Tourism and Resources in the Third World

By Wiwik Dwi Pratiwi

World tourism development has produced great disparities in the standards of amenities provided for the visitors and for the local population. This cannot be entirely avoided....
(World Bank, Tourism Sector, Working Paper, 1972)

Introduction

Tourism has become the world’s fastest growing economic activity (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Pye, 1983). It means job creations and income. Third world countries, which have many problems with development funds and creating jobs for their people, recently began to consider tourism over other industries and agriculture as means to improve the economy. How important is tourism to the creation of incomes and jobs for third world countries? Who gains from the development of this sector? What direction will the decision-maker choose for the development? What impact will occur from this development? This paper will elaborate on these questions to provide a better understanding of tourism development in the third world.

The paper begins with definitions of frequently used and relevant terms. The role of tourism in development will be explained, as well as, the relation between resources and tourism, with regards to the third world. Alternative tourism, the issue always attached to tourism development in the third world, will also be addressed. Finally, the paper will detail the necessary efforts for an 'ideal' future of tourism in the third world.

Definition of Terms

There is no universally accepted definition of tourism. Explanation usually contain the following components: participants leaving home and travelling for pleasure, a minimum distance or specified destination is attained, participants are spending a certain amount of time travelling (Wall and Sinnott, 1980). My understanding of tourism leads me to a definition of tourism which involves the people participating in it:

a. the tourist, the host people and others involved in tourism supply activities;
b. the interactions between the participants; and
c. other abstract phenomena which ensue along with this people such as planning, management, policy, economic, and other social components related to tourism (Pratiwi, 1994)

Therefore, tourism can be defined as the phenomenon resulting from the interaction of tourists, locals from the destination area, and others involved in the circumstances and processes which are related to tourism.

Resources are a tricky concept. What in the world is not considered as a resource. Any kind of beings (humans, animals, plants) and things (all forms in the world) are resources. The Collins English Dictionary (1987: 1301) defines resources as a source of economic wealth especially of a country (mineral, land, labour) or business enterprise (capital, equipment, personnel). In the
context of tourism, 'resources' may be used in two different ways. First, resources are the attraction which bring visitors to a destination. The destination may be a country or at the micro-level, an area or a resort. Resources also consist of investments that have been made to create tourist facilities and services. Second, the management capability that ensures optimum utilisation of resources for the satisfaction of both short-term and long-term needs of visitors.

The term the 'Third World' was first used in France in the 1950s and by the early 1960s formed part of a threefold division of the world on principally political and economic grounds. The First World is the industrialized, market-economy countries, broadly the 'capitalist' or western world. The Second World is the centrally-planned economies (the 'communist bloc' or 'socialist camp'). Finally, the Third World is the poorer countries, those recently independent from colonial powers (Dickenson, et al., 1983: 1). In this paper, I use 'third world' term as commonly used in literature. The third world countries include: South America, Africa, Asia with general exception of: mainland China, Cuba, and Vietnam which have adopted socialist forms of government.

Tourism's Role in Third World Development

At a national level, the common major aim of both first world and third world countries in promoting international tourism is to increase overseas earnings and improve or redress the balance of payments situation (Pearce, 1981: 55). Development of international tourism offers three main opportunities to increase overseas earnings (Pearce, 1981: 56):

1. It has been, and still is, a growth industry;
2. The tourism market, unlike that for many manufactured or primary goods, has relatively little protection. Moreover, it is a market which comes to the producer;
3. For many countries, tourism may represent a diversification of the economy.

It seems to apply in first world countries, however not all of Pearce's criteria can be found in third world tourism development.

By the year 2,000 there will be two billion annual tourists in the world. Forecasting for the next ten years, it can be assumed that tourist movement from first world countries to the third world will continue to rise (ECTWT, 1980). There is a reasonably good prospect for growth of tourism among developing countries. The Economist records that visitor arrivals rose by 24% in Hong Kong, by 22% in Thailand and by 35% in Malaysia in 1988.

To some degree, the increasing number of tourists shows comparatively high rates of economic growth. However, a fundamental question is to what extent does the foreign exchange from international tourism benefit third world countries? As the visitor spends large amounts of money in the country visited, it is assumed that tourism is an excellent means of transferring wealth from the richer to the poorer countries. The extent of leakages --the amount of money which does not stay in the destination country-- and the degree of goods and services consumed by foreign or extra-regional tourists can vary enormously. Wealth transfer depend on (AD, 1975; Theuns, 1976):

a. the structure and diversity of the national or regional economy,
b. the size of the nation,
c. whether or not supply can keep pace with demand,
d. the siting of development,
e. the class of visitor,
f. the nation import policy.

Understanding this criteria, to keep leakage as low as possible, means much effort must be made by many different institutions and agents involved in tourism development at many levels. Unfortunately, third world countries do not conform well to the relevant criteria. For example, the structure and diversity of the economy in national and regional levels are divergent. The result is difficulty in to coordinating them to support tourism development. Another example, the class of visitor is high volume rich tourists, because a lot of money needs to come to third world countries. This class of visitor expects and demand 'western amenities' in the tourist destinations of third world countries.

How much of the money spent by the visitor is retained in the destination countries? There is no simple answer to that question, because tourism consists of a complicated set of arrangement. A comprehensive study called 'The Economic and Social Impact of International Tourism on Developing Countries' was conducted in 1974-1975 by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) on behalf of Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). The
study describes a typical arrangements as follows:
A group of European tourist may buy a 'package' for US $2,000 a piece for Asian country from a retailer, the retailer may have to pay 20 percent for the wholesaler in the origin country who took the initial risk of promoting a variety of such package tours; 30 to 35 per cent of the balance of US $1,600 may go to the foreign carrier, scheduled airline or charter operator; 40 per cent of the balance US $1,000 may be charged by the hotel for board and lodging. It means that only the remaining US $600 would be spent on internal transport, sightseeing, entertainment, beverages, tips and sundry expenses.

Only 30 per cent of the foreign exchange from tourism stays in the third world countries. On the top of that, the carrier in most cases will be foreign, the hotel may be partly financed by external investors and operated by multinational hotel groups or owned by local people, but operated by a foreign hotel chain.

The third world countries also spend the foreign exchange income on publicity, promotions and maintenance of sales promotion overseas. Moreover, the host nations pay for the import of aircraft for domestic air services, machinery and equipment for the 'sophisticated needs' of the first world tourist. Examples of these needs include: hotels, motor vehicles, and food and beverages requirements. Depending on how much required sophisticated goods, the host country can produce indigenously, the foreign exchange component stay in the country may be as high as 70 per cent in some developing African and Caribbean countries or as low as 10 to 20 per cent as in India and 17 per cent in Indonesia (Kuntiorojakti, 1989). Despite the leakages as mentioned, according to Som Nath Chib ('the father of tourism' in India) it has been established that overall benefit are higher than that of many industries (Chib, 1989: 237). This includes the cost-ratio of tourism, taking into account foreign exchange earnings and their multiplier effect, and the tax revenue and employment tourism generate.

Tourism does create income and jobs. The two most important needs of third world countries need. However, tourism is also an international service industry that provide fun, rest, and relaxation to foreign visitors rather than producing products for local consumption or export. As the number of tourists who come to the third world destination grown very fast, the country must import commodities to provide for tourist consumptions and to locals who like to copy tourist tastes. Almost all tourist's needs are imported. Even when the tourism income begin to decline, the imported goods to supply the tourist is still increasing. In Tahiti, for example, where tourist numbers are beginning to decrease, almost all tourism amenities, even the sarong worn by a dancing girl, is imported (O'Grady, 1990).

Labour created by tourism industries discourages other sectors such as farming. When tourism develops, local people are not always ready to handle the cash or cash economy. When the tourism industries are booming workers are needed for accommodation, transportation, and foodstuffs. Traditional jobs no longer exist and formal trades and skills are lose. An economic system which may have been formerly diversified and independent becomes specialised and dependent. Meanwhile, for the local population, the cost of living increases. Tourism pushes up prices, wages and the exchange rate and makes other sectors harder to develop.

Many institutions have counted children and the female work force as advantage from tourism without considering the kind of jobs they have. Third world critics are beginning to condemn how the glamour of international tourism heightens the chances for middle men to exploit their own people along with tourist. Business becomes good for brothel owners, drug dealers, folk-lore group managers and those who exploit tourists in the bazaars. The Thai government has expressed concern about the country's image as 'the brothel of Asia' but finds it easy to manipulate its sense of shame with the continued exploitation of the country's female role in tourism (O'Grady, 1990: 9).

**Tourism and Resources**

Tourism today is an accurate reflection of the state of global affairs (O'Grady, 1990:30). Modern mass tourism is becoming an increasing environmental risk whose effects are a hazard to its sustainability. Recently, 'unsolicit' landscapes in the Third World have been part of the tourist circuit for those who can afford a more enriching experience than the already overused summer resorts of the first world countries can offer. Easier world access and cheap air travel mean masses of people are coming to the coast of the southern seas and the remote wilderness areas to enjoy nature and people whose cultures and lifestyles are still attached to 'traditional' values. Consequently,
tourism contributes considerably to the transfer of environmental problems from the first to the third world.

The joint declaration by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and the United Nation Environment Program (UNEP) of 1982 states that:

"The satisfaction of tourism requirements must not be prejudicial to the social and economic interest of the population in the tourist areas, to the environment, or above all to natural resources which are fundamental attractions of tourism."

However, it is obvious now that tourists are considerable sources of pollution, particularly when their numbers go over the local population during the peak season. Result of the influx are overuses of water resources, local sewers, and communications systems. The presence of waste materials is both environmentally damaging to the beaches and sea, and economically destructive for water based tourist resorts. The tourists will stay away once recreational activities like swimming, fishing, boating, and canoeing are no longer enjoyable or become a health hazard. There is also the possibility that diseases such as cholera, typhoid, hepatitis and dysentery can be transmitted through contaminated seafood or other meals.

For some first world tourists, the safari tourist who leaves Africa without seeing the big five mammals - lions, leopards, elephants, rhinoceros, and buffalo - has the same sense of failure as a holiday maker in Hawaii who departs without a suntan. The motivation from these tourists often encourages tour guides to harass the animals in national parks. Speeding vehicles, driving off roads and night driving all contribute to wildlife mortality and the alteration of wildlife habitats. Unregulated sewage and garbage disposal around lodges and campsites also creates problems as they attract animals and disturb traditional feeding patterns. For example, the hunting brochure of the governmental 'Tanzania Wildlife Corporation' (TAWICO), says:

"You wish to spend hard earned money well. Tanzania is your choice. Tanzania offers you more than 50 game animal species to hunt. It is the only game hunting novelty remaining in the world. After your hunt, spend a few days enjoying the sun along our incomparable beaches. Come and spend your time with friendly people of Tanzania."

The decrease of a particular species is even greater when they are killed for the purpose of a souvenir for the tourist.

As seen in the explanation above, tourism, declared to be a means of cultural exchange and understanding between nations, ends up to be a means of enjoyment for the tourists and a loss for the local people. This is especially happening in third world countries. Efforts have been made to explore new activities to develop tourism in ways that regard negative impacts happen of tourism. The 'trendy' term for this effort is "alternative tourism).

**Alternative Tourism**

Some methods of alternative tourism are 'staged authenticity' or 'reconstructed ethnicity' and special interest tourism.

The concepts of 'staged authenticity' and 'reconstructed ethnicity' were introduced by Dean MacCannell (1984). Staged authenticity happens when a luxurious environment is built in an enclave area within very poor countries. It protects the impact of tourism from the local people, as they do not make any contacts. However, it transmits an unreal image to the visitor of the host culture and offers misleading impressions of the conditions in the country to the visitors.

'Reconstructed ethnicity' has been defined by MacCannell as "the maintenance and preservation of ethnic forms for the entertainment of ethnically different others". The example of this concept is Polynesian Cultural Centre in Hawaii where major tribal groups are represented and "typical" dwellings, dances and handicrafts are displayed (Richter, 1989:187). Other example exist in the Philippines, Thailand, and Indonesia. Although it is meant to be authentic, the real emphasis is on making non-modern groups look unique and colourful. Some critics find the cultural composites like Nayong Filipino or Taman Mini Indonesia vulgar and trivial because they represent the dominance of particular decision-makers who display the minorities group cultures superficially.

Special interest tourism has also been called alternative tourism. One example of this concept is sport tourism (Richter 1989: 186). The Honolulu Marathon in 1984 brought over nine million dollars to the community. Golf, diving, bird watching, fishing, and canoeing encourage people with similar interests to come together. It also
encourages the decision maker—the local government—to protect some environment only for the enjoyment of the tourist. Trips together for the purpose of religion or beliefs can also be included in special interest tourism.

Another alternative tourism which can be part of 'special interest' but raises many debates is 'sex tourism'. This concept has become very important in countries like Thailand, the Philippines and even Kenya, where the tourists coming this purpose are growing fast and are creating 'negative image of the country'. Not all alternative tourism are necessarily appropriate.

**Efforts for 'Ideal' Future**

Some attempt to approach an ideal purpose for tourism have been conducted. Potter (1978) presents useful methodology for impacts assessment. Potter's methodology, when broadened and modified to consider not only environmental but also social and economic impacts, provides a framework for investigating the impact of tourism development. The basic steps are described:

1. Examine context-environment, society, economy,
2. Forecast future if tourist development does not proceed/not proceeded,
3. Examine tourism development
4. Forecast future if tourist development proceed/examine what happened when development occurred,
5. Suggest amelioration measures to reduce adverse impacts,
6. Analyze the impacts and compare alternatives,
7. Present the result,
8. Make a decision.

The main purpose of this assessment is that, if tourism is to be developed in a particular destination, it is should not only benefit the visitor, but also the local people. It may mean encouraging tourism that consists of locally owned and managed enterprises and making sure that the parks, city, country and other resources are adequately satisfying for the tourist experience. It may mean encouraging tourists to use local transportation, restaurants and other services. Although it might be ideal and wishful for people in the third world countries, the main problem is that the gap between the standard of living provided for the tourist and the resident population may be 500 years apart in quality (Richter 1989: 192).

Every potential tourist destination has a certain 'carrying capacity' (McIntosh, 1986): a level of tourist development or recreational activity beyond which the environment is degraded (environmental carrying capacity), facilities are saturated (physical carrying capacity) or peoples enjoyment diminishes (social carrying capacity).

A further question is 'who makes the study to define the carrying capacity of a particular tourist destinations'. The result is likely to be very different if the study is made by government, entrepreneur or local people. For example, in a case study of Virgin Islands in the Caribbean (O'Grady, 1990), the local people expressed negative attitudes towards a park which is supposed to control the carrying capacity of the island. For the local people, letting a large part of the island be covered by bush indicates a neglect of the land and the death of their community, as their cattle can not graze in the field and they can not cultivate their food. When they initially welcomed the park to the island, they did not realize that their concept of an ideal landscape—small farmers with agriculture, pastures and fruit trees—would differ so much from that of the park service. The main benefit of the park is for the entrepreneurs which establish hotels and tourist facilities on holdings within the park.

The book The Challenge of Tourism, published by the Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism (ECTWT), mentions that there are at least 38 NGOs in the world who campaign for 'ideal forms of tourism'. The home bases of these NGOs are not only in Asia or third world countries, but also in Europe—Switzerland, the Netherlands, USA, Austria, Belgium and West Germany. In a conference in Manila (1980), these NGOs formulated a 'Code of Ethics for Tourism' in which 12 points are made about the relationship between tourists and local people, especially in third world countries. The Manila Workshop Report conclusions largely corresponded with the critiques some social scientist had begun making ten years earlier. However, the report recommended countless statements whose nature was active rather than academic.

A subsequent conference, the Chiang Mai Conference of 40 participants from 20 countries, met in northern Thailand during April and May of 1984. The focus of this conference was more on Asia. The Report of the 'Workshop on Alternative Tourism with a Focus on Asia' was published and the 'Resource Handbook on Alternative Tourism' was released in 1985. More, regional tourism
conferences have also been held in Fiji; Bad Boll, Germany; San Anselmo, California; and Wellington, New Zealand. The network is growing. In Europe, the Tourism Ecumenical Network (TEN) has a similar agenda to that of.

The United Nations, environmental groups, and some women’s and labour organizations have begun to make tourism an agenda item. The ECTWT experience demonstrates that isolated groups, committees, and individuals are becoming aware of the political and social problems associated with tourism.

In the past, tourism has been a force for the preservation of natural beauty and different human made environment. It has provided new markets for crafts and other traditions once threatened by extinction. The challenge is to convince the international travel industries, governments and other policy makers to think in new and innovative ways to make the industry more socially responsible and more qualitatively satisfying to the tourists or visitors. On the top of that, tourism must be more compatible with local needs and interest.

Epilogue

The organization of this paper derives from the complex, composite character of tourism. The issue of tourism and resources in the third world is a very complex subject which can not be explained in only several pages and studied in a few months. The elements discussed in this paper were selected to understand the general problem of tourism development in third world countries which are founded in the literature. This is also useful for understanding more specific problems in a particular country, region, also to investigate more specific aspects of tourism, such as tourism policy, planning, and management.

In the section on efforts for an ideal future, it was mentioned that tourism has recently become an agenda item for many organizations. They are becoming aware of its importance for development, but also the negative side of its development. This is very reassuring. However, a very big challenge lies ahead. How to convince the United Nations, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, World Tourism Organization, International Association of Travel Agents and many other international organisations to actively promote tourism for their own benefit. It was initially felt that third world tourism could assist countries in developing their own economies, but it is not that easy. Nevertheless, the network that has been created and further positive reactions from other organizations or individuals seems promising for creating ideal future tourism development which based on the mutual benefit and understanding between tourists and local people.

References


MacCannell, Dean. 'Reconstructed Ethnicity: Tourism and Cultural Identity in Third World Communities. in Annals of Tourism Research. 11 (3), 1984


Pratini, Wiwik D. Development, Tourism, and Gender: Analysis: Pangandaran, West Java, Indonesia, as the Case Study. Unpublished Major Paper, 1994


Theuns, D.L. Notes on the economic impact of international tourism in developing countries. in Tourist Review, 31(3), 1976