sector, which leads to a highly fluctuating demand for personnel. Usually managers of tourism resources accommodate this fluctuation by hiring a

minimum number of employees whose hours can be extended, and adding or reducing additional personnel as required. Failure to optimize the level of staffing results in unnecessary costs of workers during low periods and highly stressed workers during peak periods. Manpower planning, among other things, thus, aims to predict business fluctuations in order to estimate manpower requirements (Gibson, 1982). It is defined by UNWTO (1994, p.41) as "applying a systematic approach to ensure that the right people are in the right place at the right time. This is especially important in tourism, which is a service activity depending in large part for its success on the quality of personnel working in tourism".

Manpower planning involves the following four steps (Inskeep, 1991, p. 404):
1. Evaluating the present utilization of manpower in tourism and identifying any existing problems and needs.
2. Projecting the future manpower needed by the number of personnel required in each category of employment and determining the qualifications for each category of job.
3. Evaluating the human resources available in the future.
4. Formulating the education and training programme required to provide the requisite qualified manpower.

The last step in manpower planning is of particular importance because, even more critical than the quantity of workers, the success of product delivery in the tourism sector is largely reliant on the qualifications and personal involvement of personnel. Expansion in the tourism sector does not necessarily imply a proportional increase in the number of required personnel. Rather, employees will be required to have greater skill and competence in order to provide the same high quality service (Gibson, 1982). Improving the quality of tourism employees may require collaboration of the NTO with educational institutions or labour or educational ministries.

6.2.2 Organizational Structures of Tourism

An effective organizational structure is essential and this requires ongoing consideration of other related policy arenas, not just tourism, as well as links with the authorities that are responsible for them (Inskeep, 1991). Tourism planning should be integrated with other social and economic development plans rather than being planned in isolation (Jamal & Getz, 1995).

All elements of regional tourism should be planned collectively to avoid problems such as imbalances in supply, between tourism subsectors. For instance, transportation, accommodation, attractions, promotion and information and its dissemination should all be coordinated simultaneously (Gunn, 1994). This approach, however, has been criticized as it is impossible to simultaneously consider all elements in planning (Hudson, Galloway, & Kaufman, 1979). This has resulted in the introduction of alternative approaches to planning, such as community-based planning and incremental planning (Timothy, 1998). Another approach is integrative planning, which emphasizes both the interrelationships among the components of the tourism system, as well as the place of tourism in the broader development planning context (Inskeep, 1991).

Although it is recommended that an NTA is established, it is important that tourism is not singled out for development and viewed in isolation from other sectors. Tourism involves linked production of many different types of products and services, perhaps more than is the case for other sectors (Edgell, 1990). Accordingly, tourism should be planned together with other development goals (Inskeep, 1991). This will improve the efficiency of the use of tourism for development (Timothy, 1998). In order for such integrative planning to be achieved, there must be cooperation between different planning authorities. Nunn and Rosentraub (1997) called such approaches 'interterjurisdictional cooperation' and define this as follows:

> Interjurisdictional cooperation emerges when localities, to further shared objectives, cooperate with regional planning councils, non-profit corporations composed of business and governmental leaders, business councils, informal alliances, cross-sector multijurisdictional approaches to regional development, intermodal agreements, or regional plans (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997, pp. 206-207).

There are four dimensions that are crucial to planning interjurisdictional cooperation: determining the objectives to be achieved, the tactical approaches to cooperation, the institutional forms that are to promote cooperation, and expected outcomes from cooperation (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997). Each of these dimensions is discussed in turn in the following subsections.

6.2.2.1 Determining Objectives

Determining the objectives that are to be achieved is critical to successful interjurisdictional cooperation. Some objectives may be easier to address than others, as some objectives naturally lend themselves towards results with winners and losers and this creates

difficulties. For instance, redistribution of resources will result in one party being worse off even if the overall condition is improved. This will undoubtedly affect the approach to and level of cooperation (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997).

6.2.2.2 Tactical Approaches to Cooperation

Tactics are also an important dimension of interjurisdictional cooperation. Tactical approaches can vary depending on the degree of formality required. Generally, low-formality approaches include networking, information sharing, free market approaches, and ad hoc initiatives; while more formal methods include fiscal equalization and metropolitan governance (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997).

6.2.2.3 Institutional Forms that Promote Cooperation

Institutional format, which is a function of the degrees of political resistance, local autonomy and formality, plays a role in determining the level of cooperation. The highest degree of autonomy occurs when informal alliances and coalitions are formed in order to achieve cooperative objectives, and members have the freedom to choose the strategy by which this will be achieved. Sometimes organizations can promote cooperation with local governments by exchanging autonomy for the benefits of cooperation. This usually takes place with educational, non-profit and charitable foundations who may exchange resources for cooperation with local government such as regional tourism organizations (RTOs). A lower level of autonomy may be a result of restrictions resulting from zoning and land use controls on the part of regional planning councils. Autonomy can be further reduced by redefining scales of service delivery and administration to metropolitan rather than local levels (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997).

6.2.2.4 Expected Outcomes from Cooperation

The outcomes associated with interjurisdictional cooperation include economic development outcomes, municipal service outcomes, environmental outcomes, and socio-political outcomes. For instance, cooperation can facilitate the creation of an improved business environment, improved public services, improved environmental quality and an increased degree of citizen participation in public decision making (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997, p. 210).

6.2.3 Tourism-Related Legislation

Tourism-related legislation is the basic tourism law that establishes the policy for tourism development as well as the functions, structure and funding sources of the NTA. It also covers regulations related to standards of services, licensing requirements, and inspection procedures for tourism businesses such as hotels, restaurants and tour agencies (UNWTO, 1994).

Tourism legislation should possess the attributes of good law, and should thus be transparent, certain, just, published, enforceable and enforced, and objective (Downes, 2006, pp. 26-27). Tourism laws should also reflect international standards, maintain consistency with international obligations as well as obligations with the country's membership of the World Trade Organization (WTO) and General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), reflect best practice and build on the country's laws, customs and traditions (Downes, 2006, pp. 14-15).

Although tourism laws should be comprehensive (see Appendix D for a full list of the elements that tourism law should cover), it is important to remain mindful of the fact that tourism law is not separate from other laws, and that other laws also play a role in tourism. The NTA should play a role in advocating change in these laws where they are deemed necessary. These include laws governing (Downes, 2006, pp. 27-28):

- dispute resolution;
- the governmental framework;
- the socio-political framework;
- private enterprise;
- investment regulation and tax;
- real estate;
- commercial entities and transactions;
- licensing and business registration;
- contracts of employment, apprenticeships, training and labour relations;
- entry formalities;
- environmental protection;
- culture and heritage protection and promotion;
- handicrafts and souvenirs;
- tourist transportation;
- health and safety; and
- criminal law matters.

6.2.4 Tourism Investment Incentives

In order to encourage tourism investments, the NTA can use investment policies and incentives. Some factors must be present in order for investment to occur. For instance, infrastructure should be present and, in instances where it is not, the NTA should take measures to ensure that it is present and that it is suitable for use by tourism enterprises.

Further, tourism investment policies involve creating incentives by the government to stimulate private sector investment. Some of the most commonly offered are (UNWTO, 1994, p. 43):

- Provision of development land, and assembly of the required amount of land, at moderate or no cost at suitable sites.
- Provision of off-site infrastructure (which is usually provided in any case), or provision of on-site infrastructure at no or reduced cost to the investor.
- Complete or partial exemption from customs duties on imported items used in the development and operation of tourist facilities and services. These may include building materials, machinery, equipment and supplies, and transportation vehicles such as tour buses.
- Complete or partial exemption of company income or property taxes for a specified number of years, offering favourable depreciation allowances which reduce taxes.
- Provision of financial assistance, such as loans at regular or low interest rates, extended periods of repayment of loans, subsidies for payments made on the interest of private loans, or guarantees by the government of private loans. Outright grants of money can also be provided.
- Unrestricted repatriation of all or part of foreign capital, profits, dividends and interest, after taxes have been paid.
- Guarantees against nationalization or appropriation of the investment.

There are some guidelines to consider when determining the use of investment incentives (Jenkins, 1982). First, the incentives legislation should be in line with the greater tourism development objectives. Secondly, incentives should be offered selectively rather than in a broad and indiscriminate manner. For instance, incentives should differ in application based on the time at which the investment is being set up, the type of investor, location of investment, and so forth. Third, all incentive-aided companies must be required to submit a tax return in order to judge the incentive level in order to review and monitor the incentive legislations. Fourthly, there should be a regular two-stage review of the operation of the incentive legislation. The first stage is an in-depth review of existing incentives to help determine future incentive levels. The second stage studies investment incentives offered by competitor countries in order to ensure that there

is sufficient incentive to attract international investors. Finally, a cost-benefit evaluation should be made of the investment incentives. It may be the case that subsidies offered outweigh the benefits from the investment, particularly in the case of international investors in developing countries.

6.3 Challenges

6.3.1 Factors Constraining Cooperative Behaviour

There are three main phenomena that constrain cooperative behaviour between institutions and stakeholders: the tragedy of the commons, the prisoner's dilemma, and the challenge of collective action (Ostrom, 1991). The tragedy of the commons (Hardin, 1969) refers to the problem of overexploitation of common resource resulting from the free use of public goods and lack of property rights. The prisoner's dilemma (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981) refers to the lack of cooperation between stakeholders due to limited information, which makes them all worse off than they would have been if they had cooperated. Finally, the challenge of collective action (Olson, 1971) is the idea that collective failure results from individuals' inability to recognize that collective benefits increase with the size of institutions. These three factors pose a challenge to tourism planning because, often, no formal communication channels are present, making them difficult to address and causing tourism performance to suffer. However, formal rules and informal norms, such as codes of ethics, can solve these problems and improve cooperation and, thus, efficiency and performance among tourism organizations (Beritelli, 2011).

6.3.2 Difficulties in Measuring Interjurisdictional Cooperation

Although methods have been developed to assess interjurisdictional cooperation in network analysis and social capital studies such as network density and institutional thickness, it is nevertheless difficult to measure the level of interjurisdictional cooperation for a number of reasons (Nunn & Rosentraub, 1997). First, there is the difficulty associated with identifying the outcomes associated with high levels of cooperation because of other factors that are involved, such as historical and cultural contexts, and the difficulty associated with quantifying cooperation. Furthermore, there are differences between the expectations regarding interjurisdictional cooperation on the part of public leaders, and these expectations are based primarily on preconceived notions of the benefits of cooperation, which may not be realistic or

lead to the desired benefits. Cooperation may, for instance, result in increasing cost effectiveness rather than economic development and, although this is beneficial, it could nevertheless be viewed negatively because cooperation failed to lead to the expected economic development results. Additionally, it is difficult to generalize expected results because particular results may be specific to a particular area and not possible in other areas.

6.3.3 Barriers to Tourism Policy Implementation

There are some common barriers to the implementation of tourism policy. Awareness of these issues can facilitate identification of their presence in the tourism plan. These include: a focus on short-term economic issues rather than long-term and social and environmental concerns, lack of previous planning, limited stakeholder involvement, lack of integration with regional and national frameworks and policies, lack of accountability for failure to implement, and lack of coordination with other government groups (Dodds, 2007).

6.3.4 Developing Country Challenges

Developing countries face additional challenges, and these should be mentioned. Developing countries have different planning and political environments than those of developed countries and it is, thus, imperative that they are researched independently (Timothy, 1998) or, at least, the implications of their specific circumstances should be understood and taken into account.

Tosun and Timothy (2001) analyzed tourism development in Turkey and found a number of problematic areas pertaining to a national-level approach to tourism planning. First, in large countries such China, India and Indonesia, it is difficult to undertake national tourism assessments. The sheer size of these countries makes it difficult to evaluate different tourism locations systemically. In such circumstances, national-level tourism policies may be developed to guide sub-national tourism planning. Often, plans are prepared for each province (or similar jurisdiction) in the country but this may not be the best strategy for provinces are not necessarily good regions for tourism planning although, from the perspective of implementation, they may have the necessary authority to take action. Regardless of the nature of the sub-national spatial units that are selected, the coordination of sub-national plans with national development objectives will be required. Secondly, tourism tends to cluster around the most economically developed areas, adding to the problem of concentrated development. Third, much tourism

development is ad hoc, which further aggravates the problem of concentrated development. Fourth, areas with fewer tourists generally have more traditional, simpler lifestyles and, thus, require extra sensitivity in tourism development that cannot be achieved solely through centralized, national development. Fifth, regional inequality may be a result of a number of factors that are outside of the government's control, such as resource endowment and location. Sixth, there is likely to be a need for control of tourism development at the regional level for tourism growth will not be sustainable unless development is controlled and managed at the regional level, when socio-cultural, environmental, economic and political features specific to that region can be considered and taken into account.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter has addressed tourism's institutional elements as they relate to tourism planning and the creation of plans. These elements pertain to different stakeholders and resonate through the various levels of planning. In addressing institutional elements that should be considered in assessing tourism planning, interjurisdictional cooperation has been discussed, followed by an examination of national-level considerations in tourism planning, institutional elements of tourism, and finally some common challenges related to institutional elements that face tourism planners and may be revealed in the plans.

The above discussion is designed to enhance the process of assessing institutional elements in tourism planning by identifying issues that should be considered within the plan, the functions they perform, and challenges that may be faced. The identified issues pertain to: manpower planning, organizational structures, legislation, and investment incentives. These issues can be considered to be outside of the direct jurisdiction of the tourism authorities; however their consideration and coordination with tourism is vital to the success of the sector. The creation of the plan will be influenced by institutional arrangements and the plan should address institutional arrangements, in part to indicate the responsibility for undertaking specific planned activities.

When assessing institutional elements, there are two main factors that should be assessed: NTA functions and structures, and institutional elements. This chapter has described these factors and the elements that should be accounted for in their assessments. Further, common challenges are presented in general and in the context of developing countries, as well as the causes of these challenges. The following chapter is the final chapter of Part II, and it discusses elements to consider in assessing tourism marketing plans.

Chapter 7: Marketing

The marketing plan is an essential part of the tourism plan that matches the destination's resources with the opportunities and demands of the market (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). It would be futile to develop products if no market exists for them and goals and objectives are unlikely to be met if they are not in tune with market conditions. For these reasons, most national-level tourism development plans include a marketing component, therefore, an assessment of the marketing plan has been included in the overall plan assessment framework developed in this thesis.

Having written this, an argument can be made that the national-level of planning assessment is too broad to include consideration of marketing for, at this broad scale, it is difficult to devise means to market a particular product. However, the counter argument can be made that, in many cases, destination countries compete with one another. For instance, it is often the case that tourists may decide to go to a particular area such as the Caribbean, or a Mediterranean destination, or somewhere in European. These regions have multiple countries, and these countries compete with one another to attract tourists, and this requires a marketing plan. Most countries have national tourism marketing plans and, thus, including these national-level tourism marketing plans in the framework can only serve to strengthen it.

As with planning a destination, the role of marketing planning differs depending on the scale that is being developed. Marketing at a broader scale contains different elements than at a narrower, more specific scale. At the national level, the tourism marketing plan serves to set the stage for the more specific marketing plans at the regional, local and site scales. For instance, it may delineate which trade shows the country will take part in, the brand image of the country and what it has to serve, the countries of origin to which it aims to target marketing energies, and so forth.

In large countries such as the United States, marketing at the national level may be more general than most countries which do not have as vast a tourism portfolio, and the main purpose of tourism marketing at that scale may be to increase awareness and encourage potential tourists to explore different locations within the country that may be of interest to them. Some research

may determine that tourists from particular countries are interested in particular locations. For instance, in Canada, tourists from Japan have taken a particular interest in Banff, Alberta, due to the setting of a popular Japanese television show in Banff. Awareness of such trends at the national level along with coordination between marketing planning at different scales can facilitate the efficient allocation of tourism marketing resources.

Marketing plays an important role in creating awareness of the tourist resource and is used to promote the destination and its image (Wheeler, 1995). Historically, the role of marketing in tourism has been limited to promoting tourism and tourism development to attract more tourists. This has eventually resulted in degradation of the environment in many destinations. Marketing can also be used to emphasize images and expectations. For instance, if tourists perceive a destination as being fragile, they are likely to treat it with more care and caution. Furthermore, marketing can target the appropriate type of tourists to attract them to destinations they will likely enjoy and appreciate. Additionally, market research by a national tourist organization can provide information that is useful in planning future development of tourism destinations (Wheeler, 1995).

This chapter outlines the key aspects of the marketing plan that embody the above concerns. These are: the mission statement; strategy; objectives; targets; and marketing strategy process, which consists of segmentation, targeting, and positioning. These aspects are described, and characteristics that should be present in them are discussed. These serve to provide a framework for assessing the national-level tourism marketing plan.

7.1 Mission Statement

A mission statement is a statement that communicates expectations of what is to be achieved and how to measure it, and is thus what management are usually held accountable for. A clear, succinct mission statement is crucial for the successful functioning of a Destination Marketing Organization (DMO). Mission statements can vary widely in terms of focus and structure, but they should all be explicit in relaying the DMO's reason for being (Pike, 2008).

Many tourism plans are neglectful in including explicit tourism mission statements, and those that have them have largely inadequate mission statements in the sense that they do not comply with the guidelines suggested for the preparation of sound tourism marketing mission statements (Heath & Wall, 1992). A sound mission statement should include the following aspects (Heath & Wall, 1992, p. 65):

- The reason for the organization's existence, and its responsibilities to the tourism businesses in the region, the communities of the region, and the other parties influenced by its activities.
- The tourist needs and wants to be served by tourism business units in the region.
- The tourism performance expectations for the region; and
- Other general guidelines for overall regional tourism strategy such as environmental sensitivity, community involvement, and coordinated development (adapted from Cravens and Lamb 1986, p.104).

The tourism marketing plan can be examined for the presence and extent of elaboration upon these characteristics in the mission statement. Additionally, the mission statement should account for the following items (Heath & Wall, 1992, p.67):

1. The past experiences in the region with regard to tourism.
2. The regional tourism organization must be prepared to adapt the region's mission in response to the characteristics of the regional tourism environment.
3. The region's tourism resources make certain missions possible and others not.
4. The preferences of the region's major tourism publics, such as regional tourism organizations, tourism business units, local government, and community organizations, should be considered.
5. The mission must be based on the region's distinctive competencies.

These elements can be examined in the marketing plan to assess the robustness of the mission statement. The mission statement is an important element in the tourism marketing plan because it helps to shape the marketing strategy and, accordingly, the objectives and targets. These elements are discussed in the subsequent sections.

7.2 Strategy

Developing and implementing a tourism marketing strategy is important for achieving a successful competitive advantage in tourism marketing. This is particularly the case as destinations of different types can find themselves competing for the same markets. For instance,

natural resource endowed destinations often compete with destinations that have attractive built environments (Pike, 2008).

Jain (1993, p. 241) suggested that the adequacy of a strategy may be evaluated using the following criteria:

1. Suitability: is there a sustainable advantage?
2. Validity: are the assumptions realistic?
3. Feasibility: do we have the skills, resources, and commitments?
4. Internal consistency: does the strategy hang together?
5. Vulnerability: what are the risks and contingencies?
6. Workability: can we retain our flexibility?
7. Appropriate time horizon.

These criteria present a variety of different, yet important, factors to consider in the marketing strategy. Thus, they are appropriate for inclusion in the framework for assessing the strategy of the national-level tourism marketing plan.

Additionally, it is important to remain mindful of the fact that there are different possible marketing strategies that planners can assume. In the assessment of the marketing plan, it can be beneficial to identify the type of marketing strategy that is proposed. This will facilitate issue identification and the making of recommendations for improvement. There are ten classic strategies that are commonly employed. These strategies are (Wahab, 1976, pp. 164-168):

1. Push or pull.
2. Go for growth sectors.
3. Specialise.
4. Develop a vigorous new-product policy.
5. Concentrate on building a brand name.
6. Tap an undiscovered gold mine.
7. Renovate a decaying product.
8. Turn clients from ciphers into human beings.
9. Go for quality.
10. Offer the widest possible product range.

These marketing strategies are employed in order to fulfill the marketing goals and objectives. Marketing goals and objectives are determined by the desired market position that the destination wishes to assume (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). Not only does the desired market position determine marketing goals and objectives, but it also shapes the strategies and plans that are devised to achieve these goals and objectives. Accordingly, goals/objectives, strategies, and plans should be in agreement with one another (Middleton,

Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). Furthermore, goals should be realistic, concrete and measurable (Reilly, 1988). Both long- and short-term objectives should be covered by the plan (UNWTO, 1994).

The marketing program can also be viewed as having three related elements: objectives, strategies/tactics, and targets (Faulkner, 1992). Objectives should include the time frame over which they are to be achieved, and should be consistent with the broader role of the organization. After the objectives have been determined, the strategy to reach these objectives should be decided upon (Reilly, 1988). The strategies and tactics describe how the objectives are to be achieved. Some possibilities of tactics can include the use of media advertisements (print and/or electronic), information services, pamphlets, and participation in trade shows (Faulkner, 1992). In general, objectives are broad and medium to long-term, while targets are short-term and quantifiable (Wahab, 1976).

7.3 Objectives and Targets

The following sections provide an overview of the objectives, targets and strategy for tourism marketing, and characteristics that should be present in each of these elements and, thus, should receive consideration in the plan. These characteristics should also be considered when assessing a national-level tourism marketing plan.

7.3.1 Objectives

Tourism objectives are usually broad, and include aspects such creating or improving the tourism image and attracting visitors rather than selling a particular product (Wahab, 1976). In this sense, objectives are primarily determined by the types of tourists and tourist markets that planners aspire to attract (UNWTO, 1994). Tourism market targets are usually established every five years, and are expressed in terms of the numbers of tourists, their country/region of origin, average length of stay, and other similar types of characteristics (UNWTO, 1994). In established markets, the focus may be on desired changes in these characteristics, and these changes should be paired with changes in the services and facilities being offered (UNWTO, 1994). Marketing objectives typically include (Wahab, 1976, p.26):

a) Profit maximization in the long run.

b) Balanced tourist growth and reinforcement of the economic impact of tourism.
c) Security and balance in the social and economic development plan.
d) Maintaining and enhancing the market share in the face of competition in tourism.
e) Enhancing the tourist image of the country.

It is important that marketing objectives are practical and have reasonable potential to be achieved. Some relevant attributes are as follows (Wahab, 1976, p. 25):

a) *realisitic*, i.e. that they have to be ambitious but *attainable* within the available and potential human, material, technical and financial resources;
b) *comprehensive* in the meaning that they have to englobe all that the organisation or enterprise wishes to achieve through marketing, as its management policy;
c) *flexible* in the sense that once it is realised that the objectives already formulated are unattainable for an unforeseen intervening obstacle, they can be easily modified and brought to the level of ambitious realism; and lastly,
d) to be, as far as possible, *specific* to facilitate a time phased target-sestting and workable strategies to achieve them (emphasis in the original).

Furthermore, it is not sufficient for the objectives to be examined as stand-alone items; it is crucial that they are integrated and consistent with the rest of the plan. As such, once the marketing objectives have been determined, they can be tested to determine how effective they are in achieving business and market success by determining how well they are (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009, p. 213):

- Integrated with long-run corporate goals and strategy.
- Precise and quantified in terms of sales volume, sales revenue and, if possible, market share.
- Specific in terms of what products are sold to which segments at what prices.
- Specific in terms of the time period in which they are to be achieved.
- Realistic and aggressive in terms of market trends (revealed by prognosis and SWOT analysis) and in relation to budgets available.
- Agreed and endorsed by the managers responsible for the programmes of activity designed to achieve results and clearly communicated to staff.
- Measurable directly or indirectly.

The framework for assessing the tourism marketing plan should examine the plan's objectives for adherence to these characteristics and make recommendations for improvement in cases where they are not adequately fulfilled.

7.3.2 Targets

Targets are used to determine whether or not the program was a success and are usually reflected in either a maintenance or increase in the target market (Faulkner, 1992). Targets

should be shared with all divisions of the organization (Reilly, 1988). The national tourism organization's targets are likely to be (Wahab, 1976, p.156):

- Percentage increase in tourist arrivals.
- Percentage increase in expenditure per tourist, or average length of stay.
- Percentage increase in tourist income per unit of marketing cost.
- Percentage increase in share of comparable markets.

Market targets are usually established every five years, and are expressed in terms of the numbers of tourists, their country/region of origin, average length of stay, and other similar types of characteristics (UNWTO, 1994). In established markets, the focus may be on desired changes in these characteristics, and these changes should be paired with changes in the services and facilities being offered (UNWTO, 1994).

When assessing the tourism marketing plan, it can be informative to examine the chosen target indicators to determine if they reflect the desired outcomes from tourism. For instance, an emphasis on tourist arrivals over tourism income or expenditure per tourist may be suggestive of future congestion and degradation of the destination and not necessarily of financial success. Additionally, the targets and their indicators should be in line with the plan's objectives. It is, thus, important to maintain attentiveness to the targets of the tourism marketing plan.

7.4 Marketing Strategy Process: Segmentation, Targeting, Positioning

The process of preparing a marketing plan is addressed extensively in the literature and there is considerable agreement concerning how to go about the process, and it is constantly being applied to all sorts of different products and services. The marketing strategy is generally viewed as consisting of three main activities: market segmentation, market targeting, and market positioning (McCabe, 2009). The outcomes of each of these activities is used in the subsequent activity, as shown in Figure 7.1. This figure shows the tasks of each activity, and the subsequent activities that follow from it. The following sections discuss elements in the tourism marketing plan that should be covered in the segmentation, targeting, and positioning process. It is helpful when undertaking an evaluation to determine if these are documented in the plan.

Figure 7.1 The Segmentation, Targeting and Positioning Process

Market segmentation	Market targeting	Market positioning
1. Identify bases for segmenting the market 2. Develop profiles of resulting segments	3. Develop measures of segment attractiveness 4. Select the target segments	5. Develop positioning for each segment 6. Develop marketing mix for each target segment
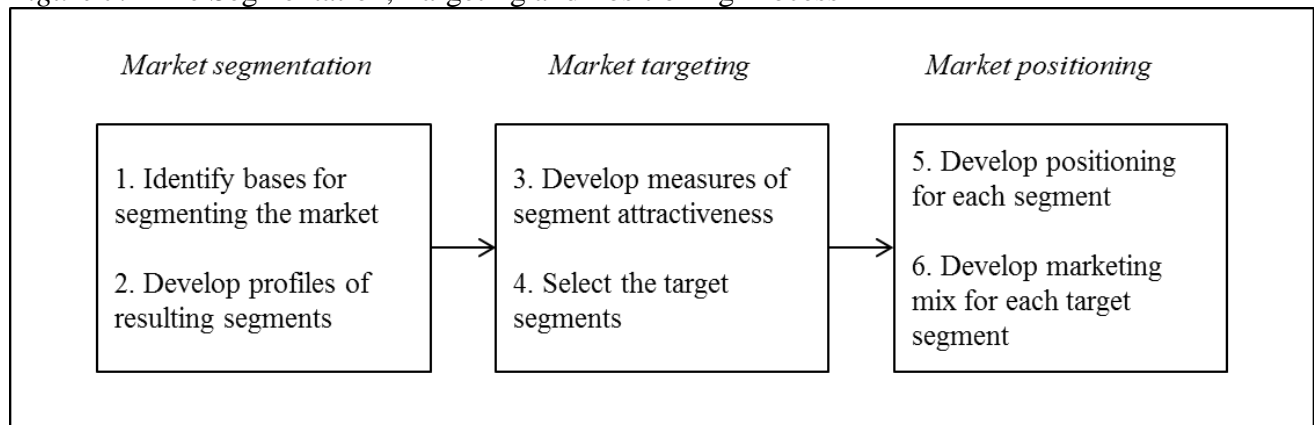
Source: Kotler, Bowen, & Makens (2006, p. 263)

7.5 Market Segmentation

A national-level tourism plan should include a discussion of potential market segments that could potentially be targeted. Market segmentation is the process of aggregating people into groups based on their characteristics. These characteristics can be their place of origin, needs, level of consumption, product awareness, exposure to communication channels, or other factors (Kotler, 2000). Marketing segmentation methods have evolved substantially over the years. Early approaches tended to adopt a mass market targeting method, in which the market was viewed as a whole. This view was later followed by product-variety marketing, where producers created subtle differences between products to satisfy the varying needs of buyers. These approaches then evolved further into a more target marketing orientation which is prevalent in marketing today. Target marketing relies on identifying market segments which are focused on tailoring products and services to meet the demands sought by potential customers (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2006).

7.5.1 Market Segmentation Assumptions

There are four assumptions that are made when employing market segmentation. These are (Coltman, 1989, p. 181):

1. Tourists can be grouped into different market segments, and each member of that group will have some common characteristics with all other members.
2. People have different vacation and travel needs and preferences depending on the particular market segment they are in.

3. A specific destination or tourist experience will appeal to some segments of the market more readily than others.
4. Tourism suppliers can improve their marketing offers by developing products that appeal to specific market segments.

7.5.2 Segmentation Methods

There are different ways by which a market can be segmented. These segmentation methods can be divided into three main types: demographic, behavioural, and psychographic (McCabe, 2009). Table 7.1 outlines some of the bases of market segmentation of tourists. Identification of the market segmentation methods that have been employed in creating the plan, if any, can facilitate recognition of the approach employed by the destination under assessment and some of the consequent emphases in the plan, such as the concerns and approaches employed by the tourism planners, as well as the effectiveness of the segmentation employed, and the targeting and positioning of a destination.

Table 7.1 Bases of Market Segmentation of Tourists

Demographic	Behavioural	Psychographic
- Age - Gender - Geographic region - Stage in the family life cycle - Education - Race, Ethnicity, culture - Occupation or social class - Sexual orientation	- Motivation/purpose of travel - Frequency of use/purchase - Decision-making process - Benefits sought from experience - Usage - Attitudes, perceptions, values, beliefs	- Personality - Identity - Lifestyle (activities, interests, opinions)

Source: McCabe (2009, p. 148)

7.5.3 Ways to Approach Segmentation

There are two basic ways by which segmentation is approached: *a priori* and *post hoc*. *A priori*, or forward, segmentation is based on prior observation of tourist behaviour patterns. *Post hoc*, or backward, segmentation is not based on prior observation, but rather segments the market based on the results of research surveys. The results of the survey are analyzed, and different groups are clustered based on similarities in response. The resulting segments may be described by a variety of segmentation typologies (UNWTO, 2007).

There are several options for segmenting target markets. Segmentation options can generally be divided into three main approaches: single segmentation, selective segmentation, or exclusive segmentation. In single segmentation, or concentrated marketing, one base for segmentation is selected, and marketing efforts are focused on meeting the demands of this

market. With selective segmentation, or differentiated marketing, one marketing scheme is used to target as wide a market as possible although different products are offered to meet the demands of different segments. Finally, with exclusive market segmentation, or undifferentiated marketing, everyone in the market for the product or service is viewed as a potential customer, and a uniform marketing campaign is carried out across a variety of media channels to target the largest possible group (McCabe, 2009). Examination of the segmentation strategy employed in creating the marketing plan can be helpful in its assessment. The types of activities offered by the destination and the proposed promotion techniques, among other planning considerations, should be in line with the selected segmentation approach. For instance, if the destination offers a niche product that caters to a specific market, it would not make sense to employ undifferentiated marketing. It is therefore crucial that the approach to segmentation is identified in order to assess the legitimacy of the marketing plan as a whole.

7.6 Market Targeting

Decisions for which markets to target should be made based on which markets can generate the most benefits to the region. This is usually a function of the segment's sales potential, competition for the segment, cost to attract the segment, and capability of the region to service the segment (Mill & Morrison, 1998).

7.6.1 Assessing the Effectiveness of a Segment to Target

There are different aspects that should be examined when assessing the effectiveness of a market segment (Heath & Wall, 1992; Lumsdon, 1997). For instance, one approach is to consider the presence of the following characteristics in assessing the effectiveness of a market segment. A market segment should be identifiable, cohesive, measurable, accessible, substantial, and actionable (Lumsdon, 1997). A more comprehensive list, which covers two additional components, stability and competiveness, is that proposed by Heath and Wall (1992, p. 102):

- *Measurability*: Is it possible to determine how many potential tourists are in this segment?
- *Accessibility*: Can these tourists be reached through promotion and through existing and potential methods of distribution?

- *Substantiality*: Are there sufficient numbers of tourists in this segment to support a marketing effort aimed specifically at them?
- *Defensibility*: Are the tourist characteristics unique enough to justify a separate program targeted at them? Is such a program immune to the mass-marketing approach of competitors?
- *Stability*: As this market develops, will this segment maintain its differences, or will these differences disappear?
- *Competitiveness*: Does the regional tourism organization, and do the tourism business units in the region, have a relative advantage over the competition with regard to this particular market segment?
- *Feasibility*: Is it feasible to aim a different marketing mix at each segment of interest?

Due to their comprehensiveness, these criteria can be used to assess the appropriateness of the selected target market segment.

7.6.2 Limitations of Target Marketing

Although selecting target markets has many benefits, there are some limitations associated with it. Some scenarios in which it is not in the best interest of marketers to employ segmentation include situations where the region has limited resources, the tourism market is relatively homogeneous, and if competitors have already dominated most segments. Then it may be wise to focus on one of the few remaining segments (Heath & Wall, 1992). Accordingly, different options should be considered, and it will need to be decided whether to employ market segmentation versus undifferentiated marketing. It is important to remain mindful of this when assessing the tourism marketing plan, and to consider whether the selected segmentation strategy is suitable for and compatible with other aspects of the plan.

7.7 Market Positioning

After target markets have been determined, marketing planners typically develop a positioning strategy to place their destination in a position relative to that of competitor destinations. The success of a destination's market positioning strategy largely relies on its

ability to develop and portray differences between itself and competitor destinations (Heath & Wall, 1992).

7.7.1 Developing Market Position

In order to determine the strategic market position, there are four questions that the strategic marketing plan should typically address (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009, p. 183):

- Where are we now, in the industry and market spaces we occupy?
- What opportunities are emerging in a changing world, which we could develop and aim to lead?
- Where do we want our organization to be in 5 or more years' time?
- What decisions do we have to make now to get to where we want to be?

It may be that other questions are addressed in addition to these, or that these questions are not addressed directly. The main point here is that the present market situation should be appreciated as well as potential opportunities for the future, and that the future marketing initiatives should be informed by both of these. Once these questions have been addressed, then the marketing objectives should be evident. In fact, Faulkner (1992) suggested that the marketing objective is usually to increase the level of visitation and its positive impacts. Increasing spending and number of tourists, and prolonging length of stay are some common means of doing this.

The optimum positioning strategy is usually to offer a unique and outstanding feature that other destinations cannot offer. Some guidelines to facilitate this include (Heath & Wall, 1992, p. 117):

- Look for an unfulfilled need. The best strategic opportunity might be an unserved segment.
- Do not position yourself between segments. Any advantage from a position in between two segments (such as a larger target market) is offset by the potential failure to satisfy either segment.
- Do not serve two segments with the same strategy. Usually, a successful strategy with one segment cannot be transferred to another segment.

- Do not position yourself in the middle of the map. The middle usually means a strategy that is not clearly perceived to have any distinguishing characteristics.

7.7.2 Marketing-Mix Program

After the market position has been developed, a marketing-mix program that is reflective of this position should be constructed. The positioning strategy greatly contributes to shaping all of the marketing mix elements (Cravens & Lamb, 1986) and, thus, is the focal point of the marketing strategy (Cravens & Woodruff, 1986). The marketing mix is a comprehensive concept that covers four essential aspects of marketing: product, price, place, and promotion, all of which should be incorporated into marketing evaluation (Shaw, 1992). These are the 'controls' that a marketing manager uses to reach the marketing objective. The marketing mix for a destination depends on the destination itself, the target market, as well as other social, environmental and economic considerations (Buhalis, 1999).

7.7.2.1 Product

A product is anything that can be offered to a market to satisfy a want or need. These can include physical goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information, and ideas (Kotler, 2000, p. 394). In tourism, product components encompass various aspects including the basic design of the product offered to tourists such as the vacation package; the style and ambiance of the product; the service, including the staff that delivers the service; and the branding of the product (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). Socio-cultural, environmental resources and public goods are also part of the tourism product. A summary of some tourism product elements can be found in Table 7.2. Destinations should market their products by emphasizing their uniqueness rather than by adopting a mass tourism approach to help attract new, sophisticated consumers who seek an authentic experience and are willing to pay a higher price (Buhalis, 1999).

Table 7.2 Tourism Product Elements

Travel	-	By air, rail, ship, coach, river vessel, or hired car.
Accommodation	-	In a hotel, motel, apartotel, holiday-camp, or amp-site
Entertainment or services	-	Visits to night-clubs, son et lumiere, cultural or special-interest side-trips, etc.
Foreign currency	-	In the form of cash or negotiable travelers cheques, within limits fixed by source and destination governments.
Insurance	-	To cover death, injury, or sickness of passengers and/or third parties, or damage to and loss of property.
Destination products	-	Handicrafts, souvenirs, food and drink products, with duty-free allowances fixed by the source government.

Source: Wahab (1976, p. 96)

Butler's (1980) tourism life cycle product life-cycle is of particular relevance to this market mix item. All products have a life-cycle. The life-cycle can be short or long, but all products are launched, mature, level off, and then decline. They can then be rejuvenated, but the basic concept nevertheless applies (Wahab, 1976).

In order for the product mix to maintain competitiveness and viability, it should be periodically assessed in terms of the quality, centrality and market viability of the product mix, and readjustments should be made where deemed necessary (Heath & Wall, 1992). Some products are core, primary products, or *product leaders* while others are secondary (Kotler & Fox, 1985). The behaviours of these products are different, and should be treated accordingly.

7.7.2.2 Price

Price is one of the most flexible elements of the marketing mix. It can be easily and quickly altered, and directly influences the revenue (Kotler, 2000). In tourism, there are usually published prices and discounted or promotional prices. These different prices serve to cater to different market segments and to manipulate demand particularly to offset seasonality and competition (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). Price and quality are highly related. Table 7.3 shows the relationship between these two items, and the various pricing strategies that can be created as a combination of the two.

It is important to note, however, that there are several factors that play a role in determining destination pricing. These include the pricing and market policies of individual enterprises, national economic policies and conditions, both at the destination and the place of

origin. Additionally, the cost of living, inflation and exchange rates play a substantial role in contributing to price determination. Planners can influence some elements of pricing such as setting ceiling and price floors and even suggesting prices to different tourism businesses, but these can be difficult to enforce (Buhalis, 1999). Destinations can only demand high prices if they have unique experiences to offer, for which consumers are willing to pay higher prices, but even then consumers must perceive these prices as a fair value for their money (Buhalis, 1999).

Table 7.3 Nine Price-Quality Strategies

| | | Price | | |
		High	Medium	Low
Product Quality	High	1. Premium strategy	2. High-value strategy	3. Super-value strategy
	Medium	4. Overcharging strategy	5. Medium-value strategy	6. Good-value strategy
	Low	7. Rip-off strategy	8. False economy strategy	9. Economy strategy

Source: Kotler (2000, p. 457)

Some of the common problems with handling pricing include that it is overly cost-oriented; it is not updated frequently enough to accommodate market changes; it is set independently to other marketing mix elements; and does not have enough variation to cater to different market segments (Kotler, 2000).

7.7.2.3 Place

Place, or distribution, is the marketing mix element that includes the various activities undertaken to make the product accessible and available to target customers (Kotler, 2000, p. 87). It is the channels through which the customer obtains information about the product, purchases the product, or experiences the product. In its broadest sense it includes all of the environments where suppliers, intermediaries, and customers operate (UNWTO, 2007). In tourism most distribution occurs through sales intermediaries (Mill & Morrison, 1998). Airline seats, hotel rooms, and even sightseeing excursions are offered by travel agents in vacation packages (Heath & Wall, 1992). The internet has also gained popularity as many tourists prefer the convenience of making bookings and purchases online without intervention from sales agents and middlemen (Briggs, 2001).

113

The internet has become the point of sale that customers visit to gain access to tourist products, and has therefore become a 'place' item in the marketing mix consideration (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). The internet lends itself well to online promotion and sales of tourism products. Tourism is an information-intensive product that consumers enjoy researching online, and because the products are relatively expensive, the internet is a useful medium for comparing prices (Briggs, 2001).

The main objective of this marketing mix element is to deliver the right quality and quantity of a product, in the right place, at the right time, at the right cost, to the right customer (Buhalis, 1999, p. 112). This can be a source of competitive advantage for destinations because it influences cost, supports product differentiation, and contributes to creating a powerful brand image (Buhalis, 1999).

7.7.2.4 Promotion

Promotion includes all of the activities the company undertakes to communicate and promote its products to the target market (Kotler, 2000, p. 87). The aim of promotion is for as many people as possible to become aware of the product, and to give it a try and that they are pleased after trying the product. It is thus necessary that the relationship between tourists' expectations and reality are well coordinated (Wahab, 1976).

Tourism promotion is primarily composed of advertising, publicity, public relations, and incentives (Gunn, 1994). Common marketing campaign techniques are listed in Table 7.4. These techniques are used to increase product awareness, stimulate demand, and generally create incentives to purchase the product (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). A*bove the line* as well as *below the line* promotional techniques can be used. Above the line promotion includes radio, television press, and poster campaigns; while below the line promotion refers to participating in relevant travel and tourism fairs, and distributing brochures to prospective partners and consumers (Buhalis, 1999).

It is difficult to design a cost-effective promotional mix as a result of the diversity of suppliers at the destination and consumers around the world. Tourism planners usually assume the role of facilitator in promotion, and thus often lead promotional campaigns that tourism suppliers should follow (Buhalis, 1999). Marketers need to be cautious that they do not

misrepresent destinations and activities being promoted. For instance, if visitors are not allowed to enter certain areas they should not be illustrated in brochures and other promotional literature (Gunn, 1994).

Table 7.4 Principle Marketing Campaign Techniques Used in Travel and Tourism

Activity	Notes
Paid for media advertising	Includes television, press, radio and outdoor. Also includes tourist board and other travel guides, books and brochures.
Internet	Websites/banner advertising and links to other sites.
Direct mail/door to door	Includes sales literature and print items specially designed for distribution for this purpose.
Public relations	All media exposure achieved as editorial matter. Also other forms of influence achieved over target groups—customers and stakeholders.
Sponsorship	An alternative form of media to reach specified target groups.
Exhibitions/shows/workshops	Important alternative forms of distribution and display for reaching retail, wholesale and consumer target groups.
Personal selling	Via meetings, telephones, e-mail and workshops. Primarily aimed at distributors and intermediaries purchasing on behalf of groups of consumers.
Sales literature (print)	Especially promotional brochures and other print used in a servicing/facilitation role.
Sales promotion	Short-term incentives offered as inducements to purchase, including temporary product augmentation. Covers sales force and distribution network as well as consumers.
Price discounting	A common form of sales promotion. Includes internet offers and extra commission and bonuses for retailers.
Point of sale displays and merchandising	Posters, window dressing, displays of brochures and other materials both of a regular and temporary incentive kind.
Familiarization trips and educationals	Ways to motivate and facilitate distributor networks through product sampling. Also used to reach and influence journalists.
Distribution networks and commission	Organized systems or channels through which prospective customers achieve access to products. Includes CRSs and the internet.

Source: Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod (2009, p. 223)

Promotion programs are typically prepared for three- to five-year periods. Some considerations that should be accounted for when preparing the promotional program are the marketing strategy, distribution channels, available techniques, and the budget (UNWTO, 1994).

7.8 Conclusion

Many of the targets discussed in this chapter are frequently presented in terms of numbers of tourists or types of tourists. This is not meant to suggest that tourism is an end in itself rather than a means for development. Rather, it means that the marketing plan should be used to attract the segments of tourists and types of tourism determined to best contribute to a broader goal such as improving the quality of life of residents as determined by other elements in the overall tourism plan.

This chapter examined elements that should be included in assessing a tourism marketing plan. It is important to remain mindful of the fact that plans will differ in many ways, including their goals and objectives, as will their presentation format and use of different concepts. Therefore, it is crucial to consider the context of the plan as part of the assessment of it.

Different elements of the marketing plan have been discussed and priorities and issues that should be present have been identified. In addition, potential problematic areas and issues to avoid have been discussed. These elements serve as the framework for assessing tourism marketing planning. The following elements of the tourism marketing plan have been covered:

- Mission statement: aspects that should be included in a tourism marketing plan's mission statement and other considerations that should be taken into account in the mission statement.
- Strategy: the criteria by which the adequacy of a strategy may be evaluated are outlined, and ten classic marketing strategies.
- Objectives and targets: components typically present in tourism marketing objectives, characteristics that they should have, and factors by which to determine their likelihood of achieving success. Likely targets by which to measure the success of the program are also mentioned.
- Marketing strategy process: the processes related to segmentation, targeting and positioning, including how to assess their effectiveness in a marketing plan.

The identification of key characteristics that should be present in each of the above elements serves to provide a framework by which to assess the status of the overall tourism marketing plan.

7.9 Summary of Assessment Framework

Tourism is frequently encouraged for development purposes and it can be helpful to assess the plans on which such developments are based. To date, assessing tourism plans has been a long, tedious and expensive process. As a result, this has not been done frequently. This has detracted from the ability to learn from the successes and failures of the past, and reduced the likelihood that tourism plans will be beneficial to the healthy development of a destination. This thesis suggests that the assessment of a few basic elements from planning documents can provide much insight into the tourism plan and can, thus, enhance its employment for development. The integrated framework for the assessment of tourism plans proposed by this thesis draws together different concepts from the literature and combines them to form an assessment framework. This framework is divided into four key elements that are to be considered in the assessment of a tourism plan: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. Table 7.5 presents a summary of the framework which contains these key elements and their sub-elements that are examined in this thesis.

This chapter concludes Part II. Part III is an application of Part II, where the factors that have been presented on each of the elements: goals and objectives, approaches to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing; are applied to assess Egyptian tourism plans.

Table 7.5 Summary of Framework for Assessment

1. Goals and Objectives
   - Goals (McIntosh, 1977; Gunn, 1994; Sinha, 1998; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003)
   - Objectives (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984)

2. Approach to Tourism Planning
   - Stage of evolution (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998)
     1. Unplanned tourism development era
     2. Beginning of partly supply-oriented tourism planning period
     3. Entirely supply-oriented tourism planning period
     4. Market or demand-oriented tourism development planning period
     5. Contemporary planning approach
   - Theoretical position (Khakee, 1998)
     - Rational planning
     - Incrementalism
     - Advocacy planning
     - Implementation-oriented planning
     - Strategic planning
     - Transactive planning
     - Negotiative planning
     - Communicative planning
   - Mutually-exclusive approaches
     - Market vs. product-led approach (Inskeep, 1991)
     - Interactive vs. conventional planning (Lang, 1988)
     - Development first vs. tourism first approach (Burns, 1999)
     - Mass tourism vs. niche marketing (Getz, 2001)
   - Non-mutually exclusive approaches; i.e. concepts of planning (Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 2001)

3. Institutional Elements
   - NTA structure and functions (WTO, 1994)
   - Institutional elements of tourism (Inskeep, 1991; WTO, 1994)
     - Manpower planning
     - Organizational structures of tourism
     - Tourism-related legislation
     - Tourism investment incentives

4. Marketing
   - Tourism destination marketing planning
     - Mission statement (Heath & Wall, 1992)
     - Strategy (Wahab, 1976; Jain, 1993)
     - Objectives and targets (Wahab, 1976)
   - Marketing strategy
     - Segmentation (Coltman, 1989; McCabe, 2009)
     - Targeting (Heath & Wall, 1992)
     - Positioning
       - Strategy (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009; Heath & Wall, 1992)
       - Marketing mix (Wahab, 1976; Kotler & Fox, 1985; Heath & Wall, 1992; Mill & Morrison, 1998; Buhalis, 1999; Kotler, 2000; Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009)

PART III: APPLYING THE FRAMEWORK- EGYPTIAN NATIONAL TOURISM PLAN

This section assesses Egyptian tourism planning based on the above framework for assessment, covered in Chapters 4 to 7, by reviewing tourism planning documents, and other relevant documents where necessary. Details of the performance of the national Egyptian tourism plan on each of the four assessment criteria are each described in a separate chapter. But first, the history of tourism planning and performance is discussed in Chapter 9 and justification is made for Egypt as a choice as a suitable case study location.

Chapter 8: Research Setting

The framework discussed in Part II is applied to Egypt's national-level tourism plan, the National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP), in the subsequent chapters. First, however, this chapter sets the stage by describing the recent history of various economic, social and political changes in Egypt. This is followed by a description of the history of tourism planning and development in Egypt, and an overview is provided of the role of tourism in Egypt today. This information supports the argument that Egypt is an appropriate place for this case study application due to the history of tourism planning and the importance of tourism to the national economy.

8.1 Historical Background

In order to understand the role of tourism in Egypt, it is necessary to examine recent changes that have occurred in the Egyptian economic and political spheres. Contemporary Egyptian development is often divided into three phases: the state-controlled economy under Nasser (1952-1970), Sadat's economic liberalisation (1971-81), and economic liberalization and structural adjustment programmes under Mubarak (1981-2011) (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2003). These eras are not as clearly defined as may be implied by this division; however each of these eras is marked by particular economic and political ideologies, and has contributed to the shaping of the situation in Egypt today. The major influences of each of these eras are described in the subsequent paragraphs.

8.1.1 Nasser and Socialism

The first era is that of Nasser from 1952 to 1970. A number of changes took place under Nasser's leadership and the consequences of many of them still resonate in Egypt today. One of the most influential changes was the introduction of a socialist national policy. This resulted in the strengthening of the public sector and weakening of the private sector. Agriculture was one of the most impacted sectors as land was confiscated from families who owned more than 42 ha. This land was redistributed, resulting in partitioning of the land and drawbacks in production. Additionally, foreign and national private companies were nationalised. This resulted in

120

mismanagement and deterioration of these companies. Additionally, during this period, Egypt was involved in two wars against Israel, in 1956 and 1967. It was defeated in both. These wars weakened the Egyptian economy. The Soviet Union was a strong ally at the time and it helped Egypt to build the Aswan High Dam which was a major project during this era. Arguably, Egypt was economically dependent on the Soviet Union for many years (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2003).

8.1.2 Sadat and the Open-Door Policy

During the rule of Sadat from 1971 to 1981, the Egyptian economy underwent drastic changes. Sadat shifted Egyptian policy from socialism to an open door policy. He promoted the private sector and attempted to create an environment that was conducive to investment of foreign and national capital to end the problem of the flight of capital which was prevalent during the previous period. The economic liberalization policy also resulted in a flood of foreign goods entering the country and local manufacturers had difficulty competing with the imports. It was also during this time that Islam gained some momentum, and the Muslim Brotherhood re-appeared after years of suppression under Nasser. Sadat also improved relations with the West, and signed the Camp David Agreement in 1979, ending a period of war with Israel (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2003).

8.1.3 Mubarak and Economic Liberalization

The third era is that of Mubarak from 1981 to 2011. This era is by far the longest and it can be argued that it is still prevalent today. Mubarak did not present radically new policies as his predecessors did. Rather, he followed in the steps of Sadat by maintaining good relations with the West, and taking measures to improve the situation to encourage private investment. Starting in 1991, structural adjustment policies were implemented under pressure from the International Monetary Fund (IMF). These policies applied strict measures for economic liberalization, such as reducing tariffs on imports and subsidies on goods. These policy changes resulted in devaluation of the Egyptian pound and an increase in the trade deficit from US$9.8 billion to US$11.6 billion from the year 1998 to the year 2000. One of the most important of Mubarak's goals was a reduction in the trade deficit and, thus, Egypt has thus been working to increase its exports and limit its imports. However, it has had a difficult time competing in the international market (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2003). Mubarak had a cautious approach to dealing with Islamists at

first, but later dealt with them more stringently after they organized an assassination attempt on the president and members of his cabinet (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2003).

Egypt has sustained positive Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth for the past two decades under the rule of Mubarak, with a general trend of increase in the growth rate as shown in Figure 8.1, which graphs the percent growth in GDP over this time period. Similarly, there has been a substantial growth in the Human Development Index (HDI), which is a composite index that combines three dimensions of human development: health, education, and income. The growth in HDI in Egypt is shown in Figure 8.2

Figure 8.1 Growth Rates in Egyptian GDP from 1991-2009

Source: CBE (2010)

Figure 8.2 HDI Growth in Egypt from 1980-2011

Source: UNDP (2011)

122
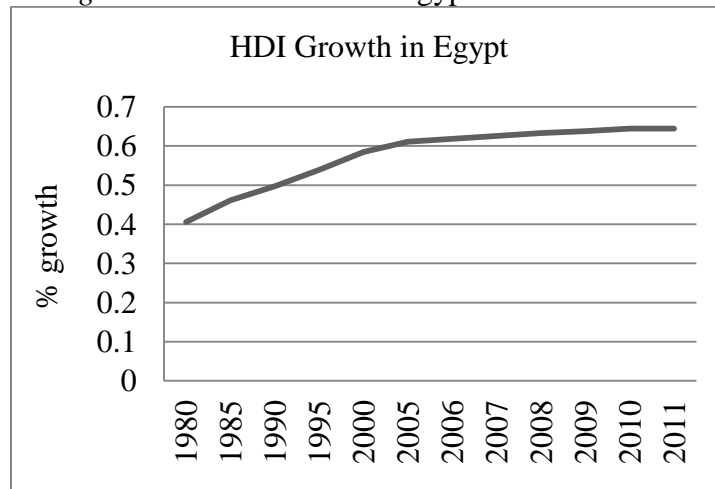
Economic development is of critical importance to Egyptian national policies, and tourism has been a significant contributor. The following sections describe the history of tourism growth and tourism planning in Egypt and, by doing so, indicates why Egypt is an appropriate setting for this research.

8.1.4 Egypt Today

Egypt is now in a transitory phase. The remnants of Mubarak's government are still prevalent in the government and, following the abrupt removal of Mubarak, Egyptians are finding it difficult to replace his regime. It is, thus, difficult to forecast what the future holds, but the strengthened role of Islamists may be a threat to tourism because they are against some activities that they associate with tourism. Nevertheless, this should not affect the assessment of Egyptian tourism plans for, although they reflect the context in which they were created, the environment in which they operate has long been turbulent. Assessment of plans is a worthwhile undertaking with value regardless of the uncertainties associated with current events in Egypt.

8.2 History of Tourism in Egypt

Tourism in Egypt is as old as tourism itself. Tourists have always been curious to visit high-profile historical attractions such as the pyramids of Giza. For a long time, however, tourism was unplanned and the government held the view that tourism was the business of the private sector and, thus, there was little involvement on the part of the state.

In the early 1950s, the potential of tourism as an economic activity began to receive more official attention and the Egyptian government began to take steps to facilitate its development and to attract international hotel operations. The first was the Hilton hotel chain in 1953 and it was followed by others, including the Sheraton hotel corporation in 1966, and the Meridian Corporation in 1970. Prior to this, the market was dominated by Egyptian hotel companies, many of which were well-known and widely respected, such as the Winter Palace hotel in Luxor, and the Shepheard Hotel and Mena House Hotel in Cairo (Helmy, 1999).

However, government involvement in tourism pre-dates this period for the first formal tourist authority was established in 1935 as a governmental tourism bureau. International tourism grew and reached reached 75,000 tourists annually, spending an average of 30 nights, when the

1952 revolution took place. Egyptian tourism underwent many disruptions largely due to political instability, such as the 1956, 1967 and 1973 wars which not only dissuaded tourists from visiting Egypt, but also diverted national economic and tourism development efforts (Helmy, 1999).

In the 1970s, the tourism sector began to flourish. This was attributable to two major factors: the signing of the peace treaty with Israel, and the economic liberalization policy adopted under former President Sadat (Helmy, 1999). During this time, tourism gained greater attention and importance as a result of its potential in contributing to economic growth (Daher, 2007). Tourism was viewed as a tool by which to adjust the deficit in the balance of payments, create employment, and encourage local Egyptian industries and related products (Helmy, 1999). This was of particular importance at the time due to growing pressure from the IMF to decrease Egypt's budget deficit (Richter & Steiner, 2008). However, there were a number of obstacles that hindered the expansion of tourism. The national tourism authority at the time, the Egyptian Tourism Development Authority (TDA), believed that the main challenges were related to infrastructure, accommodation capacity, shortage of data about potential tourism areas, lack of experience in tourism planning and development, and insufficient funds (Helmy, 1999). These obstacles were exacerbated by the concentration of tourism in Cairo, Giza, and Upper Egypt. The development of coastal regions and improving the infrastructure of existing tourism areas were seen as being a suitable solution. In order to facilitate this, legislation, investment policies and tourism development plans were created (Helmy, 1999). These are identified in Table 8.2.

Since then, Egyptian development policies have emphasized the role of the private sector (Gray, 1998), and policy has shifted towards becoming more market-oriented in its approach (Omran, 2004). The 1970s economic liberalization policy drove growth in the tourism sector by private investors (Gray, 1998), and tourism revenue began to play an increasingly large role in the Egyptian national economy, particularly during the 1980s when the impacts of the Gulf War resonated in the Egyptian economy from reduced aid and remittances of Egyptians working in the Gulf (Sivan, 1997). An evolving institutional and regulatory framework contributed to the growth in the tourism sector, and is illustrated in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 The Institutional and Regulatory Framework of Tourism Development in Egypt

Year	Measure	Content
1971	*Law No. 65/1971*	First step of the Infitah [open-door] politics. Introduction of Free-zones and granting of the possibility to build joint ventures with public companies of foreign investors.
1973	*Law No. 1/1973*	Overall competence for the management of the tourism sector is given to the Ministry of Tourism (MOT). Law no 1/1973 gives MOT full responsibility to regulate the sector. The new law grants tax exemptions for 5 years and the exemption from import duties for qualified tourism companies
	Law No. 2/1973	Further powers are given to the MOT including the *exclusive* competence to designate areas for tourism development/expansion
1974	*Law No. 43/1974*	Opening of the economy to foreign investors, who are allowed to invest as minority partner(s) in joint ventures (majority of 51% has to be Egyptian). Projects under Law 43/1974 enjoy tax exemptions for a period of up to fifteen years. Admission of bank-joint-ventures. Guarantee of property rights for Egyptian land and for capital of foreign firms.
1977	*Law No. 32/1977*	Third, fundamental law of the Infitah. Granting foreign investors the right to repatriate profits and to withdraw freely their investment. Amendment of Law 43/1974 encourages domestic investment through legal equalisation of domestic with foreign capital concerning the Infitah-privileges.
1981	*Presidential decree No. 712/1981*	The MOT is provided with extended competencies for tourism facilitation, research, development, industry control, tourism marketing, coordination and policy.
1982	*Five-year-plan, 1982-1987, div. ministerial decr.*	Implementation of five-year-plan fosters infrastructural development on the Sinai and on the Red Sea. Easing of regulations for foreign firms to manage and operate hotels. Liberalisation of airline rules.
1988	*Prime Ministerial decree No. 933*	The MOT receives the exclusive competence for the development planning and coordination of the provision of infrastructure in all designated tourism zones.
1989	*Law No. 230/1989*	First *Investment Law* replaces regulations set by Law No. 43/1974; the new law allows for full foreign ownership in some economic sectors, including tourism, includes guarantees against expropriations and against the deprivation of operational licences for private companies are provided, but still maintains restrictions for foreign investments. Investments are promoted in desert areas where tax holidays for ten years are granted.
1991	*SAP*	Privatization of public owned hotels and tourism companies is part of the agreement. Substantial privatisation does not take place.
	Law No. 7/1991	Establishment of the Tourism Development Authority (TDA). The TDA bundles the formerly fragmented responsibilities for the spatial planning of tourism development in Egypt. Generation of a comprehensive plan for tourism development, covering all costs along the desert areas of the country.
1994	*Law No. 38/1994*	Foreign Exchange Law guaranteeing unrestricted repatriation of profits and capital, and protection of brand names and intellectual property.
1997	*Law No. 8/1997*	Second Investment Law simplifies the existing rules and regulations for the establishment of firms and 16 economic sectors are defined, which receive extraordinary legal and fiscal privileges including all kinds of tourism businesses with defined minimum standards. Tourism companies established under law 8/1997 receive 20 years tax exemption and grant facilities of import regulation and tariffs.

Source: Richter and Steiner (2007, p.14)

Since the 1980s, tourism has undergone significant growth and has played a larger role in the economy. It is important to mention that, at the same time, tourism has been attacked by Islamic groups in Egypt. More than 120 attacks were carried out in the three-year period between 1992 and 1995, resulting in the death of 13 tourists and declines in tourist arrivals (Aziz, 1995). This is reflected in Figure 8.3, which shows the uneven growth in international visitor arrivals from 1982 to 2008. Despite the attacks on tourists, the graph reflects the enormous growth in the sector over the past two and a half decades.

Figure 8.3 Growth in Egyptian Tourism—International Visitor Arrivals
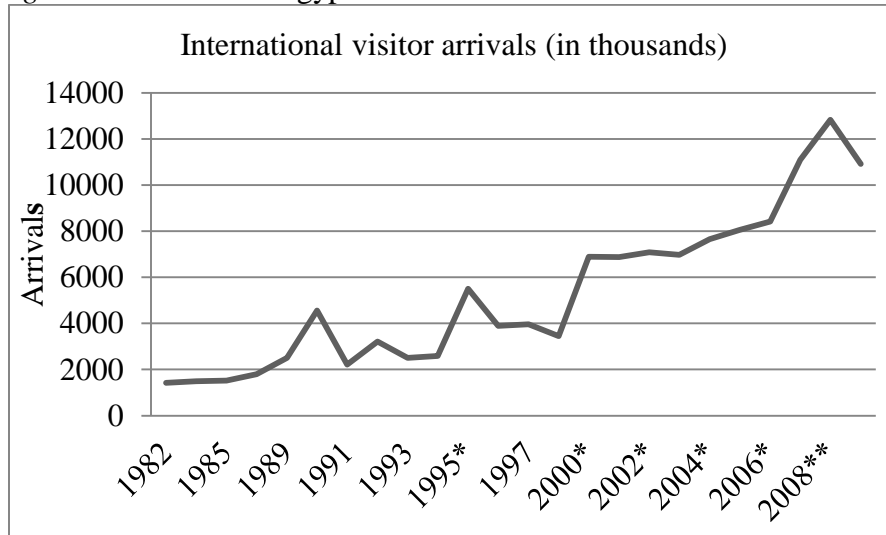
Sources: JICA (2000); *Egypt Tourism in Figures (MOT, 2006); ** (Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism, 2009)

The influence of Islamist groups on tourism is a looming threat following the January 25th 2011 revolution. The Muslim Brotherhood has become very influential in Egypt and they now hold the majority of seats in parliament. They are largely opposed to tourism because many practices associated with tourism, such as drinking, gambling, sex and nudity, are against Islamic rules and Egyptian traditions.

8.3 Evolution of Egyptian Tourism Planning

Tourism planning began with the instigation of the Ministry of Tourism (MOT) in 1965, but the role of this ministry was not influential in the Egyptian economy at the time. The MOT began to gain power following a presidential decree issued by Mubarak in 1981, which extended the responsibilities of the MOT in an attempt to defragment tourism planning, yet tourism

126

planning remained fragmented due to the strong military presence in many of the desired tourism development areas, such as along the Red Sea coast and the recently regained Sinai Peninsula. Another decree was issued in 1988 by the Prime Minister granting the MOT exclusive planning responsibility, including the coordination of infrastructure development in all designated tourism areas. Furthermore, Law No 230 of 1989 was issued to encourage tourism investment by guaranteeing against expropriations and deprivation of operating licenses of private companies. Other incentives were offered such as tax exemptions for a minimum of ten years (Richter & Steiner, 2008).

The first formal nationwide tourism development plan was prepared by the MOT with cooperation from the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) in 1978, and other plans followed. The role of the MOT grew with the establishment of the Egyptian Tourism Authority (ETA) and the Tourism Development Authority (TDA), which were established in the 1980s and 1990s respectively. The establishment of the TDA was a crucial step in Egyptian tourism planning because it was responsible for the spatial planning duties for tourism development in Egypt. It was during this time that a tourism master plan was developed, and it was created with support from Arthur D. Little, an American consultancy firm (Richter & Steiner, 2008). The TDA's task of developing tourist areas spatially enabled them to divide shorelines into tourism development areas, and necessary infrastructure such as roads and airports was provided by the state. Investment in tourism projects was further promoted by the Investment Law No 8 of 1997, which facilitated tourism investments by more broadly defining the types of projects that fell under the umbrella of tourism investments and, thus, could take advantage of investment incentives. Domestic investors were the first to start to invest in tourism development projects and, later, international investors also began to view Egyptian tourism as an economic opportunity. The Investment Law of 1997 encouraged this by simplifying bureaucracy related to establishing firms, and provided legal and fiscal privileges to tourism companies. These privileges included 20 years tax exemptions and lessening of import regulations and tariffs (Richter & Steiner, 2008).

Details of the chronology of the various Egyptian tourism plans are listed in Table 8.2, along with the corresponding number of international visitors for each year.

127

Table 8.2 Chronological Events of Tourism Development in Egypt

Year	Activity	International visitor arrivals (thousand)
1965	Establishment of Ministry of Tourism	
1965	Law on tourist establishments (Law No. 1)	
1968	Law on creation of chambers (Law No. 85)	
	Completion to relocate Abu Simbel temples and other 23 archaeological sites as work progressed on the Aswan High Dam	
1974	Law on foreign investment and zones (Law No. 43)	
1978	National Plan for tourism (the first plan for tourism development)	
1979	Inclusion of 5 monuments in the World Heritage List	
1981	Law for tourism promotion (Law No.124, superseding Law No.85)	
	Organizing Egyptian Tourism Authority (ETA) (Presidential Decree No.134)	
1982	The 1st National Five-Year Plan (1982-1987)	1,423.3
1983	Organizing the system of travel agencies (Law No.188)	1,497.9
1985	Reorganizing the Higher Council for tourism (Presidential Decree No.266)	1,518.4 1,795.0
1987	The 2nd National Five-Year Plan (1987-1992)	2,503.4
1989	The Investment Law (Law No. 230)	
	Establishment of the Tourism Development Unit in MOT (TDU)	
	Establishment of the Cairo International Conference Center (CICC)	
1991	Reestablishment of the Tourism Development Authority (TDA) from TDU	2,214.3
1992	The 3rd National Five-Year Plan (1992-1997)	3,206.9
1993	Tourism promotion plan	2,507.8
1994	Egypt's tourism development program and investment opportunities by MOT	2,582.0
	Designation of Tourism development areas by MOT	
1996	The Supreme Committee for investments approved 80 projects for tourism investment	3,895.9
1996	Alternative spatial strategy of tourism development	
	The strategy of tourism sector by MOT	
	Egypt and the 21st Century including tourism development strategy	
	Land Use Plan by the year 2017 including tourism land use scheme	
1997	Investment incentives and guarantees law (Law No.8)	
1997	The 4th National Five-Year Plan (1997-2002)	3,961.4
1998	Development Master Plan of South Egypt until Year 2017 by MHUUC	3.453.9

Source: JICA (2000)

As tourism began to play a larger role in the Egyptian economy, tourism planning gained importance and investments in tourism began to increase as tourism revenue increased and

proved that the sector was of high potential to the economy. Figure 8.4 shows the increase in tourism revenue from 1996 to 2008.

Figure 8.4 Revenue from Tourism in Egypt from 1996-2008
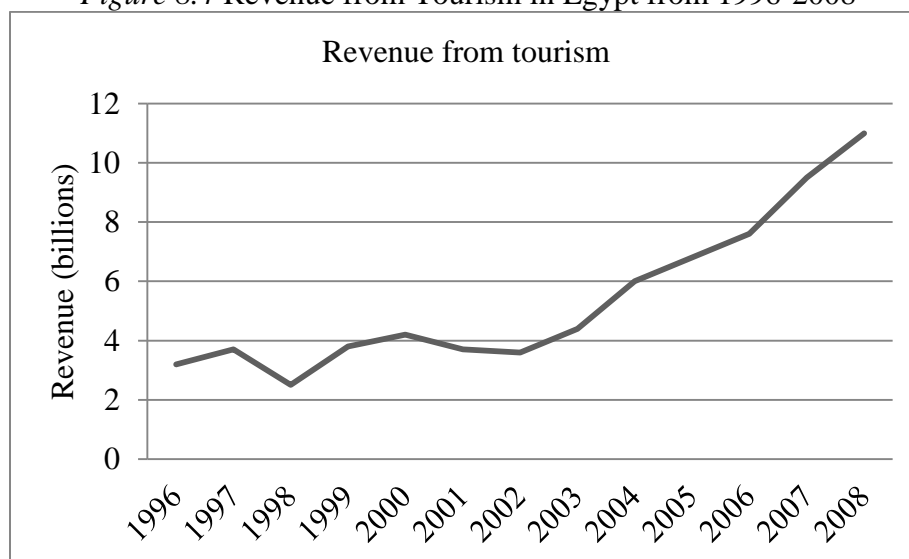
Sources: MOT (2006); NSTSP Five-year marketing plan (2009)

Egyptian tourism development planning began to take on a new importance and, as tourism planning is largely tied to broader national development plans, the tourism sector gained more attention in these plans. Egyptian national development plans are 5-year plans, which started in 1982, and are listed in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 Egyptian National 5-Year Development Plans

Plan	Time span
6th 5-year development plan	2007-2012
5th 5-year development plan	2002-2007
4th 5-year development plan	1997-2002
3rd 5-year development plan	1992-1997
2nd 5-year development plan	1987-1992
1st 5-year development plan	1982-1987

The earlier plans have very little, if any, mention of tourism, while the 6th 5-year development plan stresses the importance of tourism, and it is listed as the fourth-largest contributor to GDP during the period of the 5th 5-year development plan after manufacturing industries, natural gas, and trade. Tourism is listed as contributing 10.1% to GDP during this period, from 1997-2002, which is a significant leap from the previous period of a mere 3% contribution.

8.4 National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP)

The NSTSP was created to be in line with broader national development plans. The two major national development plans, "Vision 2020" and the Sixth National Development Plan are mentioned in the introduction of the NSTSP. It is stated that the main goals of these development plans are to achieve high and sustainable economic growth, alleviation of poverty, attenuation of income disparities, creation of productive jobs and gender equality. Tourism is viewed as being a sector that can facilitate the achievement of these goals due to the variety of jobs in the sector, particularly for women, that can employ individuals with a wide variety of different types and levels of education. Further, it is seen as being a means by which underdeveloped areas can be developed, particularly those with few resources for development. Finally, tourism is encouraged because it is viewed as a means by which cultural and natural resources can be conserved.

The MOT appointed a team of consultants through the TDA to create a long-term strategic tourism plan, the NSTSP. The team of consultants was comprised of the following four firms: Cotecno (Italian), Keios (Italian), Engineering Consultant Group (Egyptian), and Makary Consultants (Egyptian). These consultants were assigned the task of creating a national strategy, an action/implementation plan, and a marketing plan; and were required to report regularly to a steering committee comprised of members of the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and the MOT.

The creation of the NSTSP was carried out in three phases. Phase 1 consisted of a baseline review of existing capacities. Site visits and consultations with key stakeholders were conducted in order to gather information about tourism products, information systems, infrastructure, cultural heritage, marketing and the overall environment. Based on this review, the targets of increasing annual international tourist arrivals to 25 million and increasing daily spending by 30% were set.

Phase 2 consisted of drawing up strategies and policies to achieve the targets set in phase 1. This involved conducting research on environmental, social and economic conditions, which was used to inform a marketing strategy, land use plans, a small and medium-sized enterprise development strategy, and a human resources development strategy.

Phase 3 consisted of preparing a five-year action plan following a 'year zero' designated to initiate the plan by carrying out necessary organizational activities and initiatives. This was followed by a five-year period during which the strategy was to be implemented. The action plan for this period is designed to improve tourism facilities and services, and to implement the marketing and promotion programme. A five-year marketing plan is also included as a separate document. These documents are examined in the following sections in light of the previous discussion on the elements to consider when assessing tourism plans.

Other than the brief description of the phases and their objectives, it is difficult to know exactly what went on in each Phase and, thus, it would be difficult, if not impossible, for an outside researcher to assess the planning process. This is the case in many developing country contexts, where the planning process is a black box and decisions are made behind closed doors (Xiao & Wall, 2009). Nevertheless, one can argue that although the process influences the plan, the plan can be examined on its own. This is not only feasible and practical, but also valuable to the understanding of tourism planning and performance.

8.5 Conclusion

Egypt is a developing country which, like many others, employs tourism as a means to achieve economic development. Its long history of tourism and tourism planning, and the importance of tourism to the overall national economy render it an ideal choice for the assessment of tourism planning. The subsequent chapters assess Egyptian tourism plans and begin with an assessment of their goals and objectives.

Chapter 9: Goals and Objectives for Egyptian Tourism

This chapter examines at the goals and objectives of the Egyptian tourism plan, the NSTSP, in light of the discussion in Chapter 4. In Chapter 4, the methods for examining goals and objectives that can be drawn from the literature are presented. Different 'checklists' of goals that should be present in tourism plans are considered (McIntosh, 1997; Gunn, 1994; Sinha, 1998; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003), as well as a 'checklist' of factors that should be addressed by the objectives for the tourism plan (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). This chapter evaluates the NSTSP's goals and objectives based on these literatures.

9.1 Egyptian National Development Objectives

In order to assess Egypt's national tourism goals and objectives, consideration must first be given to the country's broader development aims and aspirations, as these should play a role in determining the direction of the tourism plan. Egypt's national development objectives are embodied by two key documents: Vision 2020 and the Sixth National Development Plan. In Vision 2020, the Egyptian government states its development goals until 2020. These "millennium goals" are: high and sustainable economic growth, alleviation of poverty, attenuation of income disparities, creation of productive jobs, and increased gender equality. The Sixth National Development Plan is Egypt's current formal development plan from 2007 to 2012 which, more specifically, defines the millennium goals outlined by Vision 2020 as: reducing population concentration in the Nile Valley and Delta, alleviating poverty and reducing social and regional disparities, reducing unemployment and increasing standards of living and quality of life to those prevailing in advanced countries.

Together the Vision 2020 and 6th National Development Plan, shown in Figure 9.1, constitute Egypt's development aspirations, and provide the foundation for the vision and goals for tourism development, as stated in the NSTSP. According to the NSTSP (p.9), tourism is viewed as having an "important role to play in achieving these goals", through its ability to contribute to the following issues:

- increased foreign exchange earnings;
- sustainable contribution to national income;

- enhanced employment and income opportunities;
- more equitable distribution of benefits;
- improved/enhanced recreational facilities;
- conservation of cultural and environmental resources.

Figure 9.1 National Development Objectives, Tourism Vision, and NSTSP Objectives

National Objectives
(Vision 2020 and *6th National Development Plan)*

High and sustainable economic growth, alleviation of poverty, attenuation of income disparities, creation of productive jobs and increased gender equality.

Tourism Vision

A mature, sustainable and responsible tourism industry contributing significantly to the economic development of Egypt and the quality of life of the people—primarily through enhancing contribution to national income, job creation and foreign earnings.

NSTSP

Objectives:
1. *Ensure an appropriate institutional framework*
2. *Ensure easy access, safety and security*
3. *Expand the product base*
4. *Provide the necessary infrastructure and superstructure*
5. *Improve the quality of service*
6. *Promote the product to the market*

In order to attend to the national-level development aspirations through the above-mentioned contributions of tourism, the NSTSP sets out to achieve six objectives for tourism (pp.10-11). These can be found in Appendix E. Each of these objectives is discussed in turn.

1. Ensure an appropriate institutional framework. This objective is broken down into two parts: the first is to define clear roles for the public and private sectors, and the second is to ensure that decision makers have access to timely and accurate information to facilitate and improve the decision-making process.
2. Ensure safety, security and easy access. This is particularly relevant to transportation, both by air and land where safety concerns have arisen in the past, in addition to inconveniences of immigration, security and customs.
3. Expand the product base. The purpose of this is to diversify the risk of the current tourism portfolio by adding new products and areas. This will also result in more

communities benefiting from tourism and reducing the stressors on existing tourism products.

4. Provide the necessary infrastructure and superstructure. Developing transportation and utilities in new tourism development areas will address the issue of migrant workers, which is viewed as being undesirable; and will enable tourism areas to be self-sufficient in energy and water resources. Small and medium-sized enterprises are seen as being vital components of tourism, requiring support, and which will benefit from improved infrastructure and superstructure. Additionally, it is seen that the private sector should finance the superstructure development, which requires creating an encouraging business environment.

5. Improve the quality of service. There are two components to this objective which are seen as being vital to improving the quality of tourism services in Egypt: improving the skills and calibre of tourism employees, and improving the quality of accommodations.

6. Promote the product to the market. The different Egyptian tourism product needs to be promoted internationally, and their purchase should be facilitated.

The following section examines these objectives in light of the literatures presented in Chapter 4 on factors that should be present in tourism goals and objectives.

9.2 Analysis of Egyptian Tourism Goals and Objectives

The literatures on tourism planning goals, as discussed in Chapter 4, distinguish between two main viewpoints on the goals and objectives of tourism plans: the view held by Gunn (1994), and that of Goeldner and Ritchie (2003). Gunn tends to emphasize tourism as a business that should offer quality services while Goeldner and Ritchie tend to emphasize the role that tourism plays in improving the standard of living of local residents. This is not to imply that other elements are not considered and that there is no overlap in the two views, rather it is the emphasis that differs. For the sake of comprehensiveness, the NSTSP objectives are assessed in light of each of these views, and Tables 9.1 and 9.2 compare the NSTSP's objectives with each.

Table 9.1 presents a matrix that compares the NSTSP's objectives with the aspects deemed crucial to tourism goals by Gunn (1994). Based on this comparison of these

characteristics, there seems to be an over-representation of the first two goals (enhanced visitor satisfaction, and improved economy and business success), and a much weaker presence, if any, of the second two goals (protected resource assets, and community and area integration). The third goal, of protected resource assets is highly underrepresented, with only one of the objectives relating to it, that of expanding and diversifying the product base, which is pursued for the sake of protecting resources as well as increasing the role of local communities, and diversifying the tourism product portfolio.

Table 9.1 Gunn's Goals compared with Egypt's Objectives for Tourism Planning

Egypt tourism plan objectives	Gunn's (1994) goals that should be present			
	Visitor satisfaction	Economy and business success	Protected resource assets	Community and area integration
Institutional framework		X		X
Easy access, safety and security	X			X
Expand product base	X	X	X	X
Infrastructure and superstructure	X	X		X
Quality of service	X	X		
Promotion to the market		X		

Table 9.2 Goeldner and Ritchie's Goals compared with Egypt's Objectives for Tourism Planning

Egypt tourism plan objectives	Goeldner and Ritchie's (2003) goals that should be present				
	Raising standard of living	Infrastructure and facilities	Appropriate development	Cultural, social, economic philosophy	Visitor satisfaction
Institutional framework		X			
Easy access, safety and security					X
Expand product base					X
Infrastructure and superstructure	X	X			X
Quality of service		X			X
Promotion to the market					

Table 9.2 presents a matrix that compares the NSTSP's objectives with the aspects deemed crucial to tourism goals by Goeldner and Ritchie (2003). This table shows that the goals of visitor satisfaction, and infrastructure and facilities are clearly emphasized while the other goals are largely neglected.

Overall, Egyptian tourism planning tends towards Gunn's view of planning rather than Goeldner and Ritchie's. The Egyptian tourism objectives include two aspects that are outside the scope of Goeldner and Ritchie's goals; these are expansion of the product base, and promotion to the market. Further, Goeldner and Ritchie focus on aspects that are outside the scope of Egyptian tourism objectives such as appropriate development, and cultural, social and economic philosophy. The factors that do overlap do so minimally. For instance, one of Goeldner and Ritchie's goals, raising the standard of living of locals, is only represented by infrastructure and superstructure improvements, which may be developed primarily to serve tourists, but separating the benefits of these to tourists and local people can be difficult and unwise.

9.3 Assessing the Comprehensiveness of the Objectives

Hogwood and Gunn (1984, pp. 159-164) described a checklist of questions about objectives. These are comprised of the main issues that should be addressed by objectives, which should be referred to periodically to ensure their presence. The following section examines the presence of each of these items in the Egyptian tourism development plan objectives.

1. Where you are now

Each objective includes a section entitled "background and issues" which describes the current situation regarding the respective objective, as well as issues that have been prominent in the past with regards to achieving that objective.

2. State where you want to be

The tourism vision is reflective of this: "A mature, sustainable and responsible tourism sector contributing significantly to the economic development of Egypt and the quality of life of its people—primarily through the creation of foreign earnings, public and personal income and

employment" (NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy, p.9). The aspirations of this vision however are not mentioned in a quantitative manner, suggesting that this may not in fact be a priority in developing Egyptian tourism.

3. Factors that are stopping you

Issues regarding the achievement of each objective are discussed briefly within the discussion of each objective in the planning document. For instance, the lack of accurate and timely information is stated as a hindrance towards ensuring the creation of an appropriate institutional framework. Financing is mentioned as the main factor hindering the improvement of infrastructure and superstructure, and it is suggested that the private sector should finance the desired improvements and that investment incentives should encourage this development. With regards to the objective of improving the quality of service, the calibre, skills and quantity of tourism employees are mentioned as being an obstacle that must be overcome through recruitment and training programs. For achieving the objective of ensuring safety, security and easy access, road safety is declared as being the main obstacle. Factors that are stopping the achievement of the goals of expanding the product base and promoting the product to the market are not mentioned.

4. Delineation of what is needed from other agencies

The NSTSP recognizes that the achievement of goals is contingent upon cooperation from ministries and bodies other than the MOT. The plan thus involves the creation of 13 panels to address topics that are seen as necessary to achieve the objectives. These panels (access, security, transport, health and safety, business, marketing, planning, human resources development, infrastructure, environment, culture, community, and research) are comprised of different representatives from appropriate ministries, associations and authorities. There are a total of 45 bodies mentioned, of which 23 are ministries, and the remaining are other public-sector bodies. There is no private-sector or local community representation, although one of the bodies included is municipalities, which may or may not choose to involve the local community. The role of the private sector is described in a separate section, which discusses public/private partnership (PPP) as a means for involving the private sector in traditionally public sector infrastructure projects, particularly in cases where the public sector lacks the equipment and capability to carry out required developments.

5. Allocation of responsibility within the agency

The Ministry of Tourism is divided into four main branches: the ETA, the TDA, the Egyptian Tourism Federation (ETF), and the Council for Sustainable Tourism (CST). The plan outlines which of these is to be a lead entity in achieving each of the activities under each objective; however, there are no details as to the specifics concerning to whom the tasks are to be delegated.

6. How multiple objectives will be handled

There is no mention of how different objectives that can potentially be incompatible will be addressed, no mention of prioritization, and distribution of resources. One of the major areas for incompatibility of objectives is sustainability. This is made mention of in a section dedicated to sustainability as it is mentioned that sustainability considerations are central to drafting the strategy. It is acknowledged that if this is not achieved, the quality and competitiveness of Egyptian tourism will suffer, and this will be reflected in the achievement of goals and objectives.

7. What will be regarded as 'success'?

Each objective has "objectively verifiable indicators" as well as means of verification that serve to indicate whether the objective has been achieved. For instance, Objective 2, which is to "ensure safety, security and easy access", is accompanied by the following indicators to determine its success, which are described in the Tourism Development Strategy (p.20) :

- Safe, sustainable and reliable air links between source markets and tourism centres in Egypt provided.
- Airport and border entry/exit facilities improved and web based visas available.
- Budget carriers operate in Egypt.
- Cairo developed as a major international travel hub and Alexandria's Borg el Arab airport developed as an alternative gateway.
- National airline privatised.
- Fast vehicle ferry service operating from Europe and improved Red Sea surface links from Saudi Arabia and Jordan.
- Reduced number of tourist deaths/injuries from road accidents.
- Reduced fears expressed by visitors (including potential visitors from key source markets).
- Greater freedom of movement for tourists.

These indicators are to be verified using: airlines', airports' and web visa statistics; EgyptAir's market shares and annual accounts; Ministry of Transport statistics; exit surveys; market research; and traffic statistics.

8. How success will be quantified

The Egyptian Ministry of Tourism adheres to the notion that success should be quantifiable as reflected by their selection of success criteria and methods of verification of objective achievement. Ultimately, success is to be quantified based on achieving a target of 25 million visitors by 2020, which is double the number of visitors in 2008. Furthermore, developers hope to achieve an increase in revenue of two and a half times what it was in 2008 by 2020.

9. Conditions upon which success is contingent

The major stated condition upon which the success of tourism is contingent is that there is continued economic growth both internationally and in Egypt, and that there is no outbreak of war or other major event that would significantly constrain the success of tourism outside of the regular fluctuations in economic cycles. Additionally, each objective is broken down into sub-objectives, and for each sub-objective, the assumptions that are made for that objective are stated. These assumptions are essentially the conditions upon which success is contingent. For instance, Objective 1 is to "ensure an appropriate institutional framework". This is broken down into two parts: a) to "improve the structure for the administration and development of tourism and clarify roles of the public and private sectors", and b) to "ensure that decision makers are in possession of accurate and timely information which permit optimum decisions to be made on all planning and operational matters". The success of each of these sub-objectives is contingent upon a stated assumption. These are, in their respective order, a) "an efficient structure is necessary for the administration and development of tourism with clear roles defined for the public and private sectors; and b) "decision makers need to be in possession of accurate and timely information to permit correct economic choices to be made" (NSTSP, 2009, pp. 10-11).

10. What to do if the objectives are not achieved

The possibility of failure is not considered and no provision is made for feedback to create more robust and flexible objectives that can be adapted throughout the process.

9.4 Recommendations

Based on this examination of Egyptian tourism goals and objectives, the conclusion can be drawn that broad goals often fail to be translated into the more specific objectives. Elements of sustainability and community development are mentioned in the title of the tourism development plan, National *Sustainable* Tourism Strategic Plan, as well as in the broad vision, but do not resonate into the more specific objectives. Furthermore, they are not quantifiable, and not among the criteria upon which success is to be measured. Prominent factors that resonate throughout the plan are elements of increasing tourist numbers and tourism revenue. These are quantifiable and their goals are, unequivocally, quantifiably stated in the planning documents. As mentioned earlier, Hogwood and Gunn (1984, p. 156) noted that a problematic element in organizational goals is that stated and real goals may be inconsistent. Perrow (1961) outlined the differences between what he called "official" versus "operative" goals, where official goals are those stated in public statements while operative goals are those that are the actual goals of the organization, which may be represented as a means to achieve official goals but, due to the vagueness of the official goals, they in themselves become the final goals.

In order to improve the status of Egyptian tourism planning, it is necessary for the official goals of tourism development, stated in the vision as "[a] mature, sustainable and responsible tourism industry contributing significantly to the economic development of Egypt and the quality of life of people" to better inform the operative goals and objectives, ideally in a quantifiable manner so that the success of the plan can be gauged and improved as needed.

Furthermore, there is no prioritization of objectives, which creates the possibility of incompatibility between multiple objectives. The importance of this issue can become more apparent with the active implementation of sustainability and community objectives, which may conflict with goals of increasing tourist numbers and tourism revenue. It is, thus, recommended that the goals and objectives be prioritized, and that sustainability be placed at the top of the agenda.

Another element that should be considered is the flexibility of the plan. The proposed plan is a long-range plan that sets objectives based on assumptions of political, market and economic conditions that were prevalent during the time that the plan was being drafted. Since then, these situations have changed drastically in Egypt resulting from the January 25th revolution, through which the tourism sector has greatly suffered. The rigidity of the plan, however, does not allow for accommodating current circumstances by allowing for amending goals and objectives. Related to this is the consideration of the situation in the case that objectives are not achieved. The plan does not address this as a possible outcome or what should be done in this case.

9.5 Conclusion

The goals and objectives of tourism plans are critical to the success of tourism planning and development. They are not merely statements written in planning documents, but represent guidelines that shape the rest of the plan. Overall, Egyptian tourism planning tends towards Gunn's view of planning rather than Goeldner and Ritchie's. This is a result of a focus on improving visitor satisfaction, and economic benefits from tourism; and a weaker presence of the protection of resource assets, and community and area integration. With regards to the objectives, the main weaknesses are that the plan fails to address how multiple objectives will be handled, and what to do in case the objectives are not achieved. The following chapter assesses the approach to Egyptian Tourism Planning.

Chapter 10: Approach to Egyptian Tourism Planning

This chapter examines the approach of the NSTSP to Egyptian tourism planning in light of the literature and discussion offered in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 began by introducing the evolution of tourism planning and described five stages in the evolution of tourism (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998). It then presented eight different theoretical positions that can be assessed when examining plans (Khakee, 1998), in addition to different approaches that tourism plans can assume. These approaches were organized and presented according to whether they are mutually exclusive (Inskeep, 1991; Lang, 1988; Burns, 1999; Getz, 2001) or non-mutually exclusive (Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 2001). The NSTSP is examined for evidence of the different approaches and this is discussed in this chapter. Following this, recommendations are made on aspects that should be emphasized or altered in order to improve the overall functioning of the NSTSP.

10.1 Stage of Evolution

Chapter 5 introduced five stages of tourism evolution based on Tosun and Jenkins' (1998, p. 102) categorization of different planning periods. The five possibilities are: unplanned tourism development era, beginning of partly supply-oriented tourism planning period, entirely supply-oriented tourism planning period, market or demand-oriented tourism development planning period, and contemporary planning approach. This section assesses which of these stages Egyptian tourism is at based on the textual evidence in the NSTSP.

From a detailed reading of the NSTSP, it is found that Egypt is not at the unplanned stage as a detailed tourism plan exists and much attention is accorded to tourism development. Furthermore, this statement from the introduction of the executive summary of the National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP) confirms this:

> Realizing tourism's potential to contribute fully to national development in a sustainable manner, cannot just be left to the vagaries of the market and the expectation that eventually everything will "turn out right". It must be made to grow and for this a national tourism plan is needed, a plan which has clear and realistic goals, an accepted policy and an implementable strategy (p. 3).

The planning process is also not at either of the supply-oriented planning periods where planning is concerned with keeping up with demand by building infrastructure and increasing capacity. The plan focuses on attracting more tourists and strives to achieve this through different methods of promotion and by offering products and services that cater to the demands of different markets, although some aspects of the plan are about expanding the capacity, as demonstrated by the fourth objective, 'to provide the necessary infrastructure and superstructure'. However, this objective aims to expand capacity in order to better accommodate future growth in tourism rather than to keep up with the current number of tourists. Areas that are identified that will require increases in capacity are transport infrastructure, utilities networks, energy sources, potable water production, wastewater facilities, solid waste disposal, airport capacity, and room capacity.

For this reason, Egyptian tourism planning is most closely aligned with the market, or demand-oriented, tourism planning period which is the fourth of the five stages of evolution of tourism planning for development. At this stage, planning focuses on attracting a larger number of tourists. This is demonstrated by the targets, which strictly involve increasing the number of tourist arrivals, number of bed-nights and revenue from tourism. This is confirmed by the goal statement in the executive summary of the NSTSP:

> To focus action on achieving the "millennium objectives", a target of 25 million visitors by 2020 is set. This volume increase (represented a doubling of the figures for 2008) was subsequently refined by the Minister of Tourism by targeting daily spending to increase by 30%. The value of tourism to Egypt as a consequence will need to grow significantly faster than volume. Close to a tripling of 2008 revenue is required by 2020 (p. 4).

The focus on attracting a large number of tourists, however, does not indicate exactly what these numbers are designed to achieve. For instance, they do not indicate whether the purpose is ultimately to improve the life of Egyptians, protect resources, or to serve other purposes.

The plan also demonstrates some aspects of moving towards a contemporary planning approach, which incorporates environmental, cultural and social considerations associated with tourism development. For instance, the plan is called the National *Sustainable* Tourism Strategic Plan (NSTSP). Concerns over environmental and socio-cultural considerations are expressed in the plan; however they are not the dominant driver of goals and objectives. For instance, the

following excerpt is from the executive summary and it describes concerns about tourism growth in the past:

> Growth has not been cost free. It has been achieved by reducing prices and attracting tourists who spend less and for shorter periods. More importantly, it has fed on the country's natural and social capital. Both marine and terrestrial environments have been damaged, leading cultural attractions have been unable to cope with increased volumes and the social fabric in some ways has been harmed (p. 4).

Additionally, the executive summary states that it will address sustainability through four principles:

> Firstly, tourism must be sustainable from an economic point of view in that sufficient returns are made on resources invested, secondly, it must avoid damage to the natural environment and cultural heritage, thirdly, it must not damage the local community and finally it must also be sustainable in the sense that it encourages the continuation of tourism *per se* (p. 6).

However, because none of the sustainability considerations actively resonate throughout the NSTSP, Egyptian tourism planning is not seen as falling under the contemporary planning approach. For instance, none of the objectives or targets of development are tied to socio-cultural or environmental aspirations, such as improving the lives of Egyptians or preserving natural resources. Thus it can be concluded that although Egyptian tourism planning is in the demand-oriented planning phase, it demonstrates evidence that suggests that it is moving towards a contemporary planning approach but has yet fully to reach this stage.

10.2 Theoretical Position in Tourism Planning

Khakee (1998) described eight theoretical positions for tourism planning: rational, incremental, advocacy, implementation-oriented, strategic, transactive, negotiative, and communicative planning. These theories and their major characteristics are summarized in Table 5.1. Plans are usually most closely aligned to a single position, although elements of other positions can be present as well. This is the case of the NSTSP, which can be strengthened by integrating more elements of other positions.

The NSTSP is most closely aligned with two approaches: the rational approach and the strategic approach. The rational approach to planning assumes that planning is an ordered process where the goals and priorities of decision makers shape the planning process. There are

often, however, a number of problems with this approach, such as poorly defined programs, an excess of politics involved in goal formation, and limited qualitative goals.

The NSTSP also demonstrates elements of the strategic approach to planning, which is characterised by forecasting the future based on understanding the past. The NSTSP is a long-term plan that covers the span of 12 years, during which many unexpected changes can occur in the environment. The strategic approach recognizes this and, thus, flexibility must be incorporated into the plan. The NSTSP, however, is not flexible, thus placing it in a risky situation where any unexpected event or occurrence can greatly affect the relevance and applicability of the plan.

Plans do not have to be rigidly tied to any specific theoretical position and the NSTSP can be enhanced by incorporating aspects from other theoretical positions, especially to overcome some of the weaknesses of the rational approach, and to reap the benefits of some of the other approaches. For instance, the NSTSP can benefit from adopting an incremental approach to some of the new developments where the success and response of tourism is uncertain, rather than committing to a specific long-term development plan at once. This might avoid unnecessary disruption to locals and the environment, and may avoid the spending of large amounts of money on developments that may later prove to be unsuccessful. Additionally, planners can ensure that the plan is implementable by conducting *ex ante* evaluations and modifying the plan where necessary throughout the process, as in the implementation-oriented planning approach.

Inclusivity and communication can be improved upon in the NSTSP. In order to facilitate communication between different stakeholders, the communicative approach suggests that means for discourse should be created. Dialogue can be established with less well-off groups, as characterised by the advocacy planning approach, in order to ensure that the concerns of all stakeholders are addressed in the planning process. Also, the practical knowledge and experiences of small-scale organizations can prove to be an asset to planning, which is an attribute of transactive planning. This would also serve to facilitate negotiations with market actors: the negotiative planning approach views the inclusion of different actors in the decision-making process as being important.

10.3 Mutually-Exclusive Approaches

10.3.1 Market-led versus Product-led

Based on the discussion in Section 5.3.1, there are two main ways by which tourists and products can be matched. Either by relying on the demands of tourists to shape the products offered, a market-led approach; or by offering products that are most suitable for the destination, and, thereby, attracting to the destination tourists with an interest in these products, a product-led approach (Inskeep, 1991).

Egyptian tourism provides a wide variety of different products, some of which are offered because Egypt naturally has these products, such as Ancient Egyptian, cultural, religious and beach tourism. These products represent a product-led approach to tourism planning. Egypt's highest performing products are those that are intrinsic to the country as the highest performing products are: winter beach, summer beach, residential, and cultural products.

Egypt also offers products that are neither intrinsic nor natural to it, and it does not particularly have a competitive advantage in offering them. These products represent a market-led approach to tourism planning. These products have been created to cater to the demands of tourists. For instance, golf, ecotourism and gaming/casino tourism have been created relatively recently because they are perceived by Egyptian tourism planners as products that will attract tourists.

Additionally, part of the NSTSP ambitions is to attract higher-spending visitors and Egypt is apparently willing to offer whatever products are necessary in order to achieve this. This is reflected in the following statement from the marketing plan:

> Marketing starts with the product and if the product is not right for the higher spending visitor, no product marketing strategy aimed at them will succeed in the long term. An integrated approach to product development and marketing is thus needed. Market conditions are also constantly changing. Egypt's developing product portfolio will be under constant and increasing competitive pressure and it will be necessary through research to constantly update the product offer to meet market needs (p. 16).

Accordingly, Egyptian tourism planning does not follow a strictly market, or product-led approach. Rather, it follows a more balanced approach where different products are offered for

different purposes. The more popular, intrinsic products, which are the most popular, are a result of a product-led approach. However, more recently, as Egyptian tourism planning aims to attract more tourists and new market segments, it is adding new products, which follows a market-led approach.

10.3.2 Interactive versus Conventional

Section 5.3.2 describes approaches to decision making as either being interactive or conventional (Lang, 1986). An interactive approach involves negotiation and consultation between stakeholders throughout the planning process, while a conventional approach depends on gathering information and working with implementers. Consultation and feedback with stakeholders can occur in a conventional approach; however, it usually takes place later on in the planning process and better planning is viewed as being a result of the incorporation of better information rather than collaboration and agreement.

The NSTSP was written by external consultants outsourced by the TDA, who were regarded as being professional planners with the knowledge and expertise required to draft a sound tourism plan. The following statement from the NSTSP executive summary describes the process of how the plan was created:

> The Ministry of Tourism, through its agency the Tourist [sic] Development Authority (TDA), appointed a multi-skilled team of national and international consultants to prepare a long term National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan covering the years to 2020. The consultants were required to report through a Steering Committee composed of leading public and private figures in Egyptian tourism and representatives of the World Tourism Organisation. The consultants were charged with delivering a national strategy, an action/implementation plan and a marketing plan. The assignment was carried out in three phases, with outcomes being reviewed and approved by the Steering Committee before progressing on to the next (p. 1).

The first phase was a review of existing tourism capacities, products, information systems, infrastructure, cultural heritage, marketing and environment. This phase was conducted through site visits and by consulting with stakeholders; however, the plan does not specify how extensive this consultation was. This is the only stage where stakeholders participated in the planning process. The second stage established policies and strategies to achieve targets of growth for the year 2020 and, in the third stage, a five-year action plan was prepared to start the implementation of the NSTSP.

Limited stakeholder involvement in tourism planning is characteristic of a conventional approach to tourism planning and it may even be argued that the NSTSP lacked adequate stakeholder involvement even when assessed based on a conventional approach to tourism planning.

10.3.3 Development-First versus Tourism-First

The planning agenda can be described based on its primary goals and objectives. On one end of the spectrum, the primary agenda can be to focus on developing tourism for its own sake as in the tourism-first approach and, at the other end of the spectrum, tourism can be employed for the purpose of social and environmental development, which is characteristic of the development-first approach (Burns, 1999). These approaches have been described in greater detail in Section 5.3.3.

Tourism planning in Egypt is developed for economic purposes and, thus, tends towards a tourism-first approach. For instance, the following excerpt from the NSTSP executive summary reflects this:

> In drafting the "Vision 2020", the Egyptian government set ambitious "millennium goals", which were further refined and quantified in the Sixth National Development Plan. Leading components include high and sustainable economic growth, alleviation of poverty, attenuation of income disparities, creation of productive jobs and gender equality. It requires - according to the Ministry of Planning - an annual growth of 7% in GDP, a rate the World Bank regards as challenging. Government recognises that tourism has an important role to play in achieving these goals through foreign exchange earnings, contribution to national income, employment generation, income opportunities and a more equitable distribution of benefits (p. 1).

Although the NSTSP tends towards a tourism-first approach to tourism planning, it nevertheless recognizes that tourism has other benefits to offer such as social development and sustainability, which are generally characteristic of a development-first approach. The plan, however, assumes a tourism-first approach because the key benefits expected to accrue from tourism are listed in the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy Executive Summary (p. 20) as:

- Value Added Effect or Relative Efficiency Test. It reflects the tourism contribution to the national economy, i.e. GDP.
- Employment Effect. It refers to the capability of the tourism sector in creating jobs.

- Foreign Exchange Effect. It is a measure of the effect of tourism on foreign exchange earnings.

- Tax effect. It reflects the contribution of the tourism sector to the government budget.

This emphasis on the economic benefits through trickle-down or multiplier effects is characteristic of the tourism-first approach (Burns, 2004). From this it can be concluded that the NSTSP tends towards a tourism-first approach to planning, while maintaining awareness of development-first views, aims and priorities.

10.3.4 Mass Tourism versus Niche Marketing

The approach to tourism marketing can take a mass tourism or a niche marketing approach (Getz, 2001), as described in Section 5.3.4. A mass tourism approach seeks the widest possible market appeal, while a niche marketing approach caters to a narrow market with specific demands, and compensates for the volume difference by raising prices.

The Egyptian tourism product portfolio offers both mass and niche products. Mass products are defined as those products that contribute over 1 million bed-nights, while niche products contribute over 50 thousand bed-nights. These products are listed in descending order as follows:

- Mass products: winter beach, summer beach, residential, culture (Luxor and Aswan), other culture, business, health/wellness/spa/beauty, European tour, long river cruises, conference, diving, city breaks, incentive, religion, study, touring (car, bus), other major categories (e.g., personal reasons such as weddings, funerals, etc.)
- Niche products: desert expeditions, sports, climbing/walking, ecotourism, golf, rail holidays, gaming/casinos, air taxi/charter, yachting, bird watching and safaris, rural/community tourism, other niche items.

Although both mass and niche products are offered, this is done in order to achieve the target of attracting 25 million visitors annually, which represents a doubling of the current 12.8 million visitors, and is reflective of a mass tourism approach to marketing. The NSTSP executive summary attests to this:

> The strategy aims at expanding and making the base more balanced by developing new products, diversifying the geographical distribution of activities into 'new' areas and

149

boosting complementary activities [and that] potential exists for developing niche tourism and promoting to a greater extent underdeveloped components of the existing tourism product and broadening the existing portfolio (p. 11).

Furthermore, the marketing strategy priorities are to attract high volume over high value products, as stated in the marketing plan (p. 10):

- Priority A: Products which could be both high value (in terms of expenditure per visitor per stay) and high volume. These are the key special interest marketing priorities.
- Priority B: Products which deliver high volumes but not necessarily high value.
- Priority C: Products which could deliver high value, but not high volumes (these are particularly valuable in Egypt's many eco-sensitive locations).

Additionally, the plan recommends that the infrastructure and superstructure be increased to better accommodate the desired increases in tourist numbers, which is the role of the fourth objective, which is to provide the necessary infrastructure and superstructure. Thus, although the NSTSP recognizes both mass and niche products, niche products are introduced and marketed in order to attract a larger market and it can be concluded that the Egyptian tourism approach emphasises mass tourism.

10.4 Non Mutually-Exclusive Approaches

10.4.1 Approach as Determined by Purpose

There are four non mutually-exclusive approaches to tourism planning that pertain to the purpose of planning: boosterism, economic approach, physical-spatial approach, and community-oriented approach (Getz, 1987). These have been discussed in Section 5.4.1. The following sub-sections examine the presence of each of these approaches in the NSTSP.

10.4.1.1 Boosterism

This approach to tourism planning views tourism strictly as a positive force, and mass tourism is indicative of the assumptions of this approach. Egyptian tourism assumes a mass tourism approach, and although it can be argued that boosterism is employed, the plan is not completely oblivious of negative consequences of tourism development such as environmental and social costs. However, the measures required to alleviate these consequences are not widely applied, particularly measures that will reduce the number of tourists and potentially decrease revenue from tourism.

10.4.1.2 Economic Approach

Under the economic approach, tourism is viewed as a tool to facilitate the achievement of economic growth. This approach also recognizes that there may be potential economic and socio-cultural consequences, and it may attempt to reduce them in order to maximize and sustain the economic benefits of tourism. The NSTSP clearly assumes this stance, which is indicated by the vision:

> A mature, sustainable and responsible tourism industry contributing significantly to the economic development of Egypt and the quality of life of the people - primarily through enhancing contribution to national income, job creation and foreign earnings.

Specifically, tourism is viewed as having four key benefits, which are described in the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy (p. 97):

- Value Added Effect or Relative Efficiency Test. It reflects the tourism contribution to the national economy, i.e. GDP.
- Employment Effect. It refers to the capability of the tourism sector in creating jobs.
- Foreign Exchange Effect. It is a measure of the effect of tourism on foreign exchange earnings.
- Tax Effect. It reflects the contribution of the tourism sector to the government budget.

Sustainability concerns are discussed in the plan in light of their impact on economic benefits, which is characteristic of the economic approach. This is reflected in the following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy:

> Development is not without harm. Environmental and cultural resources are finite and under strong pressure; the possibility of irreparable damage and loss arising from economic and social expansion is real. One of the threats to the natural and built environment arises from the level of construction required to provide the needed facilities to accommodate targeted visitor numbers... It is clear that the challenge is not only to stimulate growth but also to control and channel it along the lines of the strategic vision so as to ensure the sustainability of the ensuing development (p.11).

The above discussion is an attestation to the employment of tourism for economic purposes in Egypt and, although sustainability concerns are present, they are presented in light of prolonging the life of the sector in order to maximize its economic benefits.

10.4.1.3 Physical-Spatial Approach

The physical-spatial approach is an approach to tourism planning that views tourism as a means for distributing economic activity broadly across the region. The NSTSP does not particularly follow this approach, as there is no mention of achieving equitable distribution of

economic activity through the use of tourism. In fact, tourism can often aggravate this problem as it tends to cluster in already developed areas. The only statement that touches upon this issue in the NSTSP is made in passing in the executive summary, and it refers to tourism as a way potentially to alleviate the high density of some of the most populous parts of the country rather than for the purpose of distributing economic benefits:

> The major expansion will have encouraged the growth of towns and the establishment of new ones. They will possess the facilities necessary to attract and sustain communities and provide living space for the country's burgeoning population. These will be model living towns, which will become desirable places to move to (p. 3).

Egyptian tourism, thus, does not follow the physical-spatial approach to tourism planning, although tourism is viewed as a possible means to reduce the population of high density areas. In fact, however, it may actually increase concentrations in already congested places.

10.4.1.4 Community-Oriented Approach

The community-oriented approach to tourism planning develops tourism plans with the purpose of benefiting local residents. The NSTSP does not assume a community-oriented approach to development as this is not one of the goals or objectives of the NSTSP; however it addresses two main issues with regards to communities. The first is ensuring that tourism is sustainable from a community perspective, and the second is to capitalize on communities in tourism development.

The NSTSP recognizes that new, previously uninhabited, regions will be populated according to the plan, which will create new communities in the South Sinai and Red Sea regions, and these will need to be managed. The following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy addresses this:

> Distribution of resident population and the concentration of tourism facilities in South Sinai and Red Sea areas are markedly different. The areas have few local communities leading to unequal distribution of benefits and large scale internal migration. Recommendations are made to address this problem, by establishing local communities. This should produce a number of benefits, such as helping to relieve demographic pressures on major urban areas and encourage the blossoming of smaller independent businesses (such as shops, coffee shops, restaurants, diving centres, handicrafts, etc.) (p. 94).

Another community issue mentioned in the NSTSP is the use of community-based tourism as a potential tourism product, which will help to enrich local people; this is discussed in the Tourism Development Strategy:

> The study has pointed out opportunities to develop community based initiatives along with or as an alternative to mainstream tourism development. This is especially important in those areas, such as the oases, where a rich intangible cultural heritage survives. It is expected that these initiatives will benefit directly local communities and help the conservation of the local traditions, handicrafts, folklore and traditional lifestyle. The oases require a mini-strategy due to their extreme environmental sensitivity (p. 95).

With regards to sustainability, the NSTSP strategy is to develop tourism for economic benefits, but recognizes that there are potential social costs to tourism development, such as hostility towards tourists and unequal distribution of tourism benefits, as reflected in this excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy:

> There are also social costs. Not all of Egyptian society perceives itself as profiting from tourism; benefits are unequally distributed. Furthermore, employees are forced to migrate internally in long-haul commuting routines to work in resorts. Cultural clashes between visitors and host communities sometimes happen (p. 11).

Accordingly, the NSTSP aims to develop tourism that is sustainable. There are four principles to sustainability in the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy (p. 12):

1. Tourism must be sustainable from an economic point of view in that sufficient returns are made on resources invested.
2. It must avoid damage to the natural environment and cultural heritage.
3. It must not damage the local community.
4. It must also be sustainable in the sense that it encourages the continuation of tourism *per se*.

The third principle refers to protecting the local community in order to ensure the sustainability of tourism in the region. This implies that benefiting locals is not a primary issue on the agenda, and that merely insuring that they are not harmed is sufficient; suggesting that that Egyptian tourism planning does not observe a community-oriented approach.

10.4.2 Other Non-Mutually-Exclusive Approaches

Different approaches that are not mutually exclusive have been described in Section 5.4.2. This section examines the NSTSP in light of each of these approaches.

10.4.2.1 Continuous, Incremental and Flexible

The continuous, incremental and flexible approach refers to the idea that planning should be an ongoing process that is linked to feedback and monitoring, and adaptable to changes in the environment.

Every step in the NSTSP action plan is assigned to be monitored and reviewed by a specific organization other than that responsible for carrying out the task. There is, however, no procedure or venue for feedback, and for integrating that feedback into the plan, which renders the plan quite rigid.

Lack of flexibility is a major weakness of the NSTSP. There is virtually no indicator for flexibility, with the exception of one mention in the marketing plan, which refers to the different products that are offered to different markets, which are stated to be "seen as indicative only and [are] subject to regular review" (p. 16). The rigidity of the plan is reflected in the following statement in the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy reflecting the development environment:

> The projections were made on the basis of a continuation of economic growth in the world economy in general and the major source tourism markets for Egypt in particular and the avoidance of any major war or event significantly different to that encountered in the past ten years. The projections are made within the framework of expanding economies for the period as shown on Table 1. They are long term projections and so take into account, the vagaries of economic cycles. However, the current (2009) world economic and financial crisis cannot be ignored and Egypt will not escape unscathed. Growth will be depressed (and likely to contract for a year or so but with the implementation of the Strategy, tourism should be resilient and with the ending of the recession, Egypt will emerge with lost growth restored [sic].

> The world in 2020 will be significantly different to that of today but not altogether turned upside down. North America and Europe will continue as dominant economic regions but with significantly reduced shares as Asia/Oceania emerge as the dominant area.

The plan does not take into account the possibility of drastic political, natural, or other changes in the environment. However, the environment has changed drastically since the instigation of this plan following the January 25th revolution of 2011, which has rendered many aspects of this plan obsolete.

154

10.4.2.2 Systems Component

This component of planning refers to planning as an interrelated system by coordination among organizations and between different scales of development. The NSTSP is quite comprehensive and covers a wide array of different activities that are assigned to different entities. Most of those entities are from within the MOT, and the few that are not are from other ministries and government organizations. The NSTSP recognizes the need for collaboration with the private sector in the Executive Summary:

> National policy is for government to retreat from involvement in commercial aspects of tourism and in principle to leave such activities to the private sector. While it will facilitate and support individual enterprises in such endeavours, the companies will be responsible themselves for the development and promotion of their own businesses (p. 8).

The policy aims to grant greater business freedom to the private sector; however it is not involved in the planning process. The main venue for collaborating with other ministries and agencies is through the creation of the Supreme Council of Tourism (SCT). The SCT is a proposed organization to be formed to facilitate collaboration between different government groups. Table 10.1 outlines the recommended composition of the SCT. The recommended composition fails to provide for private sector involvement in the SCT. Additionally, it is worth noting that there is no involvement of a statistics agency, which is essential for providing the required information for planning and decision-making processes.

Table 10.1 The Recommended Composition of the SCT

Ministers	Agencies/Authorities
Prime Minister	Council for Sustainable Tourism
Minister of Tourism	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency
Minister of Civil Aviation	Supreme Council of Antiquities
Minister of Environment	Department of Civil Aviation
Minister of Finance	Egyptian Tourism Authority
Minister of the Interior	Tourism Development Authority
Minister of Local Government	Egyptian Tourism Federation
Minister of Transportation	Egypt Air
Minister of Economic Development	Representatives of Regional Tourism Organizations
Minister of Culture	General Authority for Investment and Free Zones
Minister of Education	
Minister of Higher Education	
Minister of Irrigation	

In the past, there were two attempts to establish a SCT, in 2000 and again in 2005. These efforts were unsuccessful, and the NSTSP Action Plan attributes this to four main factors: (a)

time constraints which inhibit even well-disposed senior ministers and chief executive officers from fully participating in meetings, (b) an agenda concerned with matters which were of little interest for many participants, (c) more pressing priorities than tourism for other agencies for scarce resources and (d) lack of a secretariat to organise meetings and follow-up on implementation of decisions (p. 93). To address these issues, the NSTSP recommends ways to make meetings more efficient and effective in order to alleviate the above-mentioned problems. Whether the suggested methods will succeed has yet to have been determined, but with such a strong history of lack of success, it seems that more drastic measures should be taken, or perhaps another structure should be made which does not rely on high-profile members who do not necessarily add any real value over other low-profile and less busy representatives from their ministries. Furthermore, the proposed SCT will play a minimal role in the planning process; their role as described in the NSTSP Action Plan is to "achieve harmonisation and cooperation between ministries on tourism matters" (p. 93).

Additionally, there is limited collaboration with regional organizations. The main factor that hinders this is that currently tourism is not adequately planned at the regional level. The plan recommends the creation of Regional Tourism Offices (RTOs) in each tourism region in order to facilitate planning initiatives at the local level. There are 7 proposed RTOs that are to be located in Cairo, Alexandria, Luxor, Sharm el Sheikh, Hurghada, Marsa Alam, and Marsa Matrouh. These RTOs are to be responsible for developing Regional Tourism Development Plans; promoting their products; conducting market research and working with the ETA to promote the region; providing services to tourists such as information about reservations and local services; and supporting the CST through investment support, product development, ensuring cultural and environmental sustainability in tourism practice; monitoring quality standards; and providing business support. The CST is a proposed multidisciplinary team of professionals who are to convene when needed and are responsible for project implementation. They are to have operational flexibility, access to resources, and extensive cooperation with other ministries.

The NSTSP thus addresses the need for collaboration between organizations at different scales and locations and from different sectors, however only organizations under the MOT take part in the planning process. Private investors and some other related ministries, agencies and

organizations should play a more active role in the planning process. Many stakeholders are, therefore, left out of the planning and policy-making processes.

10.4.2.3 Comprehensive Component

The comprehensive component refers to the idea that all aspects of tourism development should be analyzed and planned thoroughly. The NSTSP fulfills this component quite well as it extensively covers a wide array of components. Some of the aspects covered by the NSTSP include the socio-economic role of tourism in Egypt; the different destinations and their product offerings, and who they cater to; financing for different projects; transportation; infrastructure; labour supply; industry image; community issues; and marketing.

There are a few components, however, that are not covered by the NSTSP, which would improve the overall functioning of the plan if they were present. These include details about which laws and legislations are relevant to tourism, and how they serve tourism objectives; investment incentives and how they promote investment in areas and sectors that are desired by the NSTSP; and foreign travel rules and their role in the overall travel experience and how they influence the ability of tourists to enter and stay in Egypt.

10.4.2.4 Integrated Component

The NSTSP fails to be well integrated both within itself and with other relevant structures, priorities and documents. The integration of the plan within itself is similar to the systems component. The NSTSP also fails to integrate well with other development plans. It does not make specific mention of other development documents, laws and legislation, policies, bylaws, or regulations that are related to it and should be referred to, with the exception of the main national development plan, Vision 2020. The NSTSP is, however, integrated with the main national development plan, Vision 2020, document, as is reflected by the introductory statement in the Tourism Development Strategy:

> In drafting "Vision 2020", the Egyptian government set itself ambitious "millennium goals". Leading components include high and sustainable economic growth, alleviation of poverty, attenuation of income disparities, creation of productive jobs and increased gender equality. It requires—according to the Ministry of Planning—an annual growth of 7% in GDP, a rate that the World Bank regards as challenging.
>
> These broad objectives are defined more specifically in the Sixth National Development Plan as reducing population concentration in the Nile Valley and Delta, alleviating poverty and reducing social and regional disparities, reducing unemployment and

157

increasing standards of living and quality of life to those prevailing in advanced countries. Government recognizes that tourism has an important role to play in achieving these goals through:

- Increased foreign exchange earnings.
- Sustainable contribution to national income.
- Enhanced employment and income opportunities.
- More equitable distribution of benefits.
- Improved/enhanced recreational facilities.
- Conservation of cultural and environmental resources.

Within this development framework, the Ministry of Tourism has commissioned a team of national and international Consultants to prepare a National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan for the years 2008 to 2020 (p. 9).

Integration with the main development plan is important to the success of both plans; however the NSTSP should also be integrated with other development plans and agendas. These are important because they form an integral part of the investment and tourism environment and, without being conscious of these elements, the plan cannot function properly.

10.4.2.5 Environmental and Sustainable Development

This component addresses how well the plan addresses natural and cultural resources and the likelihood that these resources will be maintained. The NSTSP covers this issue quite extensively. It divides discussion on this issue into two categories: environmental and cultural-heritage sustainability.

The plan recognizes the need for sustaining environmental resources upon which tourism depends in order to ensure the longevity of the sector. This stance is reflected in the following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy:

> Resources on which tourism depends - the natural environment heritage - must be managed in a sustainable way to ensure their long-term capability to support a thriving tourism sector. It is essential therefore that tourism activities at natural heritage locations are planned and managed in a way that ensures visitor satisfaction, the industry is profitable, fragile natural heritage sites are protected and conflicts with other resource users are avoided or managed. Only through co-ordinated planning and management will these unique assets be protected for the benefit of current and future generations. Sustainable tourism should only be developed within the context of this definition (p. 51).

With regards to specific environmental threats, the significant issue discussed is the impact of tourism on marine ecology, particularly on the coral reefs of the Red Sea resulting

from scuba diving. The other environmental issue mentioned that could be threatened by tourism is wildlife tourism; however, it is mentioned that this segment is underdeveloped in Egypt and it is currently not threatened. However, if this product was to be developed, it would be necessary to attempt to minimize the effects of tourism on the fragile ecosystem.

Additionally, the NSTSP finds a number of problems related to sustainability of cultural-heritage tourism, including insufficient funds, technical know-how and staff resources, which hinder the implementation of management plans. Also, cultural and heritage attractions in Egypt are under-priced compared to comparable international attractions. Aggravating these issues is the fact that there is no forum for cultural tourism or interest groups to communicate and work together to improve the performance of cultural-heritage tourism. The following excerpt from the Tourism Development Strategy summarizes the NSTSP's stance with regards to cultural-heritage tourism sustainability:

> Issues are raised about dealing with the impact of tourism on the cultural heritage properties and intangible heritage and how it can be used to help conserve the country's heritage assets. Appropriate recommendations have been made for mitigating and avoiding damage. As with the environment, a special mini-strategy for the oases, due to their sensitivity is warranted (p. 96).

In a footnote about this, it is mentioned that no assessment of the carrying capacity of heritage resources has been made as a result of the absence of primary data on heritage sites. It is essential that studies about the carrying capacity of these resources are made so that policies can be put into effect to avoid exceeding the carrying capacity of these resources in the future.

Some strategies that the plan mentions in order to achieve sustainable use of tourism resources include allocating adequate funds for conservation, implementing the recommendations of the management plan conducted by the WB Global Environment Facility (GEF) in 1998-2000, involving communities in developing and managing tourism products and encouraging their participation in community-based tourism products where applicable, and working closely with the Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency (EEAA) to protect ecologically vulnerable areas.

10.4.2.6 Community Component

The community component, which is touched on in the preceding section and which examines the presence of a community-oriented approach in the NSTSP, gives attention to the

level of community involvement in the tourism planning and decision-making process. The NSTSP does not directly include members of the community or their representatives in the planning process, so this component is lacking from the Egyptian tourism strategy. Some consideration, however, is given to the community within the plan; however community involvement in planning is very limited. This is true at all levels and not just at the national level. This is perhaps understandable in a country in which popular political organizations are not highly developed.

The Tourism Development Strategy recognizes the need to involve communities in tourism development for environmental and cultural-heritage tourism in order to promote the sustainability of tourism resources, and in order to maximize the economic and social benefits of tourism as demonstrated by the following excerpts:

On environment:

Authorities need to involve communities in development and managing ecotourism products and natural heritage initiatives both within protected areas and in other areas integrating them with community-based tourism projects in rural areas (p. 54).

On cultural-heritage tourism:

For the full social and economic benefits of cultural-heritage tourism to be enjoyed, management of heritage sites should be integrated with local communities, whether this is in the delivery of basic services such as catering and retailing or the provision of add-on experiences associated with craft production and related activities. Community representatives should also be involved in initial tourism planning exercises, particularly where access to scarce or contested resources is concerned (p. 50).

Although the presence of community participation in the NSTSP is not prominent, it is mentioned as a result of its perceived benefits for environmental and cultural-heritage tourism. A concern, however, is that there is no venue for community participation in tourism planning as the community does not have an organizational structure with a representative that can voice their opinions in a unified manner and, thus, take part in tourism planning in an organized fashion.

10.4.2.7 Implementation Component

This component examines how realistically implementable the tourism policy and plan is, and how well it identifies specific implementation techniques. This component is best assessed after the plan has been put into action so that the actual outcomes of the plan can be compared

with the objectives and aspirations of the plan. It is not possible to determine fully how well a plan has been implemented until after a time period has passed; however, it is possible to examine whether the planned short-term targets are being achieved, which is indicative of the possibility of achieving long-term targets and objectives.

Based on recent statistics about tourism performance in Egypt, it seems that the implementation of the plan is problematic. The unanticipated January 25th Revolution has had a severe impact on tourism demand to Egypt. Figure 10.1 shows the decline in the number of occupied hotel rooms, which contrasts with the increase in the number of available rooms, which were being created in anticipation of a growth in tourism.

Figure 10.1 Historical Supply and Demand for Tourism to Egypt

Supply and Demand for Tourism to Egypt
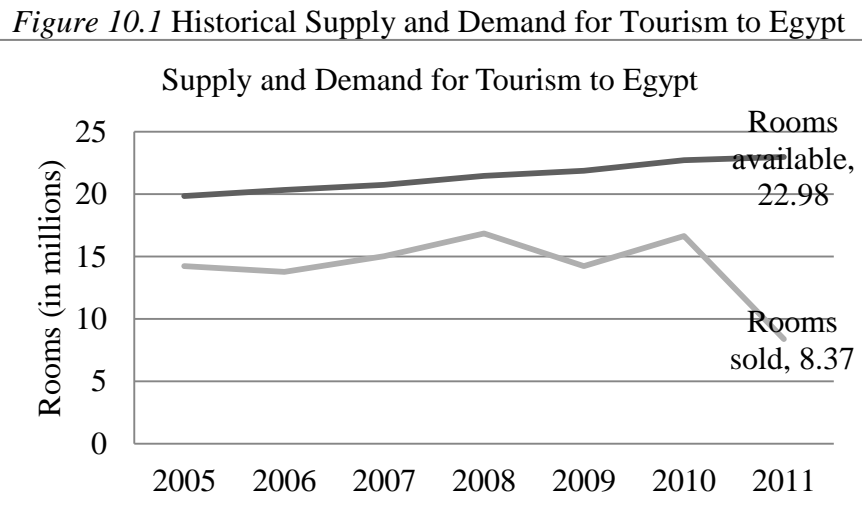
Source: adapted from Smith Travel Research (2011)

The plan forecasts a 5% increase in revenue from 2009-2010 followed by a 15% increase from 2010-2012, implying a 7.5% increase in each of those years. The actual changes, however are a decline of 8.7% from 2008-2009 followed by a recovery of a 19.3% increase from 2009 to 2010. The Egyptian tourism sector, however, was hit hard after the Revolution of January 25th, and this resulted in a huge drop in tourism figures. A comparison of monthly changes in tourism shows that February, March, April and May of 2011 displayed an average decline of 61.2% when compared with the performance of the same month in 2010, which is a substantial decline considering that the growth rate was 19% only a year earlier. To date, the Egyptian tourism sector has yet to recover and, because the plan is not flexible and does not provide opportunity

for feedback, it is unlikely that the plan will be implemented as it is laid out because the business and political environments have undergone drastic changes.

10.4.2.8 Application of a Systematic Planning Process

A systematic planning process is one that is based on logically sequential activities. There should be feedback and monitoring between stages to ensure the continuous adaptability of the feedback process.

The NSTSP is divided into three phases, and the outcome of each phase was reviewed and approved by a steering committee before the commencement of the subsequent phase. The NSTSP executive summary describes the functions of each phase as follows (pp. 1-2):

- The first phase was a baseline review of existing capacities in a number of areas including tourism products, information systems, infrastructures, cultural heritage, marketing and the environment.
- The second phase was concerned with drawing up policies and strategies to achieve targets.
- The third phase involved the preparation of a five-year action plan to follow a preparatory "year zero".

These stages are logically sequential and fit the overall broad criteria of a systematic planning process. As for the more specific tasks assigned by the plan, a major weakness of the NSTSP is that there is no procedure or venue for feedback and adapting the plan based on the feedback. Monitoring, however, which is the other aspect key to the application of a systematic planning process, is extensive in the plan. Every step in the plan is assigned an entity to review and monitor, which is separate from the organization that is responsible for achieving that task.

10.4.2.9 Long-Range and Strategic Planning

This aspect of tourism planning assumes a long-term view of tourism, usually 10-20 years and, accordingly, includes long-term targets and strategies. The NSTSP is a long-term strategic plan, as reflected in the title, National Sustainable Tourism *Strategic* Plan, and is set from 2008 to 2020.

The plan anticipates that both Egypt and the rest of the world will have undergone changes by 2020 since the instigation of the plan in 2008. The following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy describes the anticipated Egypt of 2020:

Egypt in 2020 will be a more populated and prosperous country than 2009. The population will have expanded by approximately 17 million, which to make a sobering comparison, is close to the existing population of Cairo. Incomes however will also have risen and the population will on average be 50% more prosperous than now. Tourism will be making a disproportionately [sic] contribution to this prosperity with employment depending on foreign tourists reaching one million. In addition to increasing personal incomes through job creation, tourism will contribute to expanding public finances through taxes, fees and levies (p. 14).

The following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy describes the anticipated global situation in 2020:

The world in 2020 will be significantly different to that of today but not altogether turned upside down. North America and Europe will continue as dominant economic regions but with significantly reduced shares as Asia/Oceania emerge as the dominant area (p. 14).

The plan also includes a table of the percentage shares of GDP for different regions in 2007 and the anticipated GDP of 2020, upon which targets and plans for 2020 are made.

The NSTSP aims to contribute to Egypt achieving its Millennium Objectives, as stated in the main development plan, entitled Vision 2020. The following excerpt from the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy discusses the required tourism targets that must be met in order to achieve the Millennium Objectives:

To focus action on achieving the Millennium Objectives, a target of 25 million visitors by 2020 was set by Government. This volume increase which represents close to a doubling of the figures for 2008 was subsequently refined by the Minister of Tourism by requiring daily spending to be increased by 30%. The value of tourism to Egypt as a consequence will need to grow significantly faster than the volume. Revenue will be required to increase by two and a half times compared with 2008.

Regardless of the political situation, the aim of increasing daily spending, while desirable, is a difficult challenge. Egypt has been competing with other destination countries in the Mediterranean region with somewhat similar tourism products and, to date, competition has occurred primarily through price rather than quality.

The NSTSP is, thus, a long-range strategic plan, as it includes long-range targets for the sector, and it acknowledges that the environment of Egypt and the rest of the globe will be different by 2020, basing its targets on forecasts of the future global situation.

10.5 Conclusion

Based on the above assessment, the following conclusions can be drawn about the NSTSP's approach to tourism planning:

- Egyptian tourism is at the demand-oriented stage of planning evolution with signs of moving towards the contemporary stage.
- The NSTSP is most closely aligned with the rational and strategic approach, but can benefit from adopting aspects of other approaches as well, particularly incrementalism, implementation-oriented planning, and approaches that emphasise collaboration, such as communicative, transactive and negotiative. The NSTSP displays characteristics of:
    - both market- and product-led planning approaches.
    - conventional over interactive planning.
    - a tourism-first rather than development-first approach.
    - mass tourism over niche marketing.

This suggests that these approaches are not, in fact, mutually exclusive but that it is possible to emphasize different approaches in different parts of the plan. Indeed, there may be benefits to doing this.

- The following conclusions about the non-mutually-exclusive approaches can be made:
    - The NSTSP views tourism as a positive force, as is characteristic of the boosterism approach, but is not completely oblivious to the potential negative consequences of tourism development.
    - An economic approach is adhered to primarily as tourism is viewed as a tool to achieve economic aims.
    - The physical-spatial and community-oriented approaches are not represented in the NSTSP.
- With regards to the other non-mutually-exclusive approaches mentioned by Inskeep (1991), the following conclusions can be drawn about the NSTSP:
    - Elements of the continuous, incremental and flexible approach are displayed; however there is no venue for feedback, rendering the plan quite rigid.

- The need for collaboration between different organizations is addressed, however only organizations under the MOT participate in the planning process and there is almost no involvement of the private sector.
- The plan is comprehensive.
- The plan fails to be integrated adequately within itself and with other structures, priorities and documents.
- Environmental and sustainable development issues are addressed.
- Community involvement in tourism planning is very weak.
- Implementation of the plan is problematic, particularly as a result of the January 25th Revolution and its impact on tourism.
- Although the stages of the planning process are logically sequential as in the systematic planning process approach, and each stage is monitored, there is no venue for feedback.
- The plan is long-range and strategic.

There are recurrent issues that have surfaced that should be accorded due attention in order to improve the functioning and longevity of tourism in Egypt. Firstly, although environmental, social and cultural considerations are considered, they are not allocated sufficient weight in order to ensure that they are not compromised for short-term tourism development objectives. Also, communication and inclusivity of community and other stakeholders is not adequately represented in the planning approach; and the plan would benefit from adopting elements of incrementalism, feedback and flexibility. Additionally, although the plan shows signs of moving towards a contemporary planning approach, in order for it to assume this stance fully, a more committed approach to environmental, social and cultural issues should be taken. Planners must be willing to sacrifice short-term economic gains for these considerations. The following chapter assesses the institutional elements associated with tourism planning in Egypt.

Chapter 11: Assessment of Egyptian Tourism Planning Institutional Elements

This chapter examines the institutional elements discussed in Chapter 6 as they pertain to the NSTSP. Chapter 6 discussed the NTA structure, different institutional elements that should be in place for tourism to be developed appropriately, and common challenges that tourism planning can face that pertain to institutional considerations. These institutional elements are manpower planning, organizational structure, tourism-related legislation, and tourism investment incentives. Accordingly, this chapter examines the structure and functions of the Egyptian NTA and examines the NSTSP in light of the discussion in Chapter 6.

11.1 National-Level Considerations in Tourism Planning

The NSTSP is a national-level tourism development plan and, accordingly, national-level considerations are predominant throughout the plan. The first objective stated in the NSTSP is to ensure an appropriate institutional framework. This is viewed as the responsibility of the government, as it should set appropriate economic, fiscal, human and physical conditions that are conducive to tourism development, while minimizing barriers to development. In order to achieve this, the NTA has the responsibility of overseeing this process.

11.1.1 NTA Structure

In order to improve the synchronization and efficiency between different tourism actors, the NSTSP suggests changes in the NTA structure. Figure 11.1 illustrates the current NTA structure, and Figure 11.2 illustrates the proposed structure, which consists of the addition of a number of organizations to the structure.

Figure 11.1 Current NTA Structure
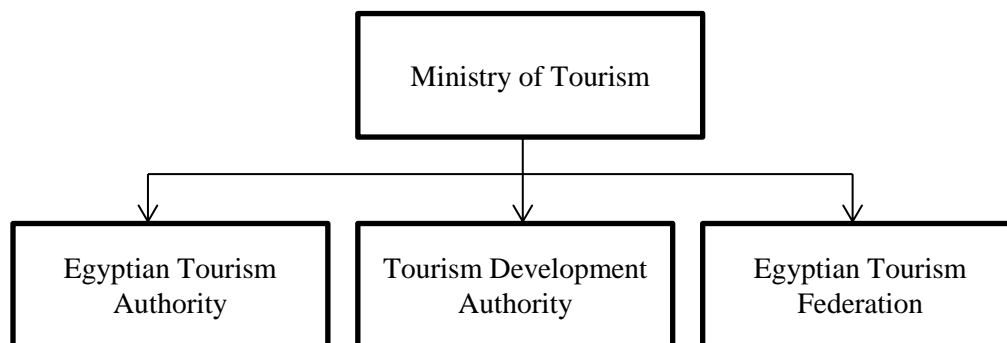
Source: adapted from Tourism Development Strategy Executive Summary (2009)

Figure 11.2 Proposed NTA Structure

```
                        ┌─────────────────┐
                        │ Prime Minister  │
                        │    Cabinet      │
                        └─────────────────┘
                    ┌──────────┴──────────┐
                    ▼                     ▼
          ┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────┐
          │  Ministry of    │   │ Supreme Council │◄─┐
          │    Tourism      │   │   of Tourism    │  │
          └─────────────────┘   └─────────────────┘  │
       ┌────────┬─────────┴────────┬──────────┐      │
       ▼        ▼                  ▼          ▼       │
  ┌────────┐ ┌────────┐      ┌────────┐ ┌────────┐    │
  │Egyptian│ │Tourism │      │Egyptian│ │Council │    │
  │Tourism │ │Develop-│      │Tourism │ │for     │    │
  │Authority│ │ment    │     │Federa- │ │Sustain-│    │
  │        │ │Authority│     │tion    │ │able    │    │
  └────────┘ └────────┘      └────────┘ │Tourism │    │
                                         └────────┘    │
                                ┌───────────┴────┐     │
                                ▼                ▼     │
                          ┌──────────┐   ┌──────────┐  │
                          │Regional  │   │Panels/   │◄─┘
                          │Tourism   │   │Advisory  │
                          │Organiza- │   │Councils  │
                          │tions     │   │          │
                          └──────────┘   └──────────┘
```
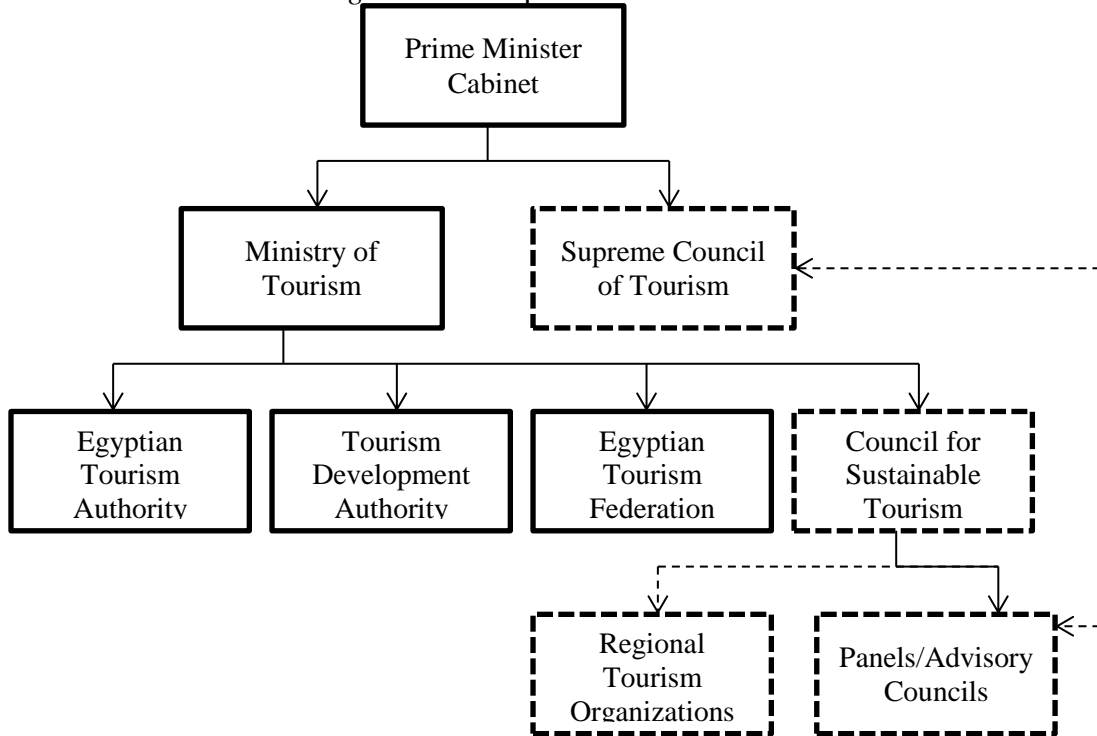
Source: adapted from the Tourism Development Strategy Executive Summary (2009)

11.1.2 NTA Functions

The following sections describe the main functions of the main NTA organizations. Some of these organizations exist, while others are proposed by the NSTSP. The MOT, ETA, TDA, and ETF are currently functional, while the SCT, CST, and RTOs are proposed.

11.1.2.1 Ministry of Tourism

The MOT was established in 1965 with the purpose of promoting and licensing tourism enterprises. Other responsibilities were added as the MOT expanded over the years by the addition of the ETA and Tourism Development Unit - now TDA (JICA, 2000). Currently, the main responsibility of the MOT is the planning and coordinating of tourism development. It also regulates and controls tourism businesses and coordinates between public and private sectors in tourism development.

11.1.2.2 Egyptian Tourism Authority

The ETA was established in 1981 as an independent agency that was responsible for marketing Egyptian tourism internationally. It has 21 offices internationally to facilitate this.

The ETA's publicity and promotional efforts include the following tasks (JICA, 2000, pp. 1-16 - 17):

- working out strategies to attract new markets or previously weak markets;
- preparing promotional tools, such as printed material and audio-visuals;
- setting-up tourist information centres overseas and in Egypt, and disseminating promotional material, such as brochures;
- posting website information;
- publicizing Egypt via newspaper and TV ads in major markets;
- organizing familiarization tours for travel agents and the press;
- maintaining a presence at vital international travel fairs in the main tourist generating markets (such as in ITB Berlin, WTM London, JATA Travel Trade Show Tokyo); and
- organizing travel trade missions to existing, new or possible markets.

11.1.2.3 Tourism Development Authority

The TDA was established in 1991 under the jurisdiction of the MOT. It is responsible for the planning, coordinating, and promoting of new tourism development projects. In order to achieve this, the TDA must undertake the following tasks (JICA, 2000, pp. 1-19):

- establish a national strategy for tourism development to increase and upgrade the supply side of tourism in the country;
- prepare, review and evaluate plans, programs, studies and projects indispensable for tourism development, and set priorities for their implementation;
- develop infrastructure schemes in the designated tourism development areas, and recover their cost;
- promote sound policies of environmental and cultural planning in the development of tourist centres;
- supervise the implementation of development plans in tourist centres;
- manage and exploit, and dispose of desert lands allocated to tourist centres;
- promote tourism investment opportunities with a greater role for the private sector; and
- play a major catalytic role in improving the regulatory framework for private local and foreign investors.

11.1.2.4 Egyptian Tourism Federation

The ETF is responsible for guiding the common interests of all organizations within the tourism sector; and for assisting governmental and non-governmental organizations in tourism planning and development by providing a conduit for communications and cooperation between the MOT, industry and private tourism enterprises. As indicated by the mission statement, the ETF strives for the following (ETF, 2011):

1. Achieve ongoing tourism development while safeguarding Egypt's heritage;
2. Strengthen potential competition by improving the quality and development of tourism resources and services;

3. Maintain the equilibrium between elements within tourism development and the general national plan;
4. Preserve cooperation between the tourism chambers, their members, and with partners from effective bodies;
5. Due to globalization, sustain a balance between local tourism bodies and international relations.

11.1.2.5 Supreme Council of Tourism

The SCT is an organization that is proposed by the NSTSP for the purpose of coordinating and facilitating communication between organizations involved in tourism development. It would encourage the implementing of tourism development plans through both production and services sectors. These organizations can be from within the MOT or other ministries or groups.

11.1.2.6 Council for Sustainable Tourism

The CST is another organization proposed by the NSTSP. It is comprised of a small multidisciplinary team of professionals from different specialties. This team would have access to a larger pool of specialists from different disciplines that could be drawn upon when needed. The CST would be responsible for overseeing the implementation of the tourism plan and strategy as set by the MOT. Among the responsibilities of the CST is the launching of the tourism strategy, and ensuring that it remains a priority.

11.1.2.7 Regional Tourism Organizations

The NSTSP proposes that RTOs be created to improve the quality of tourism service. The RTOs will be comprised of local commercial and public interest groups and NGOs and are to carry out a number of tourism services including: providing information, arranging accommodation where necessary, resolving tourists' problems and complaints - along with the Tourism and Antiques Police, a special unit of the police under the Ministry of Interior. Currently, the ETA is responsible for carrying out these functions, which is not in line with its main function of international promotion, which may have contributed to diminished effectiveness of local tourism offices. Establishing an RTO in different proposed tourism regions is seen as a solution to these issues.

11.1.3 Assessment of NTA Structure and Functions

There are a number of concerns with regards to the NTA structure and functions. The current structure of the NTA is comprised of the MOT which is divided into three branches: the ETA, TDA and ETF. These branches have clear and specific functions, and the main idea behind this division is that the ETA is responsible for demand-side functions, while the TDA is responsible for the supply-side. The ETA conducts market research which it provides to the TDA and the ETF is responsible for coordinating between different groups both from within, as well as outside of the MOT. The major problem identified with the current structure is that there is a pushing of responsibility from one organization to the next. To address this issue, as well as to improve the overall performance of the NTA, the NSTSP proposes a number of new organizations; namely the SCT, CST and RTOs. The structure of these organizations is not in line with the previous framework and may cause increased passing of responsibility from one organization to the next.

Further exacerbating this problem and increasing the likelihood of diffusion of responsibility is the fact that there are overlapping responsibilities posed by the proposed framework. Under the new framework, both the ETA and the CST have the responsibility for coordinating interests between organizations, which may result in neither organization accomplishing this task.

The proposed structure places RTOs under the CST, while the CST is a small multidisciplinary team of professionals who are called upon when needed. It seems more intuitive for the RTOs, which are permanent organizations that provide a variety of tourism services, to be under the TDA or ETF. Also, according to the proposed structure, the creation of RTOs is contingent upon the establishment of the CST, which may or may not be achieved. The establishment of RTOs should be given a higher priority considering the importance of the functions that they serve and their direct contribution to improving the quality of tourism services.

Additionally, there is no timeline associated with the creation of the proposed organizations, and the plan generally lacks details of the composition, location and funding of these organizations. Meanwhile, the success of the plan is contingent upon the creation of these organizations because they are allocated responsibilities without which the plan cannot function.

11.2 Institutional Elements of Tourism

The discussion of institutional elements of tourism in Chapter 6 covers four main elements: manpower planning, organizational structures of tourism, tourism-related legislation, and tourism investment incentives. The following sections examine each of these elements as they pertain to the NSTSP.

11.2.1 Manpower Planning

The NSTSP aims to improve the quality of service offered, and one of the factors identified that must be addressed in order to achieve this is to improve human resource development. Inskeep (1991) mentioned four steps for manpower planning: evaluating present utilization of manpower, projecting future needs, evaluating human resources available in the future, and formulating programs to fulfill the required manpower needs. The following sections address these issues in Egyptian tourism planning.

11.2.1.1 Evaluating Present Utilization of Manpower

The tourism plan identifies the challenges currently facing the tourism sector in terms of human resources. The sector faces difficulty in attracting, recruiting and training the required workforce in order to achieve its desired targets. The plan addresses these issues and determines the main causes to be the following. Firstly, employment in the tourism sector in Egypt is not perceived as being an attractive career, particularly for high school graduates and individuals with a post-secondary education. Furthermore, the salaries and terms of conditions of tourism employment are not lucrative and, thus, do not attract individuals to settle for a career in tourism. Consequently, hotels, in particular, are finding it difficult to recruit a motivated and trained staff.

11.2.1.2 Projecting Future Needs

With the current state of employment conditions, there are many difficulties that will project into the future unless they are addressed. Some of these conditions are recognized and addressed by the plan. The entry-level of most tourism businesses in Egypt lack the ability and competence to adequately train their staff. Consequently, there is a shortage of qualified front-line personnel that have the required training and language skills to enable them to perform their jobs at the required standard.

Further, this problem also resonates in managerial positions, which do not meet international standards. Other than in the branded hotel sector, there is limited effort towards management development and training programs, which is an area that must be addressed in order for the tourism objectives to be achieved. Also, training is necessary not only for the private sector, but also for government agencies, particularly in the areas of marketing, management systems and tourism development to better meet the objectives of future plans.

The plan strives to increase the number of tourism arrivals and improve the quality of tourism and, if this is to be achieved, the plan acknowledges that local communities will have to be sensitized and their behaviours towards tourists will have to be positive. This will be addressed through a general tourism communication plan.

11.2.1.3 Evaluating Human Resources Availability in the Future

In order to evaluate the future of human resources it is critical to reflect on the current state of the tourism workforce. The majority of the workforce is currently composed of migrants who work for a limited period and then return home. Also, women represent only 7% of employment in tourism nationwide, and only 1% in resorts. These factors influence the quality of tourism services in Egypt. In order to improve the quality of service, individuals employed in tourism should be retained and encouraged to continue to work in tourism, and women should be encouraged to seek employment in tourism.

Currently, there is no specialized organization to oversee human resource issues in the tourism sector. Furthermore, institutes are failing to produce graduates that meet the required market needs in terms of quality and skill. Aggravating this problem further is the fact that there are no requirements for employers to invest in training their employees, and there are no sources of funding dedicated towards this. These issues will persist in the future if they are not addressed directly.

11.2.1.4 Formulating Programs to Fulfill the Required Manpower Needs

In order to address the above issues and to enable the tourism sector to fulfill its objectives, the plan recognizes the need for establishing the required institutional structures to facilitate the development of the tourism workforce, and to attract employees that have the appropriate skills and commitment, and to provide attractive opportunities for women. In order

to achieve this, a Tourism Training Council is recommended to be established to coordinate between the different relevant bodies both within and outside the MOT. The plan calls for an increase in the responsibilities of the training unit of the ETF and an improvement in its capabilities. The CST would be responsible for implementing initiatives of the Tourism and Training Council. Further, steps are suggested to improve the quality of manpower such as increasing efforts to attract employees; developing careers in tourism; and informing students, parents and teachers about careers in tourism. Additionally, measures are suggested to reduce turnover in the sector such as developing local communities in tourism areas; namely the Nile Valley, Red Sea, and South Sinai, to select and train staff, organize career paths and development opportunities. In order to address the deficiency of women in the sector, it is suggested that resorts and towns provide family accommodation and equal opportunities for employment of males and females.

In order to address the issue of poor quality of graduates from tourism institutions, it is recommended that their syllabi and curricula be reviewed, improvements be made in the teaching standards, and the equipment be upgraded. Further, the plan recommends that professional development programs be made in cooperation with the Ministry of Education to improve the quality of instruction. Computer and linguistic skills are determined to be areas that should be prioritized for development for employees, particularly for those in contact with tourists. Training and development of staff are determined to be the responsibility of employers; however a mechanism to fund training should be set up, which may be related to a levy scheme.

The plan recommends that a national skill competency accreditation and assessment scheme be developed which will ensure that the level of employees is competitive and that they are adequately trained. The current Tourism Workforce Skills Development Project (TWSDP) in the ETF would continue to develop skills, particularly in the non-branded hotel sector, by training trainers and developing learning materials. Pre-employment hospitality skills programs would be developed and would be a pre-requisite for employment in the sector.

Development programs would also target the supervisory level and would be one of the responsibilities of the TWSDP. They would be responsible for developing programs to upgrade specific skills, and to train trainers and supervisory management of hotels. These programs

173

would be delivered in distance education courses as well as other short courses. These would be conducted by the Human Resources Development unit of the ETF.

Some training courses would require research and development, particularly support and training for female entrepreneurs, upgrading language training, upgrading the courses for teachers, and training of tour guides with a focus on environmental and cultural awareness. These responsibilities would require capacity building in the MOT.

Tourism awareness programs are recommended to be introduced to minimize potential conflicts. Local residents would become sensitized to tourism through the development of awareness programs that aim to improve understanding of tourism and of cultural differences. Awareness programs would also target public officials to increase their understanding and appreciation of tourism. Furthermore, tourism awareness would be included in the secondary school curriculum and would highlight potential economic and social benefits of tourism. Environmental protection and conservation issues would be included in the training programs.

11.2.1.5 Assessment of Manpower Planning

The quality of services provided by tourism employees is a significant problem that affects the overall quality of Egyptian tourism. The NSTSP acknowledges this issue and seeks to rectify it; however there are a few concerns that should be addressed.

Firstly, the plan does not discuss specific issues that are problematic. For instance, a study on the tourism development in Egypt conducted by JICA (2000) finds that cleanliness, services of domestic air transport, taxis, shops, and tour guides, in addition to the services of restaurants, railways, car rentals, bus and transport reservations, and hospitality of Egyptians were all unsatisfactory according to a survey of international tourists. These are specific factors that should be addressed and improved upon.

Secondly, the plan aims at expanding tourism and this is an additional factor that will play a significant role in manpower planning. These expansions will require an increase in the quantity of services provided by tourism employees, but it is important that the increase in quantity is accompanied with an increase in quality. There should also be regular follow-up and monitoring of the quality of tourism services to ensure that it is an ongoing effort and that Egyptian tourism offerings are maintained at a high standard.

174

Another potentially problematic area that the current plan does not account for is seasonality and dealing with fluctuations in demand for personnel in an adequate manner. This may be a major contributor to the problem identified by the plan that tourism is not viewed as a stable and lucrative career option. Additionally, this can cause unnecessary costs of workers during low seasons and stressed workers and poor service during high seasons. Addressing seasonality and implementing methods to deal with it are essential for maintaining quality tourism services.

11.2.2 Organizational Structures of Tourism

The organizational structures of tourism are discussed relatively extensively in the NSTSP. Issues of interdepartmental cooperation, the NTO structure, RTOs, international cooperation, and cooperation between the public and private sectors as they pertain to the NSTSP are discussed in the following subsections.

11.2.2.1 Interdepartmental Issues

One of the major issues that hinder successful interdepartmental cooperation, recognized by the NSTSP, is the lack of assumption of responsibility. Efforts have been made in the past to address this; however they have largely been in vain. For instance, a council was formed in 2000 to facilitate cross-ministerial responsibilities concerning issues in tourism; however it was unsuccessful even after it was reorganized in 2005. The NSTSP proposes that a SCT be formed, and that it should assume responsibility for facilitating management of cross-ministerial issues. The plan, however, does not mention reasons why the previous council was not successful and what is different about the SCT that makes it more likely to succeed than previous efforts.

11.2.2.2 International Cooperation

The NSTSP recognises the importance of international cooperation and that there can be both negative and positive effects to having strong international ties. A concern is that although the plan recognizes the negative perceptions associated with its neighbours and strives to distance itself from these perceptions, it fails to address how this will be achieved and does not recognize that Egypt itself can be considered in many respects an unsafe destination.

Additionally, dissociating itself from the Middle East can be difficult and potentially unwise because the plan discusses the Organization of Arab Tourism (OAT) and views it as a

promising venue for achieving many of Egypt's interests such as training, access to funding, research and information exchange, and developing transport links. It is important that all of the elements of the plan are in synchronization with one another.

The NSTSP recognizes the importance of other international cooperation outside of the Middle East as well for the purpose of capitalizing on aid opportunities. No other benefits from international cooperation are discussed. Furthermore, although financial support is an important benefit of cooperation, it is important that Egyptian tourism maintains self-reliance and independence from external factors.

11.2.2.3 Public and Private Sector Relationship

The NSTSP recognizes the importance of support for the private sector and embodies the belief that government support for the private sector has been a driving force of growth in the tourism sector. The ETF was established to coordinate interests between the MOT and the private sector, and the strategy aspires to continue to provide the necessary support for private tourism investors.

The NSTSP also recognizes that with freedom comes responsibility and that the private sector must be responsible for bearing the financial, environmental, cultural and social costs of their developments; and that they should strive to improve the economic and social conditions of the communities in which they operate. A problem, however, is that the plan is vague and theoretical in the sense that it does not address how this will be achieved and does not associate quantifiable figures to these expectations.

11.2.2.4 Assessment of Organizational Structures of Tourism

Overall, the major issues of organizational structures are addressed in the NSTSP and it attempts to improve on the current structure by improving areas that are seen as problematic. One important issue, however, is that the plan does not recognize reasons for problems before proposing solutions. For instance, the plan recognizes that there is a lack of assumption of responsibility between NTA organizations. It recommends the creation of a new organization to improve coordination between organizations, however this has been tried and failed in the past, and no modifications to the failed methods are suggested.

Another area that may prove to be problematic is Egypt's stance on its relationship with other Middle Eastern countries. It wants to distance itself from them to avoid any negative perceptions that may be associated with them, but wants to maintain close relations in order to benefit from cooperation. Egypt should decide on a clear stance in relation to its neighbours. Additionally, it should remain mindful of the fact that other international relations outside the scope of tourism play a role in this, and that distancing itself from its neighbours may not be a viable option.

Additionally, regarding international relations, Egyptian tourism planning should recognize that there are other benefits to maintaining positive relations with the international community other than potential aid funding. Also, Egypt should strive to be independent in its funding sources so that it can maintain maximum control over the sector.

11.2.3 Assessment of Tourism-Related Legislation

The laws and decrees that comprise the Egyptian tourism legislation are listed in Table 11.1. These are the laws that are considered in the following assessment of Egyptian tourism legislation.

Table 11.1 Constituents of the Egyptian Tourism Legislation

Law	Description
Law No. 38 of the year 1977	Concerning the reorganization of tourist companies
Decree No. 209 of the year 2009	Concerning the executing regulations of Law No. 38 /1977 on the organization of tourist companies
Law No. 1 of the year 1973	Relating to hotels and touristic constructions
Ministerial decree No. 343 of the year 1974	Concerning the implementation of certain provisions of Law No.1 of the year 1973 on hotel and tourist establishments
Law No. 2 of the year 1973	Relating to the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism on touristic zones and their exploitation
Ministerial decree No. 194/1997	Concerning activities as carried out by tourist companies considered to be tourism activities
Prime Minister's decree No. 1034 of the year 2002	Setting controls on investment guarantees and incentives enjoyment by the integral touristic development activity
Ministerial decree No. 83/2008	Adding some provisions to the general prerequisites of granting or renewing licenses for tourist establishments
Ministerial decree No. 176/2008	Concerning the provisions of granting a license of tourist establishment to land transportation buses for transporting tourists
Ministerial Decree No. 150 of the year 2010	Regarding the conditions and regulations governing the timeshare system in hotel establishments, tourist villages and resorts
Ministerial decree no. 300 of the year 2011	On restaurants and tourist shops

The comprehensiveness of Egypt's tourism legislation was assessed based on Downes'
(2006) list of issues that should be contained in tourism legislation, which can be found in
Appendix D.

11.2.3.1 Elements that are Adequately Represented in the Legislation

Egyptian tourism legislation comprehensively covers a number of issues. These include
the functions and powers of the NTO, the procedures and requirements for licensing of different
tourism enterprises, registration procedures, process and requirements for inspections,
qualifications and regulations of managers and professionals employed in tourism businesses,
regulation of activities and services of hotels, financial protection of tourism enterprises,
definition of tourism enterprises, and hotel classifications. Overall, Egypt's tourism legislation is
largely limited to investment matters and some elements are largely absent from legislation.
These are discussed in the following subsections.

11.2.3.2 Elements that are Lacking from Legislation

There are a number of factors that are severely lacking from the Egyptian tourism
legislation. These include sustainable tourism development; cooperation between different
organizations; rules guiding tour guides, shops and peddlers, and small tourism enterprises;
tourist assistance offices, dealing with illness, and regulations of tours.

Sustainable tourism development is an area that is overlooked in the tourism legislation.
Environmental factors are referred to by stating that the environmental conditions specified by
Law No. 4 of 1994, also known as *The Environment Law*, should be adhered to, however the
Environment Law does not refer specifically to tourism, and the application and enforcement of
these conditions are overseen by the EEAA, which is outside the scope of tourism although in
some cases, such as the construction and operation of beach resorts, tourism is the main
operating sector. Furthermore, there is no mention of heritage protection, audits of natural and
heritage resources, or poverty alleviation requirements.

Another area that is severely lacking from the tourism legislation is the roles of and
cooperation among different groups and stakeholders. For instance, the roles of local and
provincial authorities are not specified. Accordingly, details of cooperation between different
organizations, both from the private and public sectors, are not specified.

Rules guiding small tourism enterprises are deficient. For instance the licensing, obligations, professional and educational requirements, and duties of tour guides are not mentioned. Similarly, there are no regulations that are mentioned concerning guided tours. Also, rules regarding shops and peddlers are insufficient as there are no rules guiding the authentication of crafts, liability of shopkeepers, shipments of goods, and permits for peddlers. Also, other small tourism enterprises, such as dance groups and story tellers, are not mentioned. These should be present in the tourism legislation.

Rules and regulations that should guide tourist assistance offices are also lacking from tourism legislation. It is mentioned in the tourism plan that local and regional tourist assistance offices will be set up in specific regions to serve the needs of tourists and tourism ventures, and to monitor and regulate the implementation of tourism plans. There is, however, no mention of these offices in the tourism legislation, factors such as the rules for their establishment, their powers, and how to deal with different issues such as tourist complaints and illnesses.

11.2.3.3 Accessibility of Tourism Legislation

Egypt's tourism law is largely limited to investment matters. Issues of environmental protection, health and safety, cultural and heritage protection should be included. Laws and regulations should be in line with tourism development aspirations.

Additionally, Egypt's tourism laws are not easily accessible, especially in English. They should be openly accessible via the World Wide Web in both English and Arabic. At the present time, although some Egyptian laws are available online, tourism laws are not. Tourism laws can be found in a document entitled "Tourism Legislations", which was published in 2011, and contains the legislations that pertain to tourism. These legislations have been translated into English and the resulting document can be purchased at bookstores in Egypt. They are also available for sale at www.egyptlaws.com. These laws have been translated and compiled by a private company, The Middle East Library for Economic Services, rather than by a government source.

11.2.3.4 Conclusion

Legislation is a tool that should influence tourism development to take the course specified by the tourism development plan. This tool is underutilized in Egyptian tourism. There

are issues that are problematic in Egyptian tourism that can be rectified by the aid of tourism legislation. For instance, there is no mention of public-private relationships and responsibilities in the plan, and is not adequately present in Egyptian tourism planning at large. Also, sustainability considerations, protection of natural and heritage resources, and poverty alleviation are all factors that are under-represented, if mentioned at all, in the legislation and in Egyptian tourism planning at large. Issues of environmental protection, health and safety, cultural and heritage protection should be included. Legislation can serve to improve public-private relations by delineating the roles of various groups and stakeholders. The laws and legislation should be in line with the greater tourism development aspirations.

11.2.4 Tourism Investment Incentives

Egyptian tourism investment incentives are entitled Law No. 8 of 1997, otherwise known as the Law of Investment Guarantees and Incentives. Prior to the promulgation of this law, different laws governed different investment sectors' incentives. Tourism investment was guided by Law No. 1 of 1973 on Hotel and Tourism Establishments. The Law of Investment Guarantees and Incentives repealed all prior laws, and is the only governing law on investment incentives in the sectors mentioned in the law, which includes the "operation of hotels, motels, hotel apartments, tourist villages and tourist transportation". Other industries that support tourism are included in the list, such as infrastructure and air transport. For a full list of the business activities that benefit from this law see Appendix F.

Based on Law No.8 of 1997, tourism investment projects, including transportation projects, are exempted from corporate taxes for a minimum of five years. Tourism development projects that aim at developing desert zones and supplying them with infrastructure are exempt from tax payments for ten years, and businesses operating in the New Valley, Kharga, Baris, and Farafra oases are exempt from taxes for a period of 20 years. Law No. 8 of 1997 provides a number of investment incentives. Other incentives are discussed in the plan and they can be divided into two main categories: guarantees and exemptions. Details of these are discussed in the following subsections.

11.2.4.1 Guarantees

The Investment Law safeguards against nationalization and confiscation of businesses. It also protects against creeping expropriation by prohibiting the partial cancellation or suspension

of licenses that have been granted unless the license conditions have been infringed upon (Art.11).

11.2.4.2 Exemptions

The business activities under the Investment Law are exempt from some of the rules and regulations that other businesses must adhere to. These exemptions are divided into two categories: general exemptions and fiscal exemptions.

11.2.4.2.1 General Exemptions

The general exemptions include exemptions from pricing requirements, restrictions on foreign ownership of land and buildings, and other restrictions on the engagement of foreign individuals and entities in the export and import of products, and Egyptian nationality requirements. They are also exempt from incorporation requirements, requirements regarding the formation of the Board of Directors, and election requirements and procedures for workers' representative unions.

11.2.4.2.2 Fiscal Exemptions

There are three types of fiscal exemptions under the Investment Law: corporate exemptions, securities, and stamps and custom duties.

a) Corporate Exemptions

The corporate exemptions exempt businesses from tax on revenues or stock companies' profits. Joint stock companies are exempted from paying a percentage of the paid-in capital. The value of the contributed capital, both real and in-kind, that has contributed to the capital increase is exempt from taxes, as are profits realised from the merger, division or change in corporate identity.

b) Securities

Revenues from movable capital for dividends paid on all forms of security issued by joint stock companies, such as financing deeds and bonds, are exempted from taxes.

c) Stamp and custom duties

Businesses are exempted from paying stamp duties, notarisation and/or registration fees on the incorporation, loans, mortgages and other transactions that serve the project or are necessary for its establishment.

11.2.4.3 Assessment of Tourism Investment Incentives

There is substantial debate in the literature about why incentives should be granted and whether the benefits outweigh the costs. This debate is outside the scope of this study; however, assuming that such incentives may be beneficial, there are a number of considerations to bear in mind. Tourism investment incentives should differ based on a number of factors mentioned by Jenkins (1982), such as the time of the setup of the investment, the type of investor and the location of the investment. Although incentives differ based on the location of the investment, the type of investor and the time of setup are not considered in the Egyptian national tourism plan. These should be used to promote particular types of investment that could better serve the tourism development plan. For instance, local investors may be given further incentives over international investors, and investments that employ locals may be given additional incentives as well.

The incentive legislation should be based on the greater tourism objectives (Jenkins, 1982). This is a major weakness of the Investment Law in its application to tourism businesses. For instance, incentives should be used to promote specific areas that are targeted for tourism development. Incentives can also be used to encourage environmental and social considerations in tourism development. The current Investment Law is general and applies to all types of investment.

Tourism businesses, as defined by the Investment Law, are limited to hotels, motels, hotel apartments, tourist villages and tourist transportation. There are many other tourism businesses that are necessary for successful and balanced tourism development, such as souvenir shops, restaurants and travel agencies. These businesses should be addressed and incentives should be applied to these businesses as well.

11.3 Conclusion

There are many barriers that could hinder the successful implementation of tourism policy. Dodds (2007) assessed common barriers to tourism policy implementation: a focus on short-term and economic issues, lack of previous planning, limited stakeholder involvement, lack of integration with other policies and frameworks, lack of accountability to politicians to implement the plan, and lack of coordination with other government parties. These are legitimate concerns that face the NSTSP. There is generally a lack of commitment to long-term environmental and socio-cultural considerations, with the priority of focus on short-term financial returns. Previous plans are not referred to and this poses the threat of unsuccessful implementation of new initiatives because the causes for the lack of success of failed initiatives are not assessed. It is difficult to assess the degree to which stakeholders are involved in the planning process, and the degree to which they are aware of the NSTSP and are willing to cooperate. Some of the initiatives in the plan require stakeholder participation and cooperation, particularly the setting up of new organizations and restructuring of the NTA. The NSTSP was created by external planning consultants who consulted with different stakeholders while drafting the plan. It is, however, unlikely that all stakeholder groups were adequately represented, particularly regional governments and local residents as they do not have fully functional organizational structures that have elected representatives.

Egyptian tourism planning displays many of the issues that Tosun and Jenkins (1998) find to be common in developing country national-level tourism planning. For instance, the NSTSP fails to dedicate the necessary amount of detailed planning to each tourism location. This is characteristic of large developing countries that attempt to guide sub-national tourism planning. Also, tourism tends to cluster around areas that are already the most developed parts of the country, which aggravates the problem of concentrated development. There are many parts of Egypt that are in need of development, such as the Nile Delta, parts of the Sinai Peninsula, and Upper Egypt that are poor and in need of new initiatives and opportunities, but no tourism development efforts have been allocated in these areas. This is largely outside government control, as these locations may not have the necessary resources that are required to attract tourists. Finally, controlling regional tourism development is a problematic issue in Egypt, as in many developing countries, because it is often not managed at the regional level and, thus, socio-

cultural, economic and political features that are specific to that region are not considered, thus threatening the performance and sustainability of tourism in that region.

There are some concerns that are specific to the NSTSP. Firstly, although it recommends many initiatives to improve specific concerns, the initiatives fail to be sufficiently detailed in their proposals and this sheds doubt upon the likelihood of their future instigation and success. Suggested organizations and initiatives should have budgetary details, a timeline, and should start small and grow. This practical and realistic approach is lacking from the NSTSP.

Secondly, the NSTSP does not fully capitalize on its tools to manipulate the market in order to achieve its goals. Two key tools that it could employ are legislation and incentives. Both of these are under-utilized and should be more directly tied to the objectives of tourism development. These tools can be used to influence both supply and demand. Laws can be used to influence tourists' behaviour to prevent them from acting in culturally or environmentally unacceptable ways. They can also influence investment decisions and facilitate investment in areas that aspire to experience growth in tourism.

Finally, with regards to broader institutional elements, the NSTSP should emphasize the role that other non-tourism organizations play in developing tourism. For instance, developments in transportation, infrastructure, and training and education cannot be achieved without the cooperation of the corresponding ministries. These organizations should play a more active role in tourism strategic planning and benefits from development should be mutual in order to ensure the longevity of development cooperation.

It may be difficult to address some of these concerns and it may take time to make changes, while others may be outside of the scope of the powers of the NSTSP. However, a first step to improving institutional elements in Egyptian tourism planning is to be aware of these issues. The following chapter, Chapter 12, is the final chapter in the assessment of the NSTSP, and it assesses Egyptian tourism marketing planning in light of the discussion in Chapter 7.

Chapter 12: Egyptian Tourism Marketing Planning

This chapter examines Phase 3 of the NSTSP, which is the Egyptian national-level tourism marketing plan, in light of the discussion in Chapter 7. Chapter 7 describes and discusses the characteristics that should be present in the mission statement, strategy, objectives, targets, and marketing strategy process of a marketing plan. Recommendations are then made to improve the overall functionality of the Egyptian tourism marketing plan.

12.1 Mission Statement

Section 7.1 discussed the purpose and components of a sound tourism marketing plan's mission statement. Although there is no explicit mission statement in the Egyptian tourism marketing plan, this section examines the NSTSP's marketing plan's consideration of these components. Many of the points recommended by Heath and Wall (1992) are covered in the introductory sections of the plan. Each of these points is examined in the following sub-sections.

12.1.1 Comprehensiveness of Mission Statement

12.1.1.1 Reason for the Existence of the Organization

There are two organizations that have active roles in the planning and implementation of the NSTSP marketing plan, the ETA and the MOT. The role of these organizations is covered by the marketing plan. The ETA is the main national tourism marketing entity and it operates under the supervision of the MOT. The functions of these organizations are summarized in Table 12.1.

Table 12.1 Responsibilities of the MOT and ETA in the Marketing Plan

MOT	ETA
• Set targets • Fund ETA to implement marketing plan • Monitor ETA's effectiveness in achieving targets year by year	• Guide and coordinate marketing and promotional efforts of the private sector, other governmental agencies managing national tourism assets and local authorities • Liaise closely with the private sector in marketing planning • Act as the guardian of the Egypt tourism brand • Work with the STI to ensure that products and market needs are mirror images of one another

12.1.1.2 Served Tourist Needs and Wants

There is no mention of tourists' needs and wants that are served in the introductory sections of the marketing plan. This presents an area for improvement for the plan. Provision of a

general overview of the market needs and wants at the onset of the marketing plan can serve to set the trajectory of the plan in a way that does not lose sight of the market(s) it strives to serve. It would be very difficult to attract tourists or prepare a sound tourism plan without consideration of their desires and what they look for in a destination. It is, thus, crucial that this element is addressed.

12.1.1.3 Tourism Performance Expectations of the Region

The third point mentioned by Heath and Wall (1992) that should be present in the mission statement is tourism performance expectations. The Egyptian tourism marketing plan covers this point extensively in a section entitled "Recent performance and future targets". This section outlines Egypt's performance by number of arrivals from the top ten markets by country of origin. The numbers of visitors, bed nights, and average stays for each country are listed for 2008 and, subsequently, 2020 targets are placed. Also, the percentage of market shares of the seven main international markets (United Kingdom, Russia, Germany, Italy, France, United States and the Netherlands) are compared with Egypt's four main international competitors as determined by the NSTSP (Turkey, Morocco, Tunisia and Jordan) for the years 2000, 2004, 2005 and 2006. In addition, the percentage of market shares of major Arab markets (Libya, Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Kuwait, Yemen and Qatar) is compared with three other major Arab destinations (Syria, Jordan and Lebanon).

12.1.1.4 Other General Guidelines for the Regional Tourism Strategy

This component addresses such considerations as environmental sensitivity, community involvement and coordinated development (Cravens & Lamb, 1986). Environmental sensitivity and community involvement are not directly addressed in the NSTSP marketing plan. Coordinated development, however, is addressed in terms of allocation of responsibility and assurance that other organizations that are involved in the successful implementation of the plan are aware of its existence and have consented to their required roles.

Other general guidelines are discussed in the introductory section of the marketing plan. These include the following elements: the marketing approach, key areas of promotional activity, principles of the marketing plan, and priorities in marketing. The idea behind these sections is to set the stage for the rest of the planning document so that it is placed within the context of these elements.

The marketing approach, for example, involves building destination awareness, providing accurate and detailed information on attractions, facilitating interaction with larger tour operators, providing a framework for marketing partnerships, and increasing the use of the internet. The priorities in marketing are stated as follows in the marketing plan (p. 10):

- Priority A: Products which could be both high in value (in terms of expenditure per visitor per stay) and high volume. These are the key special interest marketing priorities.
- Priority B: Products which deliver high volumes but not necessarily high value.
- Priority C: Products which could deliver high value, but not high volumes (these are particularly valuable in Egypt's many eco-sensitive locations).
- Other products and experimental new products.

12.1.2 Other Considerations in the Mission Statement

Section 7.1 includes a list of five items that the mission statement should account for (Heath & Wall, 1992). The robustness of the mission statement can be determined by examining these elements. From examining the presence of this list of aspects in the NSTSP, it is found that the major weakness with regards to them in the marketing plan is that there is no reference to adapting the mission, or any other aspect of the plan, in response to changes in the environment.

Another area of concern is how realistic the plan is in terms of its consideration of the broader context. Egypt is a developing country and the infrastructure and quality of services is undoubtedly of lower quality than many of its competitors. The plan, nevertheless, strives to attract high-spending tourists who seek a high-quality experience. Although it may be possible to ensure that some aspects of the overall tourism experience are of high quality, tourists are inevitably exposed to some unpleasant experiences such as long unorganized lines at the airports, slow traffic, broken pavements, and other infrastructural issues. These issues must be resolved before Egypt can achieve its full tourism potential.

The preferences of many of Egypt's major tourism stakeholders are also overlooked in the plan. The opinions and points of view of relevant organizations are not considered nor addressed. If their interests were accounted for, this is not mentioned in the plan.

Although the plan overlooks the above-mentioned factors that should be present in the mission statement, there are some factors that are also important that it does consider. The plan accounts for Egypt's past experiences based on the markets it has promoted and successfully attracted in the past; in addition to markets that it was not successful in attracting, or which did

not perform as well as was anticipated. The plan's strategies are based on a previous study conducted for the European Union Tourism Twinning Project, which identified issues that hindered the effectiveness of Egyptian marketing initiatives in the past.

Another factor that the plan accounts for is the region's distinctive competencies. Egypt's weakness is not its distinctive competencies, as it has much to offer that other countries cannot offer, such as Ancient Egyptian and heritage tourism, the River Nile, Red Sea, and desert tourism to name a few. Egypt recognizes its competencies and attempts to capitalize on them in its marketing plan.

12.1.3 Conclusion

Although the introductory section of the marketing plan has many of the elements that should be present in the mission statement, it does not have a formal mission statement. It would help to unify priorities and to better unite the entire plan towards a common, clear purpose if one were included. Nevertheless, the introductory section of the NSTSP marketing plan contains most of the elements that should be present in the mission statement, such as the reason for existence of the organization, tourism performance expectations, past experiences, and distinctive competencies. It should also focus on addressing the tourist wants and needs that are served, environmental sensitivity, community involvement. It should be adaptable to be able to endure unexpected changes in the environment.

12.2 Strategy

Section 7.2 presented a discussion of tourism marketing strategy. This section examines the NSTSP based on this discussion and begins by examining the marketing strategies that are proposed based on the listed ten commonly employed marketing strategies: push or pull, go for growth, specialise, develop a vigorous new-product policy, concentrate on building a brand name, tap an undiscovered gold mine, renovate a decaying product, turn clients from ciphers into human beings, go for quality, and offer the widest possible product range (Wahab, 1976). This section addresses the Egyptian tourism marketing plan's employment of each of these strategies.

1. *Push or pull.* A combination of push and pull strategies are employed. Some pull strategies that are used include TV, print, poster and internet advertisements, in addition to various promotional schemes. Push strategies used include participation in trade fairs, public relations, familiarizations, and targeting tour operators and charter operators.

2. *Go for growth sectors*. The plan mentions tourist nationalities that are willing to spend more, such as France and Canada, in order to better target them in the plan.

3. *Specialize*. Although Egyptian tourism could employ this strategy as Egypt is home to some of the best sites for diving and has many historical sites, this strategy is not directly employed in Egyptian tourism marketing.

4. *Develop a vigorous new-product policy*. Egypt has not developed any new tourism products and, thus, does to employ this marketing strategy.

5. *Concentrate on building a brand name*. The NSTSP five-year marketing plan views the Egyptian brand as "one of the world's strongest and most instantly recognisable world tourism brands" (p.19) and, therefore, no additional efforts are required.

6. *Tap an undiscovered gold mine*. This strategy is not directly employed in Egyptian tourism marketing.

7. *Renovate a decaying product*. This strategy is not discussed, although it could potentially be a sound strategy for parts of the Red Sea that have undergone severe environmental damage and no longer attract divers due to extreme coral damage.

8. *Turn clients from ciphers into human beings*. This method is not employed and it may be inapplicable to national-level tourism marketing.

9. *Go for quality*. Although Egyptian tourism marketing planning attempts to attract quality markets, this is not the main strategy; it is more a result of attempting to offer the widest product range than a specific focus.

10. *Offer the widest possible product range*. This strategy is heavily employed in the Egyptian tourism marketing strategy. A variety of products are offered: both mass tourism products as well as niche products. Mass products include winter beach, summer beach, residential, cultural, business, wellness, conference, diving, and religion among others. Niche products include desert expeditions, sports, ecotourism, golf and safaris among others.

Attributes with which to evaluate the adequacy of a strategy have also been mentioned in Section 7.2 (Jain, 1993). These are suitability, validity, feasibility, internal consistency, vulnerability, workability, and appropriate time horizon. The two characteristics of concern in the Egyptian marketing plan are feasibility and vulnerability. With regards to feasibility concerns, the plan aspires to attract wealthy tourists who strive for a high-quality experience. This is highly unlikely given the overall infrastructure of the country. Tourists will be exposed to factors that are not high-quality, such as airport lines and weak service quality, and poor infrastructure. The plan should, therefore, be more realistic in what can be feasibly attained. With regards to vulnerability, the plan makes assumptions about the market conditions and economic conditions, and is not flexible to accommodate changes in the environment.

12.3 Objectives and Targets

This section examines the objectives and targets of the NSTSP marketing plan in light of the discussion of these elements in Section 7.3. Sub-section 7.3.1 presents factors that should be contained in objectives and the characteristics that they should possess, and 7.3.2 discusses characteristics of tourism marketing targets. The assessments of the objective and targets of the NSTSP are based on these discussions.

12.3.1 Objectives

The Egyptian tourism marketing objectives are stated as follows in the marketing plan (p. 8):

- Marketing Objective 1: Position Egypt as the 'must see now' international holiday destination with a rapidly developing quality, high yield product coming on-stream.
- Marketing Objective 2: Broaden the awareness of Egypt's varied quality product range, encourage repeat visits and attract new market segments.
- Marketing Objective 3: Increase spending and length of stay.

These objectives address in some form or another all of the five points suggested by Wahab (1976), listed in Section 7.3.1, with regards to issues that should be covered by the objectives, with the exception of the issues of security and balance in the social and economic development plan. It is crucial that these issues be included in the NSTSP marketing objectives, particularly as Egypt has suffered from attacks on tourists in the past and is not widely perceived to be a safe and secure destination.

190

Wahab (1976) also suggested that tourism marketing objectives should be realistic, comprehensive, flexible and as specific as possible. It is difficult to assess how well Egypt's marketing objectives fulfill these criteria because they are broad and somewhat vague. They are, however, not comprehensive as there are basic issues that should be present in these objectives such as economic, socio-cultural and sustainability considerations that are missing from the objectives.

With regards to Middleton *et al.*'s (2009) list of characteristics that effective marketing objectives fulfill, listed in Section 7.3.1, the most evident weakness in the Egyptian tourism marketing objectives is the vagueness of the stated objectives. These objectives are not capable of being quantified in terms of sales volume, revenue and market share; not capable of being specific in terms of the products, segments and prices they work towards; and are not specific about the time period in which they are to be achieved. They should, thus, be more specific so that they can be monitored and their level of achievement determined.

12.3.2 Targets

The Egyptian tourism marketing targets are stated in terms of the percentage increase in number of tourists and bed nights. The 2008 figures, current at the time of the creation of the plan, are provided and targets are provided for year 3, year 5, and 2020. These targets are stated for each group of markets as follows: Middle East and North Africa, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, America, other Africa, Asia, and Other.

Over the 12-year period which the plan spans, from 2008-2020, the government aims to increase annual visitation to 25 million visitors, which represent approximately a 100% increase from the 2008 figure of almost 13 million visitors.

In terms of economic benefits, there are no actual detailed figures like those provided for tourist numbers and bed nights; however the plan states that the government aims to increase expenditure per visitor by 30%, although no details are provided and current spending per visitor is not disclosed. This is a major weakness of this plan. Targets that reflect economic benefits should be central to evaluating the success of the marketing plan.

Additionally, tourism is one of Egypt's major sources of income and Egypt can be considered to be an established destination with established markets. Thus, targets should focus

on desired changes in the characteristics of tourists, particularly as they relate to other ambitions of the marketing plan such as targeting higher-spending, wealthier tourists.

12.4 Market Segmentation

As discussed in Section 7.4, the process of creating a marketing strategy consists of market segmentation, targeting and positioning. Each step of the process was discussed in turn in Sections 7.5, 7.6 and 7.7. The following sections examine the NSTSP marketing strategy in light of the literature examined in these sections. The present section examines the segmentation approach employed in the NSTSP. Then Section 12.5 examines its employability in market targeting and Section 12.6 explores the market positioning strategy.

Egyptian tourism market segmentation largely employs undifferentiated marketing. It presents each country as a large market and attempts to target tourists from each country as a whole. This is not to say that no details of the composition of each market are discussed; however, the strategy aims to target as many tourists as possible from the country as a whole. The main discussion of segmentation is based on segments that are perceived to be most interested in Egyptian tourism, or are easiest to attract, rather than segments that Egypt would like to attract due to their characteristics, such as environmental awareness or socio-cultural sensitivity.

Egyptian tourism is marketed based on country of origin. Segments in each target market are not clearly identified, although consideration is given to segmentation while creating the marketing plan. General characteristics are mentioned for each nationality such as the types of activities they are interested in, their demographics and spending habits, among other vaguely-stated characteristics. These characteristics, however, are very broadly applied and no entire country can be identified as an entire segment without compromising many of the benefits of segmentation.

Each country is segmented based on different criteria than the criteria used for other countries. The criteria that are employed are: length of stay, interest, wealth, demographics, location, travel experience, and ethnic origin. The most commonly targeted groups (in order of most common to least common) are: special interest, wealthy, families, frequent fliers, empty

192

nesters, and young people. Special interest groups are comprised of groups that are interested in specific activities and, in the Egyptian tourism context, this mainly includes diving, desert, ecotourism, golf, Nile cruises, MICE (meetings, incentives, conferences, exhibitions), wellness, and culture.

12.5 Market Targeting

In order to assess the effectiveness of a market segment for targeting, there are seven characteristics that should be considered (Heath & Wall, 1992): measurability, accessibility, substantiality, defensibility, stability, competitiveness, and feasibility. The NSTSP largely relies on segmentation based on country of origin which, for the most part, is measurable, accessible, substantial, stable and feasible. It is not, however, necessarily defensible or competitive. The segment may not be defensible as it may be too large to have unique characteristics that would warrant its sufficiency as a market segment.

According to Heath and Wall's (1992) list of situations where it may be unwise to employ segmentation in tourism, it is in the best interest of Egyptian tourism to employ segmentation as Egyptian tourism does not fall under any of the mentioned categories. Egypt does not suffer from limited tourism resources, the tourism market is not homogeneous and competitors have not dominated most segments.

The 'segments to target' sections however are not limited to discussions of segments; rather they also include a discussion of the product in some cases. This could be because the product section is not present for all of the targeted countries, such as Germany and Poland; however better organization of the plan could solve this and facilitate the use of this plan.

The target market is not always consistent with the products being offered to that segment. For instance, the key segment from the Chinese market is business and government groups, yet the main recommended product is heritage sites. Furthermore, the plan does not address how these segments will be targeted amidst other segments in the same market.

Egypt's main competitors are Turkey, Morocco and Jordan. They all market seaside and resort tourism, health and wellness tourism, religious tourism, and some form of desert tourism

193

or ecotourism. These segments cover most of Egypt's targeted segments, so Egyptian tourism needs to consider what it has to offer that these countries cannot offer in order to focus on this in their promotion.

Egypt should reconsider its level of competitiveness in targeting wealthy segments. This is one of the most central segments that it aspires to target, yet there are limitations posed by the poor quality of supporting infrastructure that could hinder the success of this strategy, particularly in comparison with the superior performance of its competitors in this area. Egypt should aim to have a clear idea of how to target wealthy segments and maintain awareness of competitors and how the quality of tourism services that they offer compares with that of the competition.

Although it is probably unwise to segment tourists strictly by country of origin because of the broadness of characteristics of tourists from a country, some factors are best characterized using this criterion for segmentation. For instance, airfare, visas, and other barriers to entry are best addressed by geographic location. However, a step towards improving this plan would be to address the needs of each of the specialist segments individually in order to cater to their particular needs.

12.6 Market Positioning

Market positioning is the third and final stage of the marketing strategy process. This section examines the NSTSP's market positioning strategy based on the discussion in Section 7.7. First the comprehensiveness of the positioning strategy is considered in Section 12.6.1, followed by an analysis of each of the marketing mix elements in Section 12.6.2.

12.6.1 Comprehensiveness of Positioning Strategy

In Section 7.7.1, four questions that the strategic marketing plan should address when determining the strategic market position are described (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). The following sub-sections examine how well the NSTSP's positioning strategy addresses these questions.

12.6.1.1 Where are we now, in the industry and market spaces we occupy?

The marketing plan views Egypt's current position as an exceptionally strong and instantly recognizable brand. This is largely attributed to the images of the pyramids, Tutankhamen's golden mask, Ancient Egypt, the Nile, sunshine, desert sands, friendliness of Egyptians, and Cairo as a great Islamic city. Additionally, the positioning strategy indirectly addresses this question because it categorizes different markets based on what the marketing plan views as the best way to improve its position.

Markets are labelled as either: for recovery, for consolidation positioning, or for growth, based on their current performance. The markets for recovery are those where Egypt would like to recover lost market share. The markets for consolidation are those in which it would like to consolidate its lead and the markets to grow are those that it currently does not have a large market share in and would, thus, like to develop in the future.

12.6.1.2 What decisions do we have to make now to get to where we want to be?

The plan extensively covers this question for the short, medium and long terms. In the short-term, it strives to focus on countries such as China, India and Korea from which tourists have a high propensity to travel to Egypt as a result of air access and interest in the product that Egypt has to offer. This is to be achieved through awareness campaigns. In the medium to long-term, the plan focuses on improving brand value by emphasizing diverse and high-quality tourism.

Market research is also an important approach that the plan recognizes if Egypt is to achieve its goals. This research will be used to underpin the focus on attracting higher-spending holiday makers; improve performance in low-performance markets such as the Asian market; and determine the best strategy to counter the decline in Arab visitors in 2008.

Improving branding is one of the major changes that the plan strives to make. But before branding is improved, research will be conducted to determine how tourists' expectations are influenced through marketing so that accurate, attractive marketing is carried out. In order to achieve this, it is recommended that a branding unit at the ETA head office in Cairo be set up in order to refine the brand image, develop brand delivery guidelines and subsidiary brands for each region to avoid fragmentation.

12.6.1.3 What opportunities are emerging in a changing world, which we could develop and aim to lead?

The main opportunity recognized by the positioning strategy is the potential benefit of creating a branding approach to marketing. The plan views such an approach to planning as being necessary to give tourists a more accurate and positive perception of Egypt, enabling it to better satisfy tourists' expectations. Ultimately, this should increase tourist numbers, increase repeat visits and tourist expenditure.

12.6.1.4 Where do we want to be in 5 years or more?

The marketing plan is a five-year plan and it strives to strengthen demand in those five years for the following areas (p. 16):

(a) High spending/high volume elements of the current product offer, by addressing specific segments within established markets.
(b) High volume products currently on offer and coming on stream, by aiming primarily at current successful markets with high penetration, such as the UK, Russia and Poland, and new markets.
(c) High value, lower volume product in existence which can be used to target higher spending segments within traditional markets.
(d) Other new emerging products.

The plan, however, fails to mention how it will measure the success of its strengthened demand in these areas.

12.6.1.5 Assessment of positioning strategy

Egyptian tourism has strengths that are exploitable and there is much that can be done to improve its competitive position. All of the issues warned against in market positioning, according to Heath and Wall (1992), are found in this positioning plan. This positioning strategy does not have a clear position, but rather positions itself between segments. It targets both high-end specialty markets such as golf and wellness tourists, and simultaneously targets mass tourists. This may be a result of Egypt's diverse product offerings; however it should take advantage of this by looking for an unfulfilled need in order to separate itself from the competition. Rather than doing this, it strives to target all types of tourists through a very diverse product portfolio. Egypt should consider how well it can realistically compete with its major competitors (Turkey, Morocco, Tunisia and Jordan) in all of these products, and focus on products that have a high demand, which other competitors cannot offer.

12.6.2 Marketing Mix

The following subsections examine the marketing mix elements (product, price, place, and promotion) in the NSTSP based on the discussion in Section 7.7.2.

12.6.2.1 Product

Product is discussed in the NSTSP for some markets, namely France, Italy, United Kingdom, Russia, Ukraine, Canada, Japan, India, China and Australia. The discussion of product is dominated by a discussion of the characteristics of the product rather than the actual product. For instance, family-friendly tourism is seen as vital for the Italian and Indian markets, although it is not specified what family-friendly products and activities actually are. Similarly, the plan recognizes that Canadian tourists are interested in high quality services and value-for-money, but details of the types of products that are offered to meet these criteria are not elaborated upon. Again, tourists from the UK are particularly interested in sustainable tourism and are willing to pay a higher price for it, but no details are provided to support this. Other characteristics of tourists' needs are useful, such as reduced length of stay to better accommodate tourists with shorter vacation times, which is recommended for French and Italian markets. However, this again is not tied to particular activities. Additionally, with regards to markets to grow, mostly barriers are discussed and what needs to be done about them rather than actual products being specified that need to be provided.

This is not to say that no mention of specific products is made. For instance, heritage sites are found to be popular with Japanese, Chinese and Australian markets. The types of cuisines that interest different nationalities are mentioned in cases where this may be an issue, such as vegetarian meals for Indians. Beach tourism is specifically mentioned for Ukrainians and French, and golf for French and Japanese tourists, but a more extensive discussion needs to be present that achieves this for all markets.

12.6.2.2 Price

Price is not directly addressed as part of the NSTSP marketing plan. On a few occasions it is considered generally, in terms of the purchasing power of the target market, but not directly in terms of the amount tourists will be charged. Price is an important element of the marketing mix, and addressing this issue is critical to the success of the plan as this is one of the main

197

issues that determine tourist behaviour. This, therefore, presents a substantial weakness in the NSTSP marketing plan.

12.6.2.3 Place

This marketing mix element is extensively addressed in the plan. Places for promotion vary by country. Different markets have different requirements and this is clearly represented in the plan. For instance, the plan suggests promoting to the Czech market via national websites rather than newspapers, which are not viewed as frequently, while, in Italy, daily newspapers are relied on extensively for marketing.

E-marketing is a growing venue for promotion; however its importance is not equal in all countries. In Japan, Spain and Australia, the internet plays a large role in marketing, while in Russia, Poland and Ukraine the internet does not play as large a role. In India, one of the best venues for marketing is by attracting Bollywood and Tollywood productions to film in Egypt.

12.6.2.4 Promotion

Egypt takes part in a wide variety of activities to promote its products. These activities can be divided into two major groups, as categorized in the plan: consumer marketing activity, and press and travel trade marketing activity. The activities in each of these categories are shown in Table 12.2.

Table 12.2 Egyptian Tourism Promotion Activities

Consumer marketing activity	Press and travel trade activity
Branding, publications	Public relations representation, familiarisations
TV advertising	Trade fairs
Other advertising	Travel trade communication and support
Internet development and e-marketing	
Consumer fairs and promotions	
Sponsorship and events	

Details for these activities are covered in the plan. For instance, the plan contains timelines of different products that will be advertised via different modes of promotion over the year, as different products attract different markets throughout the year. The plan also contains a list of trade fairs from around the world that Egypt is to participate in. There is a clear effort to maintain a consistent image in all venues of advertising as there are brand guidelines that are being put into place by a single advertising agency. This effort is evident based on recurrent

statements such as "all advertisements will carry common themes that strongly communicate the Egypt tourism brand" (p. 29).

12.7 Conclusion

This chapter examined the Egyptian tourism marketing plan, which is Phase 3 of the NSTSP, in light of the discussion on tourism marketing plans in Chapter 7. Based on this, a number of conclusions can be drawn. First of all, one identified weakness is that the NSTSP marketing plan lacks an explicit mission statement. The elements of the mission statement were thus examined through consideration of the introductory sections of the marketing plan. One weakness that was found is that it does not consider the needs and wants of tourists sufficiently. The needs are not mentioned in the introductory section which serves to set the stage for the rest of the plan. The underserved needs of the market should be central to the marketing plan as they would offer unserved opportunities for Egyptian tourism to capitalize on. The consequences of this are reflected in Egypt's market position, which is currently in direct competition with Turkey, Jordan and Morocco in all of its products. As it stands, these destinations are in direct competition with one another as they all target the same segments, which can pose a problem for Egyptian tourism, particularly in attracting wealthy tourists who seek a high-quality experience. By better analyzing the needs of the market, Egypt can position itself to best serve these needs and, thus, improve performance without necessarily outperforming its competitors for already existing products.

Another area for improvement is the market positioning strategy. Egypt should avoid positioning itself between segments. The plan strives to attract as many tourists as possible and, consequently, targets wealthy tourists, tourists interested in particular activities, and mass tourists. It is very difficult to implement this strategy successfully because it is difficult to achieve a strong brand with such a wide variety of target markets. Additionally, the target market in the plan is often not fully consistent with the products offered to that segment, which may be a consequence of a broad targeting strategy. One possible solution is to segment markets based on interest rather than country of origin. This may also help to address another concern, that specific products are not adequately addressed in terms of what products would be suitable for each segment. Rather, general characteristics are mentioned of the types of products that may interest

particular segments. This needs to be rectified if the tourism promotion is to target interested markets successfully. Acknowledging the characteristics of a product is only the first step to determining suitable products and then to marketing them successfully. Also, suitable products are not discussed for all markets. Furthermore, price, which is a key characteristic and marketing mix element, is entirely overlooked by this plan and should be addressed. This should be an important element in the marketing plan. The pricing strategy needs to be determined, particularly as other elements such as the quality of services, types of activities offered, and markets targeted depend on price to a great extent.

Another area that is overlooked by the plan is environmental sensitivity and community involvement. These are not mentioned and no effort is placed to attempt to attract tourists that are environmentally or socially conscious. Rather, the plan recognizes that some tourists, such as those from the United Kingdom, seek sustainable destinations and are willing to pay for them, and it recognizes that Egypt has few responsible tourism products to offer. However, it recognizes this in light of attracting the segment of tourists who are concerned with sustainability rather than for the sake of maintaining environmental and socio-cultural sustainability in its tourism practices. Similarly, the plan's targets are defined strictly in terms of the number of tourists and bed nights. Including economic and social indicators will facilitate taking a step towards a more socially conscious and sustainable form of tourism.

To this point in this thesis, the following has been achieved: the background literature and research methods have been discussed, a framework for assessing national-level tourism plans has been developed, and this framework has been applied to the Egyptian national-level tourism plan, the NSTSP. The evaluation of background literature consisted of a discussion about the relationships between tourism, development, and planning; an overview of various approaches to the assessment of planning and plans, and a justification has been provided of the importance of assessing plans. The gap that this study addressed is articulated and the research methods that were employed have been discussed. The research methodology relied primarily on a review of the literature, and site visitation. Following this, a framework for assessing tourism plans was constructed. This framework is divided into four sections: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. A case study with a mixed-methods

approach was undertaken to illustrate the utility of the framework. Each of the four elements of the framework was examined in an assessment of Egypt's NSTSP.

12.8 Summary of Findings for Egyptian Tourism

This chapter concludes Section IV of this thesis. This section has applied the framework summarized in Table 7.5 to the Egyptian tourism plan. The broad findings of this effort are summarized in Table 12.3. The following section, Section V is the final section, and it consists of a discussion of the main findings and conclusions that can be drawn from this study.

Table 12.3 Summary of Findings for the Egyptian Tourism Plan

1. Goals and Objectives
- Checklist of goals that should be present (McIntosh, 1977; Gunn, 1994; Sinha, 1998; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003)   Focus on the goals *enhanced visitor satisfaction*, and *improved economy*, and weaker presence the goals *protected resource assets*, *community and area integration*, and *protected resource assets*.

- Checklist of questions about objectives (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984)
     1. Where you are now *-yes*
     2. Where you want to be *-yes*
     3. Factors that are stopping you *-yes to some extent*
     4. Delineation of what is needed from other agencies *-yes*
     5. Allocation of responsibility within the agency *-yes to some extent*
     6. How multiple objectives will be handled *-no*
     7. What will be regarded as 'success" *-yes*
     8. How success will be quantified *-yes*
     9. Conditions upon which success is contingent *-yes*
     10. What to do if the objectives are not achieved *-no*

2. Approach to Tourism Planning

- Stage of evolution (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998): *Market or demand-oriented tourism development planning period*
   - Theoretical position (Khakee, 1998):
     - *Rational planning*
     - *Strategic planning*
   - Mutually-exclusive approaches:
     - *Market vs. product-led approach* (Inskeep, 1991) →balanced approach
     - Interactive vs. *conventional planning* (Lang, 1988)
     - Development first vs. *tourism first approach* (Burns, 1999)
     - *Mass tourism* vs. niche marketing (Getz, 2001)
   - Non-mutually exclusive approaches (i.e. concepts of planning)
     Getz (1987):
       - Boosterism *-no*
       - Economic *-yes*

- Physical-spatial -*no*
- Community-oriented -*no*

Inskeep (1991):
- Continuous, incremental and flexible -*none*
- Systems component -*yes to a large extent*
- Comprehensive component -*yes to a large extent*
- Integrated component -*somewhat*
- Environmental and sustainable development component -*yes to a large extent*
- Community component -*very limited*
- Implementable component -*not likely to be implemented*
- Application of a systematic planning process -*yes to a large extent*

3. Institutional Elements
- NTA structure and functions (WTO, 1994)
    - Concerns:
        - Pushing of responsibility from one organization to the next
        - Overlapping responsibilities between organizations
        - Lack of detail of the composition, location, and funding of proposed added organizations
- Institutional elements of tourism (Inskeep, 1991; WTO, 1994)
    - Manpower planning
        - No mention of specifics of issues to improve
        - No regular follow up and monitoring of quality of manpower
        - No account for seasonality and dealing with fluctuations in demand for personnel
    - Organizational structures of tourism
        - Plan does not examine reasons for problems before proposing solutions
        - Unclear stance on relationship with other Middle Eastern countries
        - Dependence on donor countries for funding of tourism projects
    - Tourism-related legislation
        - Limited to investment matters
        - Underutilized as a tool to influence the industry
    - Tourism investment incentives
        - The type of investor and timing are not considered in allocation investment incentives
        - Investment law not well employed to promote the intended direction of tourism development
        - Tourism investment incentives are limited in application to specific types of businesses, leaving out many essential services

4. Marketing
- Tourism destination marketing planning
    - Mission statement (Heath & Wall, 1992)
        - No formal mission statement although introductory section of the marketing plan contains most of the elements that should be present in the mission statement
    - Strategy
        - Strategies used (Wahab, 1976):
            - Both push and pull
            - Go for growth
            - Offer the widest possible product range
        - Concerns (Jain, 1993):

- - Feasibility
  - Vulnerability
- Objectives and targets (Wahab, 1976)
  - Objectives are not comprehensive as they are missing basic issues such as economic, socio-cultural, and sustainability considerations
  - Objectives are too vague
  - Targets are based on number of tourists and bed nights
- Marketing strategy
- Segmentation
  - Mostly undifferentiated marketing
  - Segmentation by country of origin
- Targeting (Heath & Wall, 1992)
  - The target market is not always consistent with the products being offered.
  - Consideration needs to be given to what unique products Egypt has to offer that are not offered by competition.
  - The relatively poor quality of tourism services and desire to target wealthy segments is a problematic issue
- Positioning
  - Positioning strategy (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009)
    - No clear position—positions itself between segments
    - Simultaneously targets high-end specialty markets as well as mass tourists
  - Marketing mix programme (Wahab, 1976; Kotler & Fox, 1985; Heath & Wall, 1992; Mill & Morrison, 1998; Buhalis, 1999; Kotler, 2000; Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009).
    - Product: discussion of product is dominated by characteristics of the product rather than the product itself
    - Price: not directly addressed
    - Place: addressed extensively
    - Promotion: wide variety of promotional activities used

PART IV: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This section contains Chapter 13, which is the concluding chapter of this dissertation. Chapter 13 contains a broad discussion of the overall assessment framework, outside the scope of its application to the Egyptian tourism context. It then assesses Egyptian tourism planning based on recurrent themes that arise from each of the four elements discussed in Parts II and III.

Chapter 13: Discussion and Conclusions

In this thesis, a framework has been created that can be used to assess national-level tourism plans and it has been applied to the Egyptian case. The rationale behind the need for this framework is that much insight can be shed on tourism planning by examining tourism planning documents. Although plans differ depending on their contexts, there are certain attributes that should be present in all tourism plans that address the future of destination areas above the site level. The framework that has been proposed in this thesis suggests the examination of tourism plans emphasizing four major topics: goals and objectives, approach to tourism planning, institutional elements, and marketing. This framework is then applied to the Egyptian tourism plan and, subsequently, recommendations are made to improve Egyptian tourism planning.

This chapter is the concluding chapter of this thesis. It commences by discussing the contributions made by this thesis to the existing literature on tourism plans and planning Following this, key elements that have surfaced recurrently in the Egyptian tourism context are discussed, along with their implications for tourism. Finally, avenues for extending this study through further research are considered.

13.1 Contribution to Knowledge

This study contributes to knowledge of tourism plans and, thus, planning. Although there is an abundance of work on tourism planning, there is limited work that assesses tourism plans (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Additionally, the literature on planning suggests that examining plans independently of the planning process has the potential to contribute to learning about and improving planning (Mandelbaum, 1990; Alexander, 2002; Ryan, 2011). This study, thus, has addressed these issues by proposing an integrated framework for assessing tourism plans. This framework draws from different literatures in its construction. The selection of literatures that it draws from is based on the availability of elements that have been suggested that should be considered in particular aspects of planning, rather than on determining that a particular checklist for a particular element is optimal due to the limited existing research on these topics. For this reason, it is important that this framework not be viewed as being set in stone. Rather, it is an

205

evolving work that should grow with further developments in the literature. This thesis is an initial step towards an ongoing process that can potentially facilitate the assessment of tourism development plans.

After suggesting a framework for assessment, this framework was then used to guide an assessment of the Egyptian national tourism plan.

As a result, the following contributions have been made:

1- Creating a framework to assess tourism plans.

This study suggests a framework to assess tourism plans that can be applied in different countries and contexts. This has been done by outlining key factors that should be present or considered in tourism plans.

2- Increasing the understanding of development and planning.

The preparation of a detailed plan is usually an important step in undertaking a development initiative, and evaluating the plan can lead to more efficient and effective development through facilitation of learning from experience. Evaluation is an ongoing process that should be a part of the planning process rather than being delayed until implementation of a plan has or has not occurred (Blakely & Bradshaw, 2002). This study increases understanding of the links between different agencies and functions, and contributes to a better understanding of of the topics that should ideally be addressed in a national tourism plan. This is achieved by examining different factors that should be considered in tourism plans and their creation including:

-how goals and objectives of different national institutions play a role in achieving development;

-different approaches to tourism planning and their roles in achieving development;

-the structures and institutions within tourism that should be in place as well as the those outside of tourism that are needed;

-the role of marketing and promotion and how they can facilitate or hinder development aspirations.

3- Bridging the gap between theory and practice of tourism planning.

This study unites theory and practice of tourism planning. One noted weakness of the current literature on tourism planning is that more work is needed to improve the effectiveness of the overall tourism functions and operations and to add to the understanding of tourism and development. Too often, tourism studies are case-specific, with little work being done across scales in order to form a more solid contribution to theory. This study contributes to understanding tourism planning by attempting to create a common base for assessing tourism plans, and by providing a means by which to compare different cases and thus combine individual knowledge on specific cases into generalized theory.

5- Assessing Egyptian tourism plans.

This study has applied the proposed framework for assessment to Egyptian tourism plans and, thus, has determined aspects that are sound and aspects that need improvement in Egyptian tourism plans.

13.2 Recurrent Issues from Assessment of the Egyptian Tourism Plan

From the analysis of the Egyptian tourism plan presented in this thesis, three key issues have surfaced multiple times. This suggests that they are particularly problematic in this context. They are: commitment to environmental and socio-cultural considerations; degree of stakeholder involvement in planning; and flexibility of the plan. These topics are discussed in the following sections, followed by an analysis of their potential consequences for Egyptian tourism, as well as the implications that can be seen by observing the current and past performance of Egyptian tourism.

13.2.1 Commitment to Environmental and Socio-cultural Considerations

This is the most prominent concern in the evaluation of Egyptian tourism planning. This issue surfaces in the analysis of each of the four elements of tourism planning. For instance, one of the significant concerns regarding goals and objectives is that the broad vision is not translated adequately into more specific objectives. The vision in the NSTSP Tourism Development Strategy (p. 9) describes the aspirations for Egyptian tourism as the development of a sector that is "mature, sustainable and responsible", yet none of the objectives address the achievement of these characteristics.

The approach to planning of the NSTSP is one that is essentially demand-oriented and focuses on increasing tourist volume in order to increase the economic benefits from tourism. This approach can result in severe environmental and socio-cultural repercussions if not carefully planned and executed. Environmental and socio-cultural considerations are not given due attention, which threatens the performance and sustainability of tourism in Egypt.

The analysis of institutional elements reveals that there is a lack of detail in proposed developments, particularly at the regional level. This is further exacerbated by the current lack of control over regional tourism. Thus, the specific needs and opportunities of each region are not adequately considered and, in particular, their unique environmental and socio-economic needs are not addressed. This reflects a lack of commitment to long-term environmental and socio-cultural considerations, with priority being given to short-term financial returns.

The marketing plan overlooks environmental sensitivity and community involvement altogether. These factors are not mentioned by the plan, and no effort is made to try to attract segments of tourists who are environmentally and socially conscientious. In fact, the only mention of environmental sensitivity is made when discussing the characteristics of destinations that tourists from different countries seek. Then it is mentioned that tourists from the United Kingdom are particularly interested in ecotourism. In this case, ecotourism products may be offered but not for the purpose of sustaining the destination, but rather to increase market share.

Thus, all of the examined elements of tourism planning indicate that there is a lack of commitment to environmental and socio-cultural considerations in Egyptian tourism planning; however, it is necessary to place these observations in a broader context. The tourism plan is to be guided by the priorities of the national development plan and, as mentioned earlier, the Egyptian national development plan strives to achieve high and sustainable economic growth. Similarly, the tourism vision promotes a sustainable form of tourism development. However, these statements are not carried through to the rest of the tourism plan. One possible interpretation is that the objectives of the national development plan are not sufficiently recognised in the tourism plan in these respects. The following subsections discuss environmental and socio-cultural weaknesses and their implications for Egyptian tourism.

13.2.1.1 Environmental Weaknesses

In the absence of environmental planning, tourism can experience and contribute to many problems such as water, air, noise and visual pollution; congestion; environmental disruption; and ecological damage. Also, infrastructure, tourism facilities, attractions, services and marketing programs are all threatened by inadequate planning for environmental considerations. In fact, the success of the sector as a whole is threatened by insufficient consideration of environmental factors in tourism planning because a deteriorating environment can undermine the quality of the sector and the product that it provides, for which tourists have growing expectations. It is, thus, in the long-term financial interest of the government and of planners to incorporate environmental considerations into tourism planning (Inskeep, 1987).

Tourism development has caused significant damage to the coral reefs in the Red Sea around the Hurghada region. These damages are a result of diving and snorkelling, infilling, sedimentation and over-fishing. New constructions in the area threaten the remaining reefs, particularly considering the planned expansion of tourism along the Red Sea (Hawkins & Roberts, 1994).

13.2.1.2 Socio-cultural Weaknesses

Socio-cultural considerations are another crucial factor that are not given due attention in the NSTSP. A number of issues can arise from this. Russo and van der Borg (2002, p. 632) divided socio-cultural consequences as arising from one of two broad issues:

- The compatibility between the development of a tourism industry and preservation of the heritage "out of the market".
- The existing and potential synergies and tensions between the "global" tourism system and "local" socio-economic development.

As a result, some of the potential social impacts of tourism include (Mathieson & Wall, 1982, p. 174):

1. The overcrowding of infrastructure, accommodation, services and facilities which tourists have to share with the local population.
2. The display of prosperity amidst poverty may cause explosive situations by way of the demonstration effect.

3. The employment of non-locals in managerial and professional occupations carrying greater responsibilities and superior salaries to those occupations available to members of the host community.

4. The increase in activities deemed to be undesirable, such as prostitution, gambling and crime.

5. The gradual erosion of indigenous language and culture with increasing numbers of the host society speaking the languages of their visitors.

Tourism can impact the local culture in ways that are unanticipated and sometimes unfavourable. For instance, commercialization of culture is one possible effect of tourism, which can influence local cultures and art forms and, thus, change the nature of the culture, causing the destination to lose its main source of attraction for tourists, rendering tourism unsustainable (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Although this is not the case in most of the developments in Egypt, because the majority of developments rely on historical and beach tourism, there is a growing market for desert tourism, which the NSTSP wishes to capitalize on. The Bedouin groups living in the destination areas in the desert may experience undesirable effects of tourism if inadequate attention is given to cultural impacts,

The impacts of inadequate commitment to socio-cultural considerations have resulted in violence that targets tourists in Egypt. In the past, there have been multiple acts of violence against tourists in Upper Egypt. The attacks are in part a reaction to irresponsible tourism development and are the consequence of inadequate planning by the government and tourism planners and developers (Aziz, 1995). Without attending to these concerns in a more committed manner, these attacks and others will continue, and will threaten the sustainability and performance of the sector in Egypt.

13.2.2 Degree of Stakeholder Involvement in Planning

The degree of stakeholder involvement in planning is another area of concern which has surfaced multiple times in this analysis. There is very limited involvement of non-governmental organizations and groups in the planning process, minimal involvement on the part of non-MOT governmental organizations, and little collaboration within the MOT itself. The NSTSP was created by an outsourced foreign consulting company. Although these consultants met with and discussed different aspects of tourism with various stakeholders in order to accommodate them

210

in the plan, these stakeholders were not involved in the actual planning process and there is no venue for them to provide feedback that can be incorporated into the plan. This raises the next point of concern, the rigidity of the plan.

Stakeholder involvement in tourism planning is critical to the success and functioning of the plan. It facilitates planning, especially in turbulent environments and especially at the regional and local levels. Furthermore, it aids in creating and maintaining strong public-private sector interactions and provides a solid mechanism for involving the community in the planning process (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Egyptian tourism planning's weakness in this area renders the functioning of the plan sub-optimal because it fails to capitalize on the benefits that can be obtained from receiving multiple inputs. In addition, collaboration has other benefits outside of the direct scope of planning, such as its use in conflict resolution and advancing shared visions because stakeholders come to realize that there are many benefits to them that can be realized through collaboration and partnership (Gray, 1989).

13.2.3 Flexibility of the Plan

Another element of concern in Egyptian tourism planning that has surfaced multiple times in this analysis is the rigidity of the plan. The NSTSP is a long-range, strategic plan that covers the span of 12 years, from 2008 to 2020. It is very difficult to forecast accurately all market, economic, political, and other conditions that influence tourism. It is, thus, necessary that such a long-range plan be flexible in order to accommodate changes in the environment and, thus, to ensure that the tourism sector is performing at its best considering current and possible future conditions. The January 25th revolution has resulted in a huge blow to the Egyptian tourism sector along with the entire Egyptian economy. Additionally, political instability and safety and security concerns have increased. The NSTSP does not provide a venue for adapting to these changes to accommodate the new circumstances and this, alone, has rendered the NSTSP virtually obsolete.

Flexibility facilitates proactive action, particularly in weathering unfavourable changes and circumstances. In this sense, it also reduces risk exposure because it enables the sector to undergo changes as necessary which can result in saving significant potential losses. Not only does flexibility enable the sector to evade potential losses, it also enables it to capitalize on new opportunities that may arise during the course of the planning period (Das & Elango, 1995).

In general, after an adverse event, tourism indicators tend to fall and, in Egypt, tourism has suffered setbacks as a result of a number of events in the past. For instance, following an attack on tourists in Luxor in 1997, average tourist expenditure per night fell by 10% during the following year; as a result of the Palestinian Intifada and September 11th attacks, it fell 13% over the course of 2 years from 2000 to 2002 (Sakr & Massoud, 2003). There is no adequate method for market-hedging strategies in Egyptian tourism, which has resulted in severe and influential shocks in tourism flows (Sakr & Massoud, 2003).

13.2.4 Conclusion

The application of the framework to the Egyptian NSTSP has resulted in recurrent issues that have surfaced several times in different areas in the assessment. These are commitment, or lack thereof, to environmental and socio-cultural considerations, degree of stakeholder involvement, and the flexibility of the plan. The consequences of these issues have been demonstrated in Egyptian tourism, and although this particular plan has not been implemented, they are, nevertheless, reflective of trends and attitudes in Egyptian tourism planning. It is perhaps due to a lack of adequate prior assessment that there has been limited learning and that these issues persist in the plan. Having applied the framework to the NSTSP, and reflected upon the major recurrent findings, as with any assessment method, limitations to the proposed framework have emerged. These are discussed in the following section.

13.3 Limitations of the Framework

There are many benefits to creating a framework for assessing tourism plans, such as the ease of use, wide applicability, low cost, and the opportunity provided for learning through the evaluation of experiences. These have been discussed at length throughout this dissertation. In summary, the framework identifies topics and sub-topics that merit consideration in national-level tourism plans and the range of topics, although only examined in one case study, appear to be widely relevant, having been synthesized from a substantial literature. However, as with any assessment method, there are drawbacks to the method that has been proposed. Three main drawbacks are the reliance on existing literature, the difficulty in demonstrating how some findings were arrived at, and that this assessment method omits direct consideration of the planning process and plan implementation. Each of these is discussed in turn.

13.3. 1 Reliance on the Literature

One drawback of the framework is that it has been created through examination of the available literature. Thus, it reflects the strengths and weaknesses of the literature. Where the literature is strong and topics have received considerable attention, then the framework is also likely to be strong. If there are topics that have received only limited attention in the literature, then they are unlikely to have received substantial attention in the framework. For instance, the tourism planning literature is abundant in its consideration of institutional elements and the interactions between different players in tourism. This is reflected in the strength of the iscussion of institutional elements. The literature is rather lacking in its discussion of tourism goals and objectives and what characteristics they should embody, and this is also reflected in the framework. This framework is, thus, a work in progress rather than a static framework in the sense that it provides a basis for assessing tourism plans; however with new trends in and additions to the literature, it should be constantly adapted to remain up-to-date and to take advantage of the most recent developments in the literature.

13.3.2 Demonstration of Findings

A weakness of the research process is that it is been difficult to demonstrate how some of the conclusions are arrived at. If a single plan were to be assessed independently by multiple researchers, it is believed that the same conclusions will be reached. This is the case because the plan is read for each element in the framework that each element is accorded due attention. This point is typically demonstrated by providing excerpts from the text that support the claims that are being made, as has been done in many instances in this dissertation. Unfortunately, however, it is more difficult to provide the rationalization behind certain findings when the evidence is in the form of lack of presence or attention to a particular topic in the plan. This situation is exacerbated when quotations from informants are not available to further substantiate the findings..

13.3.3 Independence from Process and Implementation

The third and arguably most important weakness of this framework is that it is designed to assess the plan independently from the planning process and plan implementation. Thus, the framework considers the process of planning only indirectly and, rather, it is focused on the plan itself. A plausible argument can be made that it is not possible to completely dissociate the plan

from the planning process itself. Ultimately, the plan is a product of the planning process, and is a reflection of this process. Furthermore, one of the elements of a good plan may be that it is flexible and adaptable and, thus, able to maintain functionality within the changing environment in which it operates. Monitoring mechanisms and identification of the means of providing feedback can contribute in these respects. The actual plan thus contains elements of process within it, such as stakeholder involvement. Thus, although this framework is an assessment of the tourism plan rather than the planning process, it is difficult to completely dissociate the two from one another. Thus, an assessing of the plan inevitably requires reference to the planning process. However, as explained earlier when planning occurs behind closed doors and participants are unwilling to provide information, it is difficult to document the process, especially after the fact.

Evaluation of a plan, which is an important output of the planning process, is a worthwhile task. However, it does not encompass the entire planning process. It consideration it does not address the implementation of the plan. Some might argue that a plan cannot be evaluated fully until it has been implemented and the outcomes are known. However, as was pointed out earlier, plans may be constructed for purposes other than implementation and that there is value to be derived from assessing a plan independently of its implementation. Without a doubt, in situations where the plan is implemented, much value can be derived from including this in an assessment. However, the framework does not address this. This simplifies the assessment process and expedites it for assessment does not have to wait until its implementation has occurred. However, it can be argued that, as a result, the assessment is partial and its value may have diminished.

13.3.4 Summary

As with any assessment method, although the framework proposed in this dissertation has many advantages, it also has some drawbacks. Some of these include its reliance on the existing literature, difficulty in rationalizing some of the findings from it, and its lack of consideration of the planning process and implementation, which have been explained in the above section.

The elements in the framework were designed with the intent of organizing the various components that should be included in a national-level plan and, therefore, merit evaluation. This is not to suggest that each element is unrelated to the other elements but, rather, is done to

facilitate the process of understanding and assessing the plan. The first element, goals and objectives, is ultimately an assessment of the direction in which the plan is headed. The second element, approach to tourism planning, strives to interpret the ideologies embodied by the plan. The third element, institutional elements, examines the institutions and organizations upon which the plan relies and, in most cases, will have responsibilities derived from it. Finally, the fourth element, marketing, examines the supply and demand environments in which the plan will operate. A hasty reading of the framework can be misinterpreted to suggest that these elements operate independently of one another, which is not the case. These elements are intertwined and they are separated purely for the purpose of facilitating the assessment process.

The following section of this dissertation highlights opportunities for further research.

13.4 Further Research

This thesis builds upon existing concepts and approaches about different aspects of tourism planning. There is much potential for further research that stems from this assessment framework. One of the major benefits of this framework is the relative ease with which it can be applied to different destination countries and locations. This provides much potential for creating theory through induction from case studies. Not only might it be used to enhance future versions of plans for the same country, the identification of what topics should be in a good plan, which is an important aspect of assessment, can be useful to those making new plans. Assessment is necessary to learn from experience.

One weakness of tourism research today is that there is considerable focus on case studies but relatively little emphasis on theory that is not case-specific. The framework proposed in this study can facilitate the induction of theory and the drawing of generalizations about tourism plans across different situations. This can be a result of comparative studies between different countries' national tourism plans, or across the different destinations' plans in a single country. Application of this framework to different cases and the carrying out of comparative studies can facilitate the generation of a stronger conceptual and empirical base for tourism planning. Similarly, this framework can be applied across different time horizons for a single destination to

monitor how changes in the sector are reflected in planning modifications and vice versa, and to monitor which techniques were most successful in improving tourism planning and performance.

References

The New Law No. 8 of 1997 on Investment Guarantees and Incentives. (1998). *Arab Law Quarterly*, 75-82.

Alexander, E. R. (1985). From idea to action: Notes for a contingency theory of the policy implementation process. *Administration and Society*, 403-426.

Alexander, E. R. (2002). Planning rights: toward normative criteria for evaluating plans. *International Planning Studies*, 191-212.

Alexander, E. R. (2006). Evolution and Status: Where is Planning-Evaluation Today and How Did it Get Here? In E. R. Alexander, *Evaluation in Planning: Evolution and Prospects* (pp. 3-16). Hampshire: Ashgate.

Alexander, E. R., & Faludi, A. (1989). Planning and plan implementation: notes on evaluation criteria. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 127-140.

Alterman, R., Carmon, N., & Hill, M. (1984). Integrated Evaluation: A Synthesis of Approaches to the Evaluation of Broad-Aim Social Programs. *Socio-Economic Planning Sciences*, 381-389.

Anderson, L. (1995). *Guidelines for Preparing Urban Plans.* Chicago: Planners Press.

Archer, B. H. (1977). *Tourism Multipliers: The State of the Art.* Cardiff: University of Wales Press.

Archer, B. H. (1982). The value of multipliers and their policy implications. *Tourism Management*, 236-241.

Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 216-224.

Aronsson, L. (2000). *The development of sustainable tourism.* London: Continuum.

Axelrod, R., & Hamilton, W. D. (1981). The Evolution of Cooperation. *Science*, 1390-1396.

Aziz, H. (1995). Understanding attacks on tourists in Egypt. *Tourism Management*, 91-95.

Baer, W. C. (1997). General Plan Evaluation Criteria: An approach to making better plans. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 329-344.

Baidal, J. A. (2004). Regional tourism planning in Spain: evolution and perspectives. *Annals of Tourism Reserach*, 313-333.

Baum, T. (2007). Human resources in tourism: still waiting for change. *Tourism Management*, 1383-1399.

Beckerman, W. (1994). 'Sustainable development': is it a useful concept? *Environmnetal Values*, 191-209.

Beritelli, P. (2011). Cooperation among prominent actors in a tourist destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 607-629.

Berke, P., & Godschalk, D. (2009). Searching for the good plan: A meta-analysis of plan quality studies. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 227-240.

Bitner, M. J., & Booms, B. H. (1982). Trends in travel and tourism marketing: The changing structure of distribution channels. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39-44.

Blakely, E. J., & Bradshaw, T. K. (2002). *Planning Local Economic Development.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Bosshard, A. (2000). A methodology and terminology of sustainability assessment and its perspectives for rural planning. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 29-41.

Briggs, S. (2001). *Successful Web Marketing for the Tourism and Leisure Sectors.* London: Kogan Page.

Brohman, J. (1996). *Popular Development: Rethinking the Theory and Practice of Development.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Bruner, E. M. (1989). Of cannibals, tourists, and ethnographers. *Cultural Anthropology*, 438-445.

Bryson, J. M. (1988). A strategic planning process for public and non-profit organizations. *Long Range Planning*, 73-81.

Buhalis, D. (1999). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, 97-116.

Burns, P. M. (1999). Paradoxes in planning: tourism elitism or brutalism? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 329-348.

Burns, P. M. (2004). Tourism planning: a third way? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24-43.

Butler, R. (1980). The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution. *Canadian Geographer*, 5-12.

Butler, R. W. (1996). The concept of carrying capacity for tourism destinations: dead or merely buried? *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 283-293.

Canadian Government Office of Tourism. (1984). *Tourism tomorrow: towards a Canadian tourism strategy.* Ottawa: Canadian Government Office of Tourism.

Canadian Tourism Commission and Statistics Canada. (2009). *National Tourism Indicators.* Ottawa: GPO.

Carmona, M., & Sieh, L. (2008). Performance measurement in planning--towards a holistic view. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, 428-454.

CBE. (2010). *GDP at Factor Cost.* Cairo: GPO.

Chadwick, G. F. (1978). *A Systems View of Planning: Towards a Theory of the Urban and Regional Planning Process.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Chambers, R. (1994). The Origins and Practice of Participatory Rural Appraisal. *World Development*, 953-969.

Christaller, W. (1963). Some considerations of tourism location in Europe: the peripheral regions--underdeveloped countries--recreation areas. *Regional Science Association*, 95-105.

Coltman, M. M. (1989). *Tourism Marketing.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Cravens, D. W., & Lamb, C. W. (1986). *Strategic Marketing: Cases and applications.* Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.

Cravens, D., & Woodruff, R. (1986). *Marketing.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Mixed Methods Research.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Crouch, G. I., & Ritchie, J. B. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness, and social prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 137-152.

Cullingworth, B., & Craves, R. W. (2009). *Planning in the USA: Policies, issues, and processes.* New York: Routledge.

Daher, R. (2007). *Tourism in the Middle East.* Cleavdon: Library of Congress Cataloguing in Publication Data.

Daly, H. E., & Farley, J. (2004). *Ecological Economics: principles and applications.* Washington: Island Press.

Das, T. K., & Elango, B. (1995). Managing strategic flexibility: key to effective performance. *Journal of General Management*, 60-75.

Davidoff, P. (1965). Advocacy and pluralism in planning. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 331-338.

Dodds, R. (2007). Sustainable tourism and policy implementation: Lessons fromt he case of Calvia, Spain. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 296-322.

Downes, J. (2006). *Tourism Legislation and the Millennium Development Goals: A guide to analyse tourism legislation in the context of the MDG 2015 targets.* Vientiane, Lao PDR: SNV Asia Pro-Poor Sustainable Tourism Network.

Edgell, D. L. (1990). *International Tourism Policy.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Edwards, M. (1989). The irrelevance of development studies. *Third World Quarterly*, 116-135.

Egyptian Ministry of Tourism. (2006). *Tourism in Figures.* Cairo: GPO.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building Theories from Case Study Research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 532-550.

Elmore, R. F. (1979-1980). Backward mapping: Implementation research and policy decisions. *Political Science Quarterly*, 601-616.

ETF. (2011). Retrieved 09 26, 2011, from Egyptian Tourism Federation: http://etf.org.eg/

Faludi, A. (1973). *Planning Theory.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Faulkner, B. (1992). The anatomy of the evaluation process. In B. Faulkner, & R. Shaw, *Evaluation of Tourism Marketing* (pp. 6-9). Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Friedman, J. (1993). Toward a non-euclidian mode of planning. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 428-485.

Friedmann, J. (1966). *Regional Development Policy: a case study of Venezuela.* Cambridge: MIT Press.

Friedmann, J. (1973). *Retracking America: a theory of transactive planning.* New York: Doubleday.

Gearing, C. E., Swart, W. W., & Var, T. (1976). A decision framework for tourism planning. In C. E. Gearing, W. W. Swart, & T. Var, *Planning for Tourism Develpment: Quantitative Approaches* (pp. 67-88). New York: Praeger Publishers.

Getz, D. (1986). Models in tourism planning: Towards integration of theory and practice. *Tourism Management*, 21-32.

Getz, D. (1987). *Tourism planning and research: traditions, models and futures.* Bunbury: Australian Travel Research Workshop.

Getz, D. (2001). Tourism Planning in the New Millenium. In G. Wall, *Contemporary Perspectives on Tourism* (pp. 255-282). Waterloo: University of Waterloo Geography Publication Series.

Gibson, K. (1982). The use of travel research for manpower planning. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39-41.

Giddens, A. (1998). *The third way: the renewal of social democracy.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Glasson, J., Therivel, R., & Chadwick, A. (2005). *Introduction to Environmental Impact Assessment.* New York: Routledge.

Godfrey, K., & Clarke, J. (2000). *The Tourism Development Handbook: A practical approach to planning and marketing.* London: Cassell.

Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. B. (2003). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies.* New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Goulet, D. (1989). Participation in development: new avenues. *World Development*, 165-178.

Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: finding common ground for multiparty problems.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gray, M. (1998). Economic reform, privatization and tourism in Egypt. *Middle Eastern Studies*, 91-112.

Grunig, R., & Kuhn, R. (2004). *Process-based strategic planning.* Berlin: Springer.

Gunn, C. A. (1994). *Tourism Planning: Basics, concepts, cases.* Washington, DC: Taylor and Francis.

Hall, M. G. (2008). *Tourism Planning: policies, processes and relationships.* Essex: Pearson.

Hambleton, R., & Thomas, H. (1995). *Urban Policy Evaluation: Challenge and Change.* London: Paul Chapman.

Hardin, G. (1969). The tragedy of the commons. *Science*, 1243-1248.

Hassan, S. S. (2000). Determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable tourism industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 239-245.

Hawkins, J. P., & Roberts, C. M. (1994). The growth of coastal tourism in the Red Sea: Present and future effects on coral reefs. *Ambio*, 503-508.

Heath, E., & Wall, G. (1992). *Marketing tourism destinations: a strategic planning approach.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Helmy, E. M. (1999). Towards sustainable tourism development planning: the case of Egypt (Unpublished Ph.D. thesis). Bournemouth University.

Hermansen, T. (1972). Development Poles and Related Theories: A Synoptic Review. In N. Hansen, *Growth Centres in Regional Economic Development.* New York: Free Press.

Hogwood, B. W., & Gunn, L. A. (1984). *Policy Analysis for the Real World.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hudson, B. M., Galloway, T. D., & Kaufman, J. L. (1979). Comparison of current planning theories: counterparts and contradictions. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 387-398.

IAIA. (2009). *What is Impact Assessment.* Fargo, North Dakota: IAIA.

Ibrahim, F., & Ibrahim, B. (2003). *Egypt: an Economic Geography.* New York: I.B Tauris.

Inskeep, E. (1987). Environmental planning for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 118-135.

Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Jain, S. C. (1993). *Marketing planning and strategy.* Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Company.

Jamal, T., & Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 186-204.

Jenkins, C. (1982). The use of investment incentives for tourism projects in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 92-93.

JICA. (2000). *The Study on Tourism Development Projects in the Arab Republic of Egypt.* Cairo: Pacific Consultants International.

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative ad quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 602-611.

Jithendran, K., & Baum, T. (2000). Human resources development and sustainability-the case of Indian tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 403-421.

Jones, G. (1991). Urbanisation issues in the Asian-Pacific region. *Asian-Pacific Economic Literature*, 5-33.

Khakee, A. (1998). Emerging Issues for Evaluation Theory. In N. Lichfield, A. Barbanente, D. Borri, A. Khakee, & A. Prat, *Evaluation in Planning: Facing the Challenge of Complexity* (pp. 19-23). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Kotler, P. (2000). *Marketing Management.* New Jersy: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P., & Fox, F. (1985). *Strategic marketing for educational institutions.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. T., & Makens, J. C. (2006). *Marketing of Hospitality and Tourism.* UpperSaddle River, NJ: Pearson International.

Krutwaysho, O., & Bramwell, B. (2010). Tourism policy implementation and society. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 670-691.

Lang, R. (1986). *Integrated Approaches to Resource Planning and Management.* Calgary: University of Calgary.

Lang, R. (1988). Planning for Integrated Development. In F. W. Dykeman, *Integrated Rural Planning and Development* (pp. 81-104). Sackville: Mount Allison University.

Leiper, N. (1979). The framework of tourism: Towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 390-407.

Leiper, N. (1990). *Tourism System. Occasional Paper 2.* Auckland, New Zwealand: Massey University.

Leiper, N. (2004). *Tourism Management.* Frenchs Forest: Pearson.

Lele, S. M. (1991). Sustainable development: a critical review. *World Development*, 607-621.

Lichfield, N. (1964). Cost-benefit analysis in plan evaluation. *The Town Planning Review*, 159-169.

Lindblom, C. E. (1959). The science of "muddling through". *Public Administration Review*, 79-88.

Lindblom, C. E. (1979). Still muddling, not yet through. *Public Administration Review*, 517-526.

Liu, A., & Wall, G. (2006). Planning tourism employment: a developing country perspective. *Tourism Management*, 159-170.

Lo, F. C., & Salih, K. (1978). *Growth Pole Strategy and Regional Development Policy.* London: Pergamon Press.

Lumsdon, L. (1997). *Tourism Marketing.* London: International Thomson Business Press.

Madsen, R. (1983). Use of evaluation research methods in planning and policy contexts. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 113-121.

Malthus, T. R. (1803). *An Essay on Population.* London: Dent.

Mandelbaum, S. J. (1990). Reading Plans. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 350-358.

Marsh, D., & Smith, M. (2000). Understanding policy networks: towards a dialectic approach. *Political Studies*, 4-21.

Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts.* London: Longman.

Matthews, H. G. (1977). Radicals and third world tourism: a Caribbean focus. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20-29.

Mazmanian, D. A., & Sabatier, P. A. (1983). *Implementation and Public Policy.* Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company.

McCabe, S. (2009). *Marketing Communications in Tourism and Hospitality.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

McIntosh, R. W. (1977). *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies.* Columbus: Grid Inc.

McMinn, S. (1997). The challenge of sustainability. *The Environmentalist*, 135-141.

Mebratu, D. (1998). Sustainability and sustainable development: historical and conceptual review. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, 493-520.

Middleton, V. T., Fyall, A., Morgan, M., & Ranchhod, A. (2009). *Marketing in Travel and Tourism.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mill, R. C., & Morrison, A. M. (1998). *The tourism system: An introductory text.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

MOT. (2006). *Tourism in Figures.* Cairo: GPO.

Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2003). *Tourism and Sustainability: Development and new tourism in the Third World.* London: Routledge.

Murphy, P. E. (1985). *Tourism: a community approach.* New York: Methuen.

224

Nunn, S., & Rosentraub, M. S. (1997). Dimensions of interjurisdictional cooperation. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 205-219.

OECD. (1966). *Tourism Development and Economic Growth.* Estoril: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Olson, M. (1971). *The logic of collective action: public goods and the theory of groups.* Harvard University Press.

Omran, M. (2004). The performance of state-owned enterprises and newly privatized firms: Does privatizaton . *World Development*, 1019-1041.

Oppermann, M. (1993). Tourism space in developing countries. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 535-556.

O'Reilly, A. (1986). Tourism carrying capacity: concepts and issues. *Tourism Management*, 254-258.

Orton, J. D. (1997). From inductive to iterarive grouned theory: zipping the gap between process theory and process data. *Scandivan Journal Management*, 419-438.

Ostrom, E. (1991). *Governing the commons: The evolution of institutions for collective action.* Cambridge University Press.

Parkin, S., Sommer, F., & Uren, S. (2003). Sustainable development: understanding the concept and practical challenge. *Engineering sustainability*, 19-26.

Parnwell, M. (1999). Between theory and reality: the area speialist and the study of development. In D. Simon, & A. Narman, *Developemnt as Theory and Practice* (pp. 76-94). Essex: Longman.

Pearce, D. G. (1990). Tourism in Ireland: Questions of scale and organization. *Tourism Management*, 133-151.

Peattie, L. R. (1978). Politics, planning and categories--bridging the gap. In R. W. Burchell, & G. Sternleib, *Planning theory in the 1980s* (pp. 83-93). New Brunswick, NJ: The Centre for Urban Policy Research.

Perman, R., Ma, Y., & McGilvray, J. (1996). *Natural Resoure and Environmental Economics.* New York: Longman.

Perroux, F. (1950). Economic space: theory and applications. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 89-104.

Perrow, C. (1961). The Analysis of Goals in Complex Organizations. *American Sociological Review*, 854-866.

Pieterse, J. N. (2010). *Development Theory.* London: SAGE Publications.

Pike, S. (2008). *Destination Marketing: An Integrated Marketing Communication Approach.* Oxford: Elsevier.

Priskin, J. (2001). Assessment of natural resources for nature-based tourism: the case of the Central Coast Region of Western Australia. *Tourism Management*, 637-648.

Reid, D. G. (2003). *Tourism, Globalization and Development: Responsible Tourism Planning.* London: Pluto Press.

Reilly, R. T. (1988). *Travel and Tourism Marketing Techniques.* Albany: Delmar Publishers Inc.

Richter, T., & Steiner, C. (2007). *Sectoral transformations in neo-patrimonial rentier states: tourism development and state policy in Egypt.* GIGA Working Paper No. 61.

Richter, T., & Steiner, C. (2008). Politics, Economics and Tourism Development in Egypt: insights into the sectoral transformations of a neo-patrimonial rentier state. *Third World Quarterly*, 939-959.

Ritchie, J. B., & Crouch, G. (2003). *The Competitive Destiantion: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective.* Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

Rocha, E. M. (1997). A ladder of empowerment. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 31-44.

Rotmans, J. (1998). Methods for IA: The challenges and opportunities ahead. *Environmental Modelling and Assessment 3*, 155-179.

Russo, A. P., & van der Borg, J. (2002). Planning considerations for cultural tourism: a case study of four European cities. *Tourism Management*, 631-637.

Ryan, B. D. (2011). Reading through a plan: A visual interpretation of what plans mean and how they innovate. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 309-327.

Sadar, M. H. (1994). *Environmental Impact Assessment.* Ottawa: Carleton University Press.

Sakr, M. F., & Massoud, N. (2003). *International tourism volatility with special reference to Egypt.* Cairo: The Egyptian Centre for Economic Studies.

Senior, R. (1982). *The World Travel Market.* London: Euromonitor Publications.

Shafik, N. (1994). Economic development and environmental quality: an econometric analysis. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 757-773.

Shaw, R. (1992). Concepts and Terminology. In B. Faulkner, & R. Shaw, *Evaluation of Tourism Marketing* (pp. 4-5). Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Silberberg, T. (1995). Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites. *Tourism Management*, 361-365.

Simon, D. (1999). Development revisited. In D. Simon, & A. Narman, *Development as Theory and Practice* (pp. 17-54). Essex: Longman.

Sinha, P. (1998). *Tourism Planning.* New Delhi: Anmol Publicatoins.

Sivan, E. (1997). Constraints and opportunities in the Arab World. *Journal of Democracy*, 103-113.

Smith Travel Research. (2011, June 23). Egypt: January 2005 to May 2011 Tourism Statistics. Hendersonville, Tennessee, USA: Smith Travel Research Inc.

Smith, S. L. (1988). Defining tourism: a supply-side view. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 179-190.

Telfer, D. J. (1996). Development through economic linkages: Tourism and agriculture in Indonesia. Waterloo: Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Waterloo.

Telfer, D. J. (2002). The evolution of tourism and development theory. In R. Sharpley, & D. J. Telfer, *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues* (pp. 35-80). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Telfer, D. J., & Sharpley, R. (2008). *Tourism and Development in the Developing World.* New York: Routledge.

The Conference Board of Canada. (2004). *APEC Tourism Impediments Study Stage 2.* Singapore: APEC Tourism Working Group.

The World Bank. (2011). *Multipolarity: The New Global Economy.* Washington DC: The World Bank.

Theuns, H. L. (2002). Tourism and development: Economic dimensions. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 69-81.

Thompson, R. (2000). Re-defining planning: the roles of theory and practice. *Planning Theory and Practice*, 126-133.

Timothy, D. J. (1998). Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 52-68.

Timothy, D. J. (1999). Participatory planning: a view of tourism in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 371-391.

Todaro, M. P. (1994). *Economic Development* (5th ed.). New York: Longman.

Todaro, M. P. (1997). *Economic Development* (6th ed.). London: Longman.

Tosun, C., & Jenkins, C. L. (1998). The evolution of tourism planning in third-world countries: a critique. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 101-114.

Tosun, C., & Timothy, D. J. (2001). Shortcomings in planning approaches to tourism development in developing countries: the case of Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 352-359.

Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan Phase 1: Tourism development strategy.* Cairo, Egypt: Author.

Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan Phase 2: Action plan.* Cairo, Egypt: Author.

Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan Phase 2: Strategic plan for the year 2020, Product development scenario.* Cairo, Egypt: Author.

Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan: Phase 3 Five-year action plan, Five year marketing plan.* Cairo, Egypt: Author.

Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism. (2009). *National Sustainable Tourism Strategic Plan: Tourism development strategy executive summary.* Cairo, Egypt: Author.

UNDP. (2011). *Egypt Country Profile: Human Development Indicators*. Retrieved 2 26, 2012, from International Human Development Indicators: http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/EGY.html

UNRISD. (2000). *Business responsibility for sustainable development.* Geneva: Oxford.

UNWTO. (1978). *Integrated Planning.* Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

UNWTO. (1994). *National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies.* London: Routledge.

UNWTO. (1995). *Agenda 21 For the Travel and Tourism Industy.* Madrid: UNWTO.

UNWTO. (2007). *Handbook on Tourism Market Segmentation: Maximising Market Effectiveness.* Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

UNWTO. (2008). *World Tourism Barometer.* Madrid: United Nations.

Van Den Abbeele, G. (1980). Sightseers: the tourist as theorist. *Diacritics*, 3-14.

van Drongelen, I. K. (2001). The iterative theory-building process: rationale, principles and evaluation. *Management Decision*, 503-512.

Vanhove, N. (2005). *The Economics of Tourism Destinations.* Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Veal, A. (2002). *Leisure and Tourism Policy and Planning.* Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

Vellas, F., & Becherel, L. (1995). *International Tourism: An Economic Perspective.* London: Macmillan Press.

Vogel, D. (1986). *National Styles of Regulation: Environmental Policy in Great Britain and the United States.* Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Wahab, S. (1976). *Tourism Marketing.* London: Tourism International Press.

Wall, G. (1997). Sustainable tourism--unsustainable development. In S. Wahab, & J. J. Pigram, *Tourism, Development and Growth* (pp. 33-49). London: Routledge.

Wall, G. (2007). Tourism in the coastal zone: perspectives from Hainan, P.R. China. *Journal of Regional Analysis and Policy*, 193-198.

Wall, G., & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism: Change, Impacts and Oppportunities.* Harlow: Pearson.

Wen, J. J., & Tisdell, C. A. (2001). *Tourism and China's Development: policies, regional economic growth and ecotourism.* Singapore: World Scientific.

Wheeler, M. (1995). Tourism marketing ethics: an introduction. *International Marketing Review*, 38-49.

Wheeler, S. M. (2004). *Planning for Sustainability: Creating livable, equitable, and ecological communities.* New York: Routledge.

Wildavsky, A. (1973). If planning is everything, maybe it's nothing. *Policy Sciences*, 127-153.

World Commission on Environment and Development. (1987). *Our Common Future.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

WTO. (1994). *National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies.* London: Routledge.

Xiao, G., & Wall, G. (2009). Urban tourism in Dalian, China. *Anatolia*, 178-195.

Appendix A

Planning Processes

Basic Planning Process (Inskeep, 1991, p. 28)	Urban Planning Process (Anderson, 1995)	Components of Tourism Policy, Planning and Development (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003)	Community Tourism Product Development Planning Process (Reid, 2003, p. 146)
Study preparation Determination of development goals and objectives Surveys Analysis and synthesis Plan formulation Recommendations Implementation Monitoring	Identify issues and options State goals, objectives, priorities Collect and interpret data Prepare plans Draft programmes for implementing the plan Evaluate potential impacts of plans and implementing programmes Review and adopt plans Review and adopt plan-implementing programmes Administer implementing programmes, monitor their impacts	System definition Philosophy/values Vision Positioning/Branding Development Competitive collaborative analysis Monitoring and evaluation Audit	Creating the Vision Goal and objective setting Program and product development Feasibility assessment Program and product refinement Implementation

Appendix B

Tourism Indicators

Egyptian Ministry of tourism main indicators:

International tourist arrivals
Number of visitors
Number of tourist nights
Revenues
Hotel capacity
Number of travel agencies
Number of tourist guides

Source: (Egyptian Ministry of Tourism, 2006)

Canadian Tourism Commission national tourism indicators:

Tourism demand in Canada
Tourism domestic demand
Tourism demand by non-residents (exports)
Supply of tourism commodities
Employment generated by tourism
Tourism prices and gross domestic product
Supplementary statistics
International travellers, seasonally adjusted
International travellers, not seasonally adjusted
Receipts and payments on international travel account, seasonally adjusted
Receipts and payments on international travel account, not seasonally adjusted
Exchange rates in Canadian dollars per unit of foreign currency, not seasonally adjusted
Consumer price index, selected countries, not seasonally adjusted

Source: (Canadian Tourism Commission and Statistics Canada, 2009)

Appendix C

Environmental and Socio-cultural Impact Control Methods

Environmental impact control methods (UNWTO, 1994, pp. 34-35):

- Install properly designed utility systems of water supply, electric power, sewage and solid waste disposal and drainage for tourist facilities. Conservation techniques should be applied.
- Develop adequate road and other transportation systems, with emphasis on public transit and non-polluting forms of transportation of tourists.
- Provide opens spaces, parks and suitable landscaping.
- Apply environmentally suitable land use and site planning principles, zoning regulations, development standards and architectural design in tourism areas.
- Carefully manage visitor flows at tourist attraction features.
- Prohibit tourists to cut trees, collect rare plant and animal species, and disturb the natural behavioural pattern of wild animals.
- In marine areas, several types of controls are necessary including ship bilge cleaning and ballast dumping; use of motorized boats in environmentally sensitive areas; collection of live sea shells, coral and endangered sea life; spear fishing; disturbance of nesting turtles; use of boat anchors in coral-bottom bays; and mining of beach sand and coral for construction purposes. Boat piers should be properly designed so that they do not lead to erosion or other problems.
- Maintain environmental health and safety standards.

Socio-cultural impact control methods (UNWTO, 1994, pp. 37-38):

- Maintain the authenticity of local dance, music, drama, arts, crafts and dress.
- Preserve existing distinctive local architectural styles and encourage new development, including tourist facilities, to use local architectural motifs.
- Make certain that residents have convenient access to tourist attractions, amenity features and other facilities, and apply visitor control measures to prevent overcrowding.
- If residents cannot afford to use existing commercial tourist facilities, provide inexpensive or subsidized facilities for them to use. It is also common practice to allow locals to pay lower admission fees to attraction features than those paid by foreign tourists.

- Educate residents about tourism—its concepts, benefits and problems, the local tourism development policy and programme, how they can personally participate in tourism, and the social patterns of tourists visiting the area.
- Inform tourists about the local society—its customs, dress codes, acceptable behaviour in religious and other places, courtesies to observe in taking photographs, tipping policies, and any local problems such as crime.
- Train employees to work in tourism effectively, including language and social sensitivity training where needed.
- Apply strict controls on drugs, crime and prostitution if these are considered to be problems in the tourism areas.

Appendix D
Issues that Tourism Legislation Should Cover (Downes, 2006, pp. 15-19)

- Scope of legal application: establishing it as the comprehensive legal framework for tourism development and replacing all existing provisions;
- Interpretation of terminology: it is essential to harmonise the country's terminology with the international usage whilst still reflecting usual practice in the country;
- Classification of tourism resources;
- National audit of tourism resources;
- Sustainable development of tourism and poverty alleviation: enshrining these principles in the law itself and making them the basis of all policies, developments, sub laws etc.;
- Principles of tourism resources protection and exploitation: a practical application of the STD principles;
- Responsibility for management of tourism resources;
- Principles of STD planning;
- Preparation and approval of STD plans;
- Content of STD plans;
- Implementation of STD plans;
- Designation of tourist sites and tourist attractions;
- Power to establish tourist sites and tourist attractions;
- Classification of tourist sites and tourist attractions;
- General functions, powers and governance of the national tourism authority (NTA) and/or national tourism organisation (NTO);
- Annual report;
- Provision for inter-ministerial cooperation on tourism-related matters e.g. through establishment of a Higher Council for Tourism;
- Functions and powers of the Higher Council for Tourism: it is essential that these be specified so as to avoid unwarranted intrusion into the internal workings of the NTA/NTO by other ministries;
- Functions and powers of the facilitation committee: a Higher Council comprising of ministers will only meet very occasionally and set out broad policies of cooperation. This committee would comprise of officials of those ministries that can meet to deal with the day-to-day practical issues needing inter-ministerial cooperation;
- Protection and promotion of heritage: this will be in cooperation with other departments, ministries and relevant public bodies;
- Private sector advisory board: the MDGs and STD encourage cooperation between the public and private sectors;
- Role of provincial and local authorities in tourism development;

- Council of provincial and local tourism officers: there should be two-way feedback between central and local government officials responsible for tourism development;
- STD fund: This may be supported by tourist taxes, a levy on the private sector, government funding, NGOs and other international assistance;
- Programmes of financial assistance to sustainable tourism projects: these should include special programmes to assist micro-enterprises, cooperatives and community projects;
- Enforcement and conditions of grants, loans and exemptions: public funds should be managed efficiently and transparently and recipients should be required to account for their usage;
- Powers of Inspection in respect of grants, loans and exemptions;
- Designation of tourism development areas and tourism sites;
- Establishment of tourism development corporations or partnerships or trusts: this will provide mechanisms for public-private cooperation at national, provincial, local and community levels and should ensure that disadvantaged groups and those most affected by projects are represented;
- Tourism enterprise standards and licensing;
- Classification of hotels, other tourist accommodation, restaurants and visitor attractions;
- Registration of tourist accommodation: some accommodation, particularly in poor and rural areas, may not yet be eligible for classification. It should be nonetheless registered. Help can be given to the proprietors of such premises to enhance their facilities and start on the lower run of classification;
- Registration of restaurants: this should be voluntary not compulsory. Too strict regulation may force the proprietors to increase prices and thus put such establishments beyond the means of the poor. Rather, voluntary registration can be used in the same way as suggested above for accommodation;
- Registration of cultural associations involved in the promotion of tourism: again this should be voluntary. Small local dance troupes, groups of storytellers etc. may be encouraged to register so as to be recommended to tourist groups. They may be assisted to enhance the quality of their performance etc.;
- NTA/NTO approved businesses: again a voluntary scheme which will encourage local businesses to reach certain standards and assist them to do so;
- Power to inspect tourist accommodation, restaurants and other tourism enterprises and to call for information;
- Requirement of businesses to display the business name: this helps tourists in seeking redress of any grievances;
- General obligations on consumer protection;
- Encouragement of trade associations to develop codes of conduct;

- Regulation of tourism professions such as travel clerks, travel experts, tour guides, hotel managers, receptionists etc.: the qualifications should not be so onerous as to exclude disadvantaged groups from membership;
- Continuing professional development;
- Restrictions on the right of refusal to provide a service;
- Travel agents' and tour operators' rights and obligations;
- Regulation of adventure tours;
- Regulation of eco-tours;
- Regulation of cultural tours;
- Regulation of opening hours for tourism establishments: the local community that may be most affected by the noise etc. caused by late opening hours of tourism businesses, bars, cafes, discotheques should have a right of objection enshrined in the law;
- Display of price lists;
- Payment of accounts and refunds: micro-enterprises and SMEs often suffer serious cash flow problems because larger enterprises are slow to pay for their goods and services;
- Financial protection: this protects tourists who pay in advance for tourism services. Again, the mechanisms should not be too onerous as to exclude small businesses or new entrants to the market;
- Reporting duties of tour guides: they should have a legal obligation to report any damage to the physical or cultural heritage or behaviour of tourists that is adversely affecting a local community;
- Hotelkeepers' duty to receive travellers: this is a universal standard and prohibits discrimination;
- The right to refuse accommodation: hotelkeepers should have a right to refuse guests whose behaviour is inappropriate to local norms or who are not in a fit state to be received or are unable or unwilling to provide proof of ability to pay;
- Duty to receive guests' luggage and motor vehicles;
- Registration of guests;
- Duty of care: this relates to obligations relating to safety and security of guests;
- Liability in respect of guests' property;
- Illness of travellers and guests: rules governing notifiable diseases etc., discussed further below;
- Conduct in a hotel: prohibitions against prostitution, gambling, rowdy behaviour etc.;
- Provision of a safe;
- Guests' unpaid debts;
- Right of security over guests' property;
- Right of sale of guests' property;
- Tourist restaurants;
- Duty to provide refreshments;

- Right to refuse to supply refreshments;
- Restauranteurs' liability in respect of customers' property;
- Illness of restaurant staff;
- Conduct in a restaurant;
- Hotel restaurants;
- Tourist transportation;
- Power of NTA/NTO to issue regulations relating to tourist transportation;
- Other tourism enterprises;
- Handicrafts and souvenir standards;
- Crafts authentication scheme;
- Shopkeepers' liability;
- Shipment of goods;
- Peddlers' permits;
- Establishment of a tourist assistance office;
- Powers of tourist assistance officers;
- Tourist complaints;
- Licensing of tour guides;
- Obligations of tourist guides;
- Prohibition of charging commission;
- Objectives of tourism education;
- Education, training and research;
- Relations with international tourism organisations;
- Facilitation and safety and security of tourists;
- Disputes;
- Evidence and procedure;
- Offences and penalties; and
- Implementation

Appendix E

Objectives of the NSTSP (Tourism Development Authority, The Arab Republic of Egypt Ministry of Tourism, 2009, pp. 10-11)

1. **Ensure an appropriate institutional framework.** An efficient structure, with clear roles defined for the public and private sectors, is a pre-condition for the administration and development of tourism; therefore the establishment of such must be a priority.

Also, decision makers need to be in possession of accurate and timely information to permit correct economic choices to be made. Project research has shown that decisions are being taken which result at times in the miss-application (sic) of resources. Therefore, the Strategic Plan entails actions to ensure that decision makers are in possession of accurate and timely information which results in correct choices being taken on all matters.

2. **Ensure safety, security and easy access.** Adequate and efficient air and surface modes of travelling to and from Egypt are an absolute necessity. Entry and/or departure facilities must be simple and stress-free; delays and inconveniences arising from immigration, security, customs and passenger handling procedures can greatly diminish the enjoyment of any visit. Actions have been specified to address access for those wishing to visit the country.

Tourists avoid destinations where they feel that their personal safety risks being "compromised". Accordingly a key element of the Strategy is to ensure that the country is perceived as being safe and hospitable. Strategies to minimise the adverse publicity arising from the high incidence of accidents involving tourists, by improving road safety, are outlined.

3. **Expand the product base.** The base of Egyptian tourism rests on a limited number of products and is vulnerable to the vagaries of fashion, terrorist incidents and falls in demand for particular products. The Strategy aims at expanding and making the base more balanced by developing new products, diversifying the geographical distribution of activities into "new" areas and boosting complementary activities.

In addition, the objective of expanding the product base is pursued by enhancing the role of local communities which can (and should) play an increased role in the development of tourism. They also represent a tourism asset in their own right, an aspect which has been largely been (sic) ignored in the past. The Strategy will exploit opportunities to develop community-based initiatives along with or as an alternative to mainstream tourism development.

Cultural heritage and the marine and land environment are under pressure and at risk. Their proper management and conservation is of vital importance for the development of sustainable tourism. The Strategy aims at enhancing the appeal of Egypt by using prime cultural heritage and environmental assets in a sustainable manner and using tourism as a resource for the conservation of the country's unique cultural and natural heritage.

4. **Provide the necessary infrastructure and superstructure.** To support the development scenario, the study adopts a complete sustainable physical development strategy, based on a structure of eight tourism regions. Recommendations are made for planning new development areas, enhancing the role of the urban environment as a key resource for tourism and addressing the mismatch between the location of tourism activities and that of the available workforce which has resulted in the socially undesirable migrant labour phenomenon.

Further elements of the Strategy include the development of an adequate transport infrastructure and utilities networks to support superstructure in a sustainable manner, aiming at self-sufficiency in energy and water.

Virtually all financing of the superstructure must come from the domestic or international private sector; the scale of investment for the planned growth is huge and it can only be attracted by the expectation of profit. It is crucial therefore that initiatives proposed in the Strategy encourage a positive environment and favourable conditions that stimulate the private sector.

Small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) are important components in the tourism sector and by definition all restaurants, small hotels, most travel agencies and tour operators, car hire companies, souvenir shops, handicraft producers, etc. can be classified as such. They are to a great extent indigenous businesses and tourism spending in them yields disproportionately higher economic returns than in larger enterprises. The Strategy argues for the need to support SMEs both as important suppliers in directly contributing to the overall tourism product and as producers who benefit from the development of tourism.

5. **Improve the quality of service.** The objective of increasing the average expenditure will not be achieved unless low service standards in the hospitality sector are significantly increased. The calibre and skills of those employed needs to be improved while expanding numbers exponentially to meet the expected growth of the sector. A key element of the Strategy is to ensure that the sector is able to attract, recruit and train/retain the human capital to enable it to develop in lie with the Strategic Plan.

To improve the quality of hotels and ensure that accommodation is of a quality to meet the demands of international visitors, the Strategy supports the adoption of a realistic grading system together with measures to encourage owners of lower rated hotels to up-grade their properties.

6. **Promote the product to the market.** Egypt competes in the international marketplace with several strong rivals. Potential tourists from a variety of markets must be made aware of Egypt and the range of its products, convinced of their value, motivated to visit the country and provided with opportunities to purchase its goods and services.

Although it may from time to time suffer from currency fluctuations, Egyptian tourism in general is competitive compared with rival destinations thanks to a combination of low input prices, high year round occupancies, a vibrant market economy and low taxation. It is essential to keep this

advantage by ensuring mechanisms facilitating and encouraging competition in the international marketplace with rival destinations.

Appendix F

Business activities that benefit from Law No. 8 of 1997 on investment guarantees and incentives

- Reclamation and/or cultivation of wasted and desert lands, including reclamation of lands and installation of infrastructure facilities that render the same cultivable, and, cultivation of reclaimed land;
- Animal husbandry, poultry and fishery production;
- Manufacturing and mining, including:
- Industrial activities that transform substances and raw materials and change the form of such materials by blending, mixing, treating or shaping, and packing, as well as assembling parts and components, and mounting them for production of intermediary or end products;
- Design of machinery and industrial equipment; and
- Activities connected with exploration for mining ores and metals, and with the extraction cutting and preparation thereof;
- Operation of hotels, motels, hotel apartments, tourist villages and tourist transportation;
- Refrigerated transportation of goods, refrigerators for the purpose of storing crops, manufactured products and foodstuffs, container stations and grain silos;
- Air transport and directly related services;
- Overseas maritime transport;
- Petroleum and gas drilling, and, exploration support services, including oil–well maintenance and enhancing, maintenance of drilling equipment and oil pumps, service related to oil exploration, etc.;
- Housing complexes for the purposes of leasing to non-commercial users. This is subject to proviso that the number of housing units should not be less than 50;
- Infrastructure including potable water, wastewater drainage, electricity, road and communications systems;
- Hospital and medical and therapeutic centers that offer 10% of their capacities free of charge;
- Lease finance activities as stipulated in Art. 2 of Law No. 95 of 1995;
- Underwriting of subscription to securities;
- Venture capital investment in projects or firms;
- Production of computer programs and systems, design, production, operation of, and training on all kinds of computer programs, systems and applications; and
- Social fund for development-funded projects.