

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Tourism was one of the earliest activities that human beings must have been involved in. Once their basic needs were satisfied, the need for recreation and leisure was within satisfactory range. Some authors have offered acceptable definitions of tourism. According to Gearing et al (1976) the term “tourism” has been defined as “a form of recreation that involves mobility”. Recreation on the other hand, “embraces a wide range of diverse pursuits from water skiing to watching television, from gambling to music and from hiking to foreign travel” (Gearing, 1976: 4). In addition, the term tourism first appeared in 1811 and it is mainly “defined basing on intention and length of stay outside the normal commuting radius” (Ibid:4)

2.1.2 Defining a Tourist

The Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English language (1972) defines “a tourist” as “one who makes a tour; one who travels for pleasure”. Yet the International Union of Official Travel Organisations defined “tourists” as, “temporary visitors staying at least twenty-four hours in a country visited, when the purpose of the journey can be classified as either leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, sports) or business (family, mission, meeting)”. However, “the most common objective-to travel for fun-is used in defining a tourist”(Gearing et al.,1976:4)

Many people get involved in travelling and may mistake travelling for tourism. On the other hand, as opposed to “tourism”, the term travel means “to pass or make a journey

from place to place in any conveyance; to journey; to visit distant or foreign places, and in general can include all kinds of movements, regardless of the purpose”(Gearing et al.,1976:5)

2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of tourism.

Of recent, tourism development has been advanced as a policy alternative, particularly for developing countries, to aid economic growth (Mill et al, 1985). This policy proposal is based on the following arguments. According to Kinnaird and Hall(1994: 3), tourism is,

“a soft means of promoting development: it is attractive because it faces fewer constraints than alternative forms of economic development. There is an absence of market protectionism, technological and human resource demands are low (it is service-oriented and for the most part, requires low skilled labour) and it appears to have fewer environmental and infrastructural constraints than would heavy manufacturing or agricultural development”.

It is further stated that sometimes a tourist industry may appear to be the only available alternative for development. For example, “an area that has natural beauty and pleasant climate, yet is remote from the skilled labour markets and raw materials needed for manufacturing may see tourism development as the only plausible choice”(Gearing et al., 1976: 32). A case in point is Bermuda Island, which was once dominated by agriculture, but with the growth of her population, tourism became an obvious choice. In fact tourism is now the major, and almost only industry of the island (Ibid:32)

Another important argument in favour of tourism development is the need to earn foreign exchange. No country has admitted that its reserves of gold and foreign exchange are

more than adequate, and few have escaped balance of payments crises in the past. Furthermore, the foreign exchange earned by tourism is earned more conveniently than that from manufactured goods. No packaging costs, shipping and waiting for payment. The customer brings himself to the point of sale, at his own expense (Young, 1973 : 133). In 1987 for example, Spain had net receipts of \$12.8 billion from international tourism, which represented approximately one quarter of all its earnings from the exports of goods and services (Shaw and Williams, 1994 : 116)

It has also been claimed by some authors like Mill and Morrison (1985) that tourism has a huge potential for job creation and is more labour intensive than other industries. Some of the jobs offered in the tourism sector are created directly while others indirectly. The World Tourism Organisation has estimated that travel and tourism employs 100 million people around the world and the vast majority of those jobs are in small or medium sized, family owned enterprises (WTO, 2001). In Bahamas and Jamaica, direct and indirect employment in tourism accounts for 35 per cent and 37 per cent of the labour force respectively (Harrison, 1992).

Additionally, tourism may serve as an appropriate avenue for the protection and preservation of the environment. This is well reflected in the current international debate concerning sustainable development and integration of environmental aspects in the development programmes. Environmentally related concepts like ecotourism and sustainable tourism have recently been used to promote tourism activities in the world (Hall and Lew, 1998).

Despite its positive contributions to economic development of many countries in the world, tourism has been associated with some negative aspects. One of such aspects is its negative impact on the balance of payments of the host country. Many developing countries have to import on a large scale to build up their tourist industries; and many more rely to a large extent on imports to keep it running. Most of the imports are purchased in foreign currencies and it is possible that the biggest percentage of the earnings from tourism is used to meet the host country's import needs. Even food that the tourists eat in the hotels is usually imported (Young, 1973: 151).

Besides its negative economic impact, tourism has also been associated with some social problems created in a host country. In Thailand for example, the booming tourist industry has been accompanied by prostitution, which in turn has increased the spread of STDs (Sexually Transmitted Diseases) like HIV/AIDS. The number of prostitutes in the country increased from 20,000 in 1958 to 400,000 in 1964 and between 500,000 and a million in the early 1980s, while those infected with HIV/AIDS were estimated to be between 45,000 and 50,000 (Kinnaird and Hall, 1994). Consequently, Thailand's international image has been badly affected and the authorities have been forced to launch public relations campaign to fight the country's bad image and once again make it a tourist destination in the region.

In order to attract more female tourists and to counter Thailand's bad image of sex tourism and AIDS, the chairman of the Tourism Authority of Thailand and a leading anti AIDS campaigner, Minister Mechai Viravaidya, planned a Women's Visit Thailand Year Campaign in 1992. According to the Minister,

“We want women to come particularly from countries where some of their men have come here on sex tour....We want them to see what their men get up to and how they have exploited uneducated women and children. We want their women to come and see good Thai women and encourage Thai women to stand up to the brutality and disrespect they have suffered....”(Far East Economic Review, 18 July, 1991 : 44).

In some Muslim countries where strict Islamic laws have been instituted, the practice of prostitution has not entirely been stamped out in their cities too. For instance in Malaysia, “hidden” sex tourism has been identified as occurring in the states of Penang and Kuala Lumpur (Harrison, 1992). In addition this seedy side of tourism will continue to grow in relation to the demands of the increasing number of Japanese tourists in Malaysia (Hong, 1985). Needless to say, the rate of STD infections had increased, with the tourist destination of Penang having the highest rate of infection (Ibid).

Still on the social aspects, Young (1973) contends that the “disruptive effects of tourism on local cultures is one of the saddest effects of the industry, threatening to result in a monotonous world of nonculture that replaces regional differences”. A similar assertion is made by Cohen (1972) who predicted that “mass tourism in developing countries, if not controlled and regulated, will tend to destroy whatever is still left of unspoiled nature and of traditional ways of life”.

In addition, tourism has been blamed for causing negative impacts on the environment. The environmental disadvantages “are those which all too often accompany the over-exploitation of coastlines, pollution of the sea, loss of historic buildings to make way for

tourist accommodation, and loss of agricultural land for airport development” (Young, 1973 : 156). Furthermore, Gearing et al (1976) argues that although hotel and restaurant operators in a host country may benefit from tourism, the permanent residents “may suffer a cost in terms of crowding, pollution, noise and in some cases, a changed way of life”.

2.3 Growth of International tourism

As the name suggests, international tourism connotes tours/visits of people to places outside of their own place of origin. Today, with globalisation and Internet, organization of tours seems simpler. The internationalisation of tourism is a process with long roots. It can be traced back to the earliest trading, to the pilgrimages of medieval times, and the grand tours of the aristocracy and the upper middle classes in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Shaw and Williams, 1994 : 22).

However, mass international tourism is a product of the twentieth century, especially of the period since the second world war (Ibid : 22). The number of international tourist arrivals has also been on the increase. It increased from 14 million tourists in 1948 to 25 million in 1950, then to 69 million, 159 million, 284 million, 425 million and 594 million in 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990 and 1996 respectively (see Table II). In addition, the World Tourism Organisation has forecasted that international tourist arrivals will top one billion by 2010 (WTO, 2001).

International tourism is the world’s largest export earner and an important factor in the balance of payments of many countries. Foreign currency receipts from international tourism reached 423 billion in 1996, outstripping exports of petroleum products, motor

vehicles, telecommunication equipment, textiles or any other product or service (WTO, 2001).

According to Harrison (1992) and Berg et al (1995), the persistent increase in mass international tourism has been due to the following factors:

- (a) The continuous growth of disposable income per household, due to rising salaries and increasing participation of women in labour market;
- (b) The increase of leisure time, due to shorter work weeks, early retirement and flexible working schedules;
- (c) The higher grade of education, which in the one hand stimulated curiosity and the wish to see new places and landscapes, and on the other facilitated international tourism;
- (d) An altered attitude towards work and leisure : in the post-industrial society work is not a means to an end, but a precondition for enjoying one's leisure time more;
- (e) The increased mobility among the population, as a result of the widespread possession of cars and the revolution in air transport;
- (f) The considerable reduction in tariffs and prices due to growing competition among travel agencies, airlines (deregulation), and tourist destinations.

Although international tourist arrivals have increased in all regions of the world, some have performed better than others. Europe remains the dominant destination and sending area in tourism but since 1970, its percentage share of international arrivals has been

gradually declining (see Table III). On the other hand, South Asia has the smallest share of international tourist arrivals.

Table II. International tourist arrivals, 1948 – 1996 (excluding excursionists)

Year	Total No. of Arrivals	Year	Total No. of Arrivals
1948	14,000,000	1986	330,527,000
1950	25,282,000	1987	356,787,000
1960	69,296,000	1988	381,946,000
1970	159,600,000	1989	414,223,000
1980	284,841,000	1990	425,000,000
1983	284,173,900	1996	594,000,000

Source : Harrison (1992); WTO, (2001)

Table III. International tourist arrivals for selected years, 1950 – 1990, percentage share by region.

Year	Europe	Americas	East Asia	Africa	Middle East	South Africa
1950	66	30	-	2	-	0.1
1960	72	24	-	1.5	-	0.3
1970	70	23	-	1.8	-	0.6
1980	69	19	7	2.5	2	0.8
1985	66	18	9	3.0	2.5	0.8
1989	64	19	11	3.3	1.9	0.7
1990	64	20	11	3.3	1.4	0.8

Source: Harrison (1992:5)

NB : Americas- USA, Canada
 - Latin America
 - The Caribbean

Of recent, China, the most populous nation in the world has become a key destination in South Asia. From 1980 to 1988, its tourist arrivals went almost six million to nearly thirty-two million, of whom more than 90 per cent from Hong Kong, Macao or Taiwan. In 1988, nearly one third of foreign tourists to China were Japanese (Harrison, 1992).

The growing number of the Japanese tourists in China and other countries in Asia has been attributed to the various programmes which were initiated by the Japanese government to reduce trade friction. One of such programmes is the “Ten Million plan” which was launched in 1987 to encourage ten million Japanese every year to visit foreign countries particularly the United States of America. In 1990, the Japanese tourists constituted 48 per cent of Korea’s tourist arrivals, 22 per cent for Hong Kong, 19 per cent for Singapore, 12 per cent for Indonesia and 11 per cent for Thailand (Ibid:6).

2.3.1 Tour operators

According to Young (1973 : 76), “If the travel agent is the retailer, selling tourist goods and services to the customer, then the tour operator is the wholesaler”. However international tour companies play a critical role in the international tourism industry. They link together millions of individual customers, mostly in the more developed countries, with large numbers of individual enterprises in travel industry like the accommodation sector and other tourism related services (Shaw and Williams, 1994).

Historically the creation of package holiday is associated with Thomas Cook (a UK owned tour company and one of the biggest in the world). Thomas Cook’s first foreign holiday was arranged only in 1855, but within ten years he had a thriving international business. By 1872 Cook was able to offer round-the-world holidays and its main rival in the US was American Express which, from the 1950s, offered financial and other services to travelers (Ibid : 111).

Eventually, other companies entered the market, which provided an impetus for the development of mass international tourism. According to Young (1973), the economics

of tour operating business are such that the larger units have a distinct advantage over the smaller ones. This is because of the following reasons:

- (a) Firstly, they are in a stronger bargaining position vis-à-vis the airlines and hotels, and can secure better terms for buying in bulk and for buying in advance.
- (b) Offer competitive prices, which enable them to undercut the smaller firms and thus increase their share of a market, which is sensitive to price changes.
- (c) The larger units can indulge in expensive advertising campaigns which are beyond the means of their smaller rivals.
- (d) The larger companies have access to substantial resources; this can finance vertical integration, i.e. the acquisition of hotels and airlines, which in turn enables them to streamline their operations and cut their costs.

The tendency for tour companies to set up their own charter airlines to reduce costs is not new although the reverse pattern can also be observed, with airlines owning tour companies. In the UK for examples, Thomas Cook owns the Britannia charter airline, which is larger than major European carriers such as Swissair and SAS. In contrast, Japan Airlines own Japan Creative Tours, Swissair has a majority holding in To, Kuoni, the largest Swiss group, and Air France has a 70 per cent interest in Sotair, a major French tour operator (Shaw and Williams, 1994 : 113).

With the recent technological innovations like the Internet, tour companies have managed to improve their operations. Technologies have helped to speed up systems, improve communications and provide data bases for further selling (Hodgson, 1986). It has also facilitated automated ticketing via credit cards. It has been asserted that the

recent technological breakthroughs will be in the future help the tour operators become “independent”, thereby reducing the role of travel agents in the travel industry. Already some large tour companies have embarked on ticket writing activities themselves (Hodgson, 1986 : 14). In addition, Young (1973 : 72) writes that,

“the tour operators are beginning to suspect that the travel agent is an unnecessary overhead in the sale of their package holidays. It is the operator who bears the advertising costs, and who takes the risk if all the package holidays are not sold. With margins under constant competitive pressure, agent’s commission is too good an opportunity to miss”

However, the above technological threat has been dismissed by Hodgson who argues that, “A holiday, rather like a business trip abroad, can be best termed as a high advice product. Low advice products, such as simple tickets transactions, timings and pricing, can be supplied via technology, but actual emotional involvement which the public requires, when buying a trip, can only come via face to face contact”. The “face to face” contact is often done by travel agents.

2.3.2 Travel Agent

As noted earlier, a travel agent is a “retailer” selling tourist products got from tour operators, (Young, 1973).

Before mass international tourism became important, the service of travel agents were very crucial to those who wanted to visit foreign countries but lacked time, experience or knowledge to help themselves (Ibid: 12). Of late, however the role of the travel agent is being threatened by various structural changes, which are taking place within the tourism

industry. One of such changes is the merger and acquisitions in which big tour companies are either buying off charter airlines and hotels or are merging to internalize costs (Ibid : 75).

Since travel agents operate on small-scale, they cannot match the discounts offered by the large companies like Thomas Cook and Intasun (UK tour market leaders), and Woodside management system of the U.S. (Hodgson, 1986). This definitely places them in a disadvantaged position.

In addition, unlike before when advance booking was necessary for travel today, things have changed and,

“air travel is becoming more like rail travel and bus travel, with the customer making his arrangements within a short notice, and often is able to get on the next plane. He can also telephone the airline directly to reserve a seat” (Young, 1973 : 72).

Another important observation is that as the general public becomes better educated, more travelled and more familiar with the countries it visits, the advice and reassurance of the travel agent becomes less vital. The recent discovery of the Internet is also more likely to reduce the significance of travel agents. This is because the internet will speed up communication, reduce operation costs, lower prices, provide more sophisticated marketing techniques and widen sales opportunities (Hodgson, 1986).

2.4 Modernisation Paradigm

The paradigm shift from the system and means of life it has always had to a modern form, for a developing country, is not always easy to accomplish. A people that have developed a different means of livelihood need quite some adaptations to reposition themselves to earning it from tourism. Some salient behavioural changes may be necessary. Some authors have offered their views on the modernization paradigm. The modernisation approach relates to the initial western development model which sought to transform the newly independent poor countries from agriculture to industry (Harrison, 1992). Under this arrangement, the state of underdevelopment was defined in terms of observable differences between rich and poor countries. Development was also perceived to bridge these gaps by means of an imitative process, in which the less developed countries gradually assumed the qualities of the industrialized countries (Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984).

In addition, the modernization idea is upheld in Rostow's development model, which states that all societies must pass through five stages to achieve development. Emile Durkheim and the Tonnies also adopted the same ideas to explain certain social realities. Durkheim stressed the idea of mechanical solidarity (primary society where intimate relationships are still in existence) versus organic solidarity (transformed society), while the Tonnies emphasised *Gemeinschaft* (traditional society) versus *Gesellschaft* (modern society with altered norms) (Ibid: 23).

Modernisation theory has "an evident fit" with neoclassical economics with emphasis on prices, the market and maximisation of self-interest. If investment capital, entrepreneurial skills, technological knowledge and values necessary for modernity are absent from

societies which are "developing" (a term clearly implying a process of evolution or improvement), possibly because of the conservative nature of tradition, they can be diffused from outside, perhaps as some form of aid (Harrison, 1992: 9).

However, the modernisation development model has been fiercely attacked by the advocates of the dependency school (Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984). The dependency approach is based on the promise that the Third World's economic problems emanate from overdependence on the West for financial and technical assistance. It also emphasises that the international economic arrangement was designed in favour of the center (Western industrial world) leaving the periphery (Third World) in the poor state. It concludes that the Third World's economic problems could only be solved by implementing inward-looking development policies and de-linking from the initial western capitalist approach (Harrison, 1992).

Despite such attacks from the dependency theorists, the modernization approach has persistently been pursued in many parts of the developing world. The recent success of the Southeast Asia export oriented industrialisation strategy has also been used to dispel dependence-related notions of blocked development in the periphery; as countries like Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Thailand and Malaysia have managed to achieve rapid economic development through engaging the global economy (Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984).

2.4.1 Tourism, Modernisation and Development.

Based on the modernisation philosophy, tourism can be seen as one of the ways through which the transfer of capital, technology, expertise and “modern” values from the western industrial countries to the developing world can take place (Harrison, 1992). Besides declining commodity prices, many developing countries are facing huge external debts, rising unemployment and poor health conditions (Cheru, 1989). This has forced policy makers in these countries to propose the development of tourism as an alternative source of revenue to facilitate development programmes.

Although domestic tourism may be an important avenue for promoting development, most of the programmes and policies in the developing countries have focused on international tourism. Even the facilities that have been provided like hotels and airports are mostly targeting foreign tourists. This kind of development approach is based on the western modernization model, which seeks to transform less development countries into “modern” states.

In the Philippines, for example, the island of Boracay was initially dominated by fishing and farming activities (Harrison, 1992). When the island was discovered by the tourists in the mid 1980’s, investors started flocking in to provide tourist facilities and “modernise” the place. Initial activities on the island were later undermined as many people started working in hotels, construction sector and other tourism-related businesses. Furthermore, “drunkenness, narcotics and prostitution were imported into the island by the tourists, who also proceeded to deplete coral resources already damaged by the islanders’ fishing practices” (Harrison, 1992 : 10).

Boracoy was undoubtedly being “modernized” in the sense of being incorporated more closely into the world economic system, with the expansion of the cash economy and wage labour and the introduction of “Western norms and values”. But was it development? Certainly, the experience of Boracoy is one of the dilemmas facing developing countries’ development initiatives.

2.5 Tourism in the Third World

Although there has been no agreeable definition of the term “Third World” among scholars, in most instances, the term has been used to mean, “..... that entire range of countries, mainly tropical, that was the scene of the great colonial explosion, which reached its crescendo in the latter part of the nineteenth and the earlier part of the twentieth centuries. All these territories stretching as they do through the Caribbean, Africa, India and the near and far east were used as sources of raw materials and primary agricultural products destined for the great manufacturing countries which were mainly concentrated in Europe” (Blomstrom and Hettne, 1984).

Of recent, however tourism has become a major development sector in many Third World countries. This is because of the decline in commodity prices, severe balance of payment problems, external debts and rising unemployment levels. In addition, the implementation of the Structural Adjustment economic policies in the developing countries provided an impetus for economic diversification. According to Cater and Lowman (1994),

“the less developed world has undeniable comparative advantage in terms of the variety and extend of unspoiled natural environments which can serve as tourist resorts. These ranges from tropical rainforest to savannah grasslands and secluded beaches fringed by coral reefs. Outstanding scenic attractions include spectacular waterfalls and the world’s highest mountains. In addition, such countries offer the prospect of viewing unique flora and fauna in their original habitat” (Cater and Lowman, 1994 : 69)

In 1989, the Third World, excluding the then European and Asian socialist countries, attracted 21 percent of international tourists and 26 percent of the tourist receipts. Among the Least Developed Countries (LDC), Latin America, the Carribbean, South and Southeast Asia together attracted 67 percent of all tourist arrivals to LDCs (WTO: 1991). In Africa, six countries excluding Egypt, accounted for 70% of the continents international tourists in 1989. These were : Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Kenya, Zimbabwe and the Republic of South Africa. Nigeria’s international arrivals were too low to be reckoned with (Harrison, 1992).

Until recently, Egypt and Jordan have dominated tourism in the Middle East. In 1989, Egypt, which is classified by WTO as part of the Middle East, attracted almost a third of the region’s tourist arrivals. Another 29 per cent went to Jordan (Harrison, 1992:8).

It should be noted that most of the Third World’s tourists come from Europe. While Europe has remained the major destination area, taking about 64 per cent of the international tourist arrivals, it provides almost 61 per cent of the international tourist arrivals (Harrison, 1992 : 8).

However, Japan has recently become one of the major sources of international tourists for the Third World. Most of its tourists go to the USA and Asian Countries such as Singapore, South Korea, Hong Kong, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and China (Ibid : 6).

Table IV. Tourism Balance in Selected Developing Countries (1988

Country	Tourism receipt \$ millions	Tourism Expenditure \$ Million	Tourism % of exports	Tourism % of GDP
Bahamas	1,136	150	NA	53.0
Barbados	459	29	60.1	29.3
Singapore	2,399	930	NA	9.7
Jamaica	525	45	33.5	16.5
Costa Rica	165	72	103	18.5
Thailand	3,120	602	15.6	5.4
Morocco	1,102	132	26.3	5.0
Egypt	1,784	75	36.6	4.9
Mexico	3,497	2,361	12.7	2.5
Kenya	410	25	21.9	4.8

Source : Harrison, 1992: 14

Table V. Growth in Tourism to Selected Third World Countries (Tourist arrivals)

Country	1981	1990
Costa Rica	333,000	435,000
Kenya	373,000	801,000
Botswana	227,000	844,000
Madagascar	12,000	53,000
Ecuador	245,000	332,000
Maldives	60,000	195,000

Source : Cater and Lowman, 1994:70

2.6 Development and Administration of Tourism in Nigeria.

Tourism is an industry with many tentacles. It is also influenced by other sectors of the economy and requires the goodwill and participation of as many people as possible, either directly or indirectly. As stated earlier in chapter one, this unique feature of tourism was not helped by the placement of tourism in the exclusive list of the Nigerian federal constitution. The seeming neglect of culture and tourism was to last into the 1980s. Although the Nigerian Tourist Association was formed and after its demise, the Nigeria Tourist Board was created by government, it was not until its transformation to the Nigeria Tourism Development Corporation in 1989 that a semblance of attention was paid to tourism. Maybe as a way of creating a more conducive atmosphere for progress, a ministry of trade and tourism was formed, also in 1989. Having recognized that tourism was not doing well, the Minister in charge announced, as at then that

“the Nigerian Tourist Board is being restructured for better operational efficiency and productivity. When completed the Board shall have the following six Departments : (a) Administration (b) Finance (c) Planning and Development (d) Marketing and Promotion (e) Hospitality and Travel Trade (f) Travel Bureau. (Ukpanah, 1991: 6)

Like most public establishments, the intentions of reorganisation were noble in theory but in practice it as entirely different, always far from the expectations. Pursuant to development and better administration of tourism the, government had to look further afar for guidance and help as,

“TPL Associated Limited of London, England, a tourism consultancy firm, together with Amhurst Tourist Services, the Nigerian associates of the UK firm, were commissioned in July 1990 to prepare a strategic plan for the development of tourism in Nigeria”. (Ibid: 7)

Most often the government officials come out with ideas which at times defy implementation. In the Nigerian case, the lethargic public service overwhelms any new idea and this was part of the problem of the NTDC. Since the government was the policy maker and major player in the tourism industry, it needed to create a sense of direction. The government for the first time formulated a tourism policy in January 1990. The policy aimed at generating foreign exchange, creating employment and being a source of development and so on. Among the many strategies that were proposed for the accomplishment of the policy, the top most was infrastructure. According to Ukpanah,

“Government would ensure the provision of basic infrastructural facilities, namely, roads, water, electricity, communication, etc, to centers of attraction in order to accelerate their development for the purpose of exploiting fully their tourist value (Ibid:126).

This recognition of infrastructure as a major foundation and pillar of success in tourism showed a thorough understanding of the essentials on the part of the policy formulators. It was one thing to prepare a good policy, it was another to implement it. The tourism policy proposed other strategies to facilitate its implementation. One of such plan was getting concessions and easy access to land from state government for tourism developments. Most of the ideas have yet to be implemented.