EMERGENCE OF EFFECTIVE
TOURISM PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

by Clare A. Gunn, Professor Emeritus
Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences
Texas A&M University

Abstract

The planning of tourism development is now gaining credibility as a necessary process in order to reach desired objectives. Modern trends, such as new understanding of markets, privatization, environmentalism, and professionalism, are stimulating greater planning activity. Planning at the regional (national, state, provincial) scale is just now being sought in order to establish policy and guide tourism growth. Planning at the destination scale now assists many communities and surrounding areas to guide growth toward desired economic and environmental objectives. Planning at the site scale, popular for generations, is now expressed in a new paradigm. The state-of-the-art for tourism planning has shown great progress in only the last decade or two but many challenges remain.
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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to describe the state-of-the-art of planning for tourism development—to sketch the progress of planning concepts and applications for tourism with emphasis on recent changes. Although planning for specific sites, such as for resorts, has taken place for centuries, great changes have taken place in tourism planning concepts and applications in only the last few decades. As nations, provinces, cities, and investors now seek the rewards of tourism, these changes are opening up new opportunities. More areas are recognizing that better planning can prevent most negative environmental and social impacts at the same time that economic benefits can be enhanced. Even though much of the scope of this paper relates to the North American experience, many of the principles and ideas are applicable elsewhere.

BACKGROUND

Because the topic of tourism planning is confused by ambiguity of the terms "tourism" and "planning", it is necessary at the outset to clarify meanings. For purposes here, tourism includes all travel (business and pleasure) except commuting from home to work. Included are the categories of visitor, tourist and excursionist as recommended by the World Tourism Organization. It encompasses all the physical development and management required to provide for the traveler's interests and needs. The term planning, however, is even more ambiguous. Within tourism, it popularly has many meanings: site and building planning, market forecasting, political planning, and market planning. The focus here is placed on physical planning, land use, and design.
In the context of state-of-the-art, some forms of tourism planning and design have taken place for centuries. Even in ancient times, ships and coaches were designed for sea-going and land-based travelers who sought objectives of trade or mere curiosity. The brief travel history by Bridges (1959) cites the planning and building of travel services and facilities by ancient Romans and Egyptians. These plans and developments were created in response to travel market demand partly for commerce but also for health and to visit seaside resorts and major shrines, such as temples, statues and pyramids.

For centuries, the dominant form of tourism planning has been for facilities and services. This form continues to encompass individual building sites, travel routes and mechanisms for passenger transportation. Planning at a larger scale--community and region--seems to be a much more recent phenomenon. Even seaside and mountain resorts that emerged in mid-nineteenth century tended to grow from individual site increments rather than from regional or area plans.

This site-scale emphasis was the logical outcome of the complex nature of tourism and the growth of specialization. It was logical for business enterprise to narrow its focus on only the site and its development for financial success. It was logical for governmental agencies, based upon their legal mandates and individual policies, to concern themselves primarily with tourism-related plans and developments within their own jurisdictions such as for parks and transportation. Equally specialized was the development of the planning and design professions. Probably the oldest was architecture, created primarily as a building design profession. Then, with Frederick Law Olmsted’s land design work, especially for urban and natural resource parks, landscape architecture was created as a separate but related profession. Engineering developed with a strong focus on mechanical and structural design. Planning, as a profession, stemmed primarily in response to urban growth issues, land use, and allocation of public facilities. Educational institutions responded with the creation of distinct and autonomous professional programs. For reasons of public safety the
professions of architecture, landscape architecture, engineering, and planning became legalized, requiring separate examination, licensing, and regulation. Related to tourism design has been the great growth of specialized educational programs in hotel, restaurant, travel agency, and park management.

These well-defined planning, design, and management disciplines have been utilized by many developers within all tourism sectors. Today, three sectors have become the major decision makers regarding investment, development and management of the many pieces that make up tourism. Worldwide, an important role in land ownership, development and management is performed by governmental agencies. Examples include transportation routes, airlines, parks, recreation areas, natural resource preserves, and basic infrastructure, such as water supply, waste disposal, police and fire protection. Throughout the world, the voluntary and nonprofit sector has become a major stakeholder in tourism. Lands, facilities and programs by nonprofit organizations offer many opportunities for tourism such as festivals, events, historic restoration and reuse, youth and adult camping, and religious pilgrimages. More conspicuous in developed nations is the profit-making private enterprise sector that plans, builds and operates hotels, motels, food services, travel agencies, airlines, resorts, tour companies, and theme parks. All three sectors have increased their interest in better tourism planning in the last few decades. Although nations vary in the balance of roles of these three sectors, all three can be found nearly everywhere.

This background is presented only to show that for a great many years the fields of design and planning have had—and for good reasons—a narrow and specialized focus rather than application to larger scales, such as the community, area or region. In spite of this background, significant changes in tourism design and planning have taken place in recent decades. These changes have not resulted from great inventions or startling research of planning. Instead, several factors have converged, resulting in a new paradigm.
FACTORs INFLUENCING PLANNING

In only the last few decades, several new trends have dramatically influenced planning applications to tourism. The strong preoccupation with promotion by national, provincial, state and city tourism agencies is now being modified. Many of these tourism leaders are changing their budget balances to include new functions of research, education and planning. In the field of tourism planning, the following are among the leading factors fostering change.

NEW MARKET UNDERSTANDINGS

For a long time, new tourism development was largely planned according to land and building patterns of the past and generalized assumptions regarding markets. New resorts were elaborations of past resorts; new motels like old motels; and new restaurants like former ones. More recently, this approach of supply side imitation has been modified greatly in an attempt to meet new market needs.

Travel market research is revealing new classifications of travelers, demonstrating that not all market segments seek the same thing. Ritchie (1992) has pointed out that new market trends are creating new challenges--cultural and natural resource interests, better human relationships and desire for specialized travel products. Creative and innovative planning and design approaches are now changing in order to develop attractions, facilities, and services that are better reflections of segmented market needs. For example, new franchise food establishments such as McDonalds frequently modify a standard architectural design in an historic district to harmonize with historic buildings, meeting new cultural needs of travelers.

Hobbs (1992) has reported a stronger market demand for quality, now being reflected in the design and planning for all tourism development. The ordinary, hackneyed and commonplace no longer satisfy travel market demand.

PRIVATEIZATION
Throughout the world, democratic governments and market economies have been replacing command economies. Tourism-related businesses are growing in numbers. Airlines, hotels, resorts and attractions formerly developed and operated by governments are being opened up to private entrepreneurs. With increased demands upon governmental funds, many park and recreation services used by travelers are being turned over to private enterprise. Even in areas where governmental subsidy continues, private business directors are exercising greater control of planning and design of their facilities and services.

Advocates of a "Quality/Value Managed" private tourism plan (Hallowell 1992) cite market satisfaction rather than governmental control as a major opportunity before today's travel organizers. The U.S. experience with deregulation of the airline industry has demonstrated improved service quality, safety and better fares (Morrison & Winston 1992).

Decentralized private development is proving to be more responsive to changes in travel market needs and interests than centralized bureaucratic control. But, the new form of privatization includes many public-private cooperative ventures rather than pure laissez faire.

ENVIRONMENTALISM

Universally, environmental concerns are stimulating greater interest in tourism planning and are expressed in two major ways.

First, tourism destinations are more aware today of environmental quality threats from all sources. Municipal and industrial waste continues to cause air, water, and land contamination. Depletion of forests, reduction of wildlife, air pollution and soil erosion continue to destroy resource potential for tourism. Gradually tourism proponents are beginning to recognize these threats and are expressing their concerns in political and physical plans.

Second, it is now well documented that tourism, if improperly planned and managed, can produce its own negative environmental impacts. A 2,000-delegate five-day conference produces about 600 pounds of aluminum cans and
paper waste equal to 170 trees (Biodegradable 1990). Beach resorts often were built too close to the water’s edge and have been damaged by beach erosion. Many waterfront hotels have contaminated their own swimming, boating and fishing waters with untreated sewage. For example, a major study of the Mediterranean region (Frenon and Batisse 1989) emphasizes the lack of an overall environmental tourism policy with regulations needed to halt erosive trends. New resort, hotel and destination plans are reflecting the need for greater care in site selection, land use planning, and handling of potential environmental threats.

Many specialists and practitioners are now seeking planning and development processes within the ideology of "sustainable development". Nations, provinces and destinations are becoming more aware of the need to set sustainable development as a goal for tourism. Slater (1991) in a Canadian conference on tourism and sustainable development stated, "All these initiatives—reducing and recycling waste, adopting energy efficient practices, providing complete and credible information, etc.—are all important steps to a more sustainable industry”.

PROFESSIONALISM

Today’s professional approach to tourism design and planning has broken dramatically from the past. Today a multifaceted planning-design team is replacing the individual specialty approach of the past. Such a team often includes architects, landscape architects, planners, and engineers. Some projects require additional specialists on the team such as historians, geologists, archeologists, wildlife specialists, and marine biologists.

Another major change is a new role for professional designers and planners—acting as a catalyst for new solutions. These professionals are moving from an elitist approach to greater involvement of all parties involved in and impacted by design decisions. This role that includes public involvement is more costly and takes more time but produces solutions that are more acceptable to all
parties in both the short and long run. Such involvement is resolving many conflicts of the past. For example, planners resolved a twenty-year stalemate on a highway controversy in New Hampshire, U.S.A. Plans for an Interstate Highway through a scenic mountain landmark area were stopped by environmentalists. This issue was finally resolved by means of planning leadership that brought opposing factions together. The solution: Congregessional action that allowed modified Interstate standards (lower speed limit, narrow shoulders, narrow median) and protected scenic beauty. This catalytic action resulted in a plan that was agreeable to both highway engineers and public environmental groups (Rigterink 1992).

TREND TOWARD THREE SCALES

The traditional focus on site scale design and planning is now being modified by increased emphasis on the community/destination and regional scales. Even though many of the planning principles and processes are similar for all three scales, they are emerging as distinctive in their application (Gunn 1993a).

REGIONAL SCALE

Regional (national, provincial, state) tourism planning, although slow to develop, is now appearing more frequently. Preoccupation with promotion is now being modified by budgeting some resources for research and planning. As more research has revealed the social, economic and environmental impacts of tourism, the need for broad-scale planning has become more evident.

Among the earliest reported efforts for regional tourism planning were those by Gunn (1965), Kiemstedt (1967) and Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977). Concepts by Gunn arose following several years of technical advisory work for tourist and resort businesses in the state of Michigan, U.S., beginning in 1945. (This work was sponsored by the Tourist and Resort Extension Service, Michigan State University.) After a few years of business counseling experience,
it became clear that individual tourist business success was as dependent upon external as internal factors and that a broader-scale approach was needed. Study (Gunn 1965) revealed the need for new concepts and processes for both environmental and economic goals.

Upper Michigan Project

Opportunity for an experimental application of these concepts came three decades ago with a project resulting in a seminal regional tourism plan, Guidelines for Tourism-Recreation in Michigan’s Upper Peninsula, an area of 10,584,000 acres and a population of approximately 300,000 (Blank and Gunn 1966). Innovative was a planning process that involved a university, planning professionals, and local citizen committees for all fifteen counties of the region. The implementation of this process took about three years of interaction, study, and creative work. It involved three major steps: (1) study of resources, economic development, tourism sectors, and travel markets; (2) synthesis of study findings; and (3) derivation of conclusions and recommendations.

The project revealed several basic principles for regional tourism planning in addition to specific recommendations for growth in that region. These principles have proven their universal value in recent years and include the following:

* Economic impact comes first through service businesses—hotels, motels, restaurants, and shops. But these are facilitators, not total causes of tourism.

* Demand for these services results from visitors who travel to an area and take part in attractions—things to see and do (for business and pleasure). Attractions are the primary causes of travel.

* Attractions are owned, designed, built and managed land areas and structures that serve two functions: they have attracting power, drawing people to special locations, and they provide visitor satisfactions.
* Attractions depend greatly upon locations with abundant and high quality natural and cultural resources and access from nearby communities and market sources.

* Tourism is a functioning system composed of a demand (market) and supply side (attractions, transportation, services, information, promotion).

These principles gave rise to the tourism planning reality that not all geographical areas have equal potential. The geographer-planner Fagence (1991) has stated that:

locations, regions, resources, amenities and infrastructure have an unequal potential and capacity for particular forms, types and scales of development.

For tourism, this means that a region will contain areas that vary greatly in potential. The concept of "destination zone" attempts to define those areas that have greatest potential. The Upper Peninsula study resulted in delineating ten destination zones. In the ensuing years, most of the recommendations of this plan for zone development and resource protection have been implemented.

Reflection suggests that a major reason for success was a process that combined local input with specialized study and concepts by professional designers and planners.

A destination zone can be conceived as having three major parts that need to be integrated: areas with attraction potential, a community that has adequate infrastructure, attraction potential, and can support new travel services, and transportation and access from market sources. Thus, a destination zone encompasses not only a community but its surrounding area as well. (Further discussion is provided in the next section, "Destination Scale").

It is conceivable, then, that the major thrust of a regional tourism plan should be the identification of key destination zone potential. With such new understanding in each potential zone, tourism development leaders can initiate their own local planning processes for expansion. Conversely, areas with little
potential should not be given investment stimulation. A regional geographic assessment process, aided by computer geographic information systems (GIS), has been developed by Gunn (Gunn and Larsen 1988) and applied to several regions in the United States in recent years: Texas (Gunn and McMillen 1979), Oklahoma (Price Waterhouse 1987), Upcountry South Carolina (Gunn 1990), Delaware (Gunn 1991), and Illinois (Gunn 1993). The South Carolina example is used here to illustrate the process.

South Carolina Plan

The study area was a six-county portion of northwestern South Carolina, 3,849 square miles in size and adjacent to the Blue Ridge Mountains of North Carolina. The major purpose of the project was to identify destination zones and potential development appropriate to the environment, suited to markets and to the production of tourism growth. The study included three major phases: (1) research of "program" and "physical" factors, (2) derivation of conclusions from research, (3) location of prime zones of potential, and (4) suggested development projects in zones and identification of other opportunities.

Program study included review of secondary data for information on (1) travel markets, (2) information systems, (3) promotional programs, (4) socio-environmental issues, and (5) planning and action agencies with ability to implement. Physical factor study was prepared for two groups of resources—natural and cultural. These physical factors were summarized in narratives and drawn on generalized maps. Because each factor has different relative importance these factor maps were weighted as shown in Table 1 for computer map overlays by GIS (Geographic Information System).

In order to show how the several physical factors aggregate, illustrating areas of greatest resource strength, these maps were digitized and then overlaid to produce composite maps as shown in Figure 1. For each series, maps of transportation and cities were included. By means of interpreting the narrative reports and GIS composite maps, zones were delineated based on natural and
cultural resources as shown in Figures 2 and 3, respectively. By grouping these
two maps, Figure 4 is produced, illustrating zones of greatest total potential.

Overall results from this regional study provided the following conclusions:

* Significant tourism development is already in place.
* Region has opportunity to compete well with others.
* Growth and popularity depend upon further planning and design.
* New cooperation of decision makers within and among zones is needed.
* Stronger linkage between rural attractions and cities is needed.
* Greater outside cooperation would help region.
* Small scale and slow growth is most adaptable to region.
* Needed are several important new steps: market research, training,
  education, public cooperation, regional and zone leadership and
  integration, and greater protection of resources.

Some observations on this process should be emphasized. Following this
regional approach, it is the responsibility of all tourism forces at the regional
level and within the delineated zones to take further steps. For example,
existing tourism capacities and limits to environmental stress must be
determined. Existing political and tourism organizations may need to realign
their boundaries or enter into new cooperative arrangements to follow through.
Each zone contains one or more communities as focal points for expansion of
services such as lodging and food. If several communities lie within a zone this
suggests the need for cooperation in developing common themes. This process is
proving its effectiveness in laying a foundation for regional tourism policy and
development.

Other Regional Planning

Many other regions have become engaged in some form of regional
planning for tourism development in the last few decades. A survey by WTO
(World Tourism Organization) in 1980 revealed that 348 regional and 266
Intraregional plans had been prepared at that time.

Japan (Tourism in Japan 1992) reports that its planning division of the Department of Tourism is active in the following functions:

- Overall coordination and planning of tourist administration
- Supervision of the Japan National Tourist Organization.
- Improvement of reception services for foreign visitors.
- Research and study on tourism.
- Subsidies to the tourist industry.
- Matters relating to the acquisition of stocks by foreign investors in the field of tourism.
- Collection and compilation of tourist-related documents.
- Handling of general affairs for the Council for Tourism Policy.

Special emphasis was placed on important natural and cultural resource areas. By 1989, 39 "Special Areas" (of cultural significance) had been designated and planned for tourism.

Australia has established a national plan (Commonwealth 1992) that includes: marketing and coordination; research and statistics; economic and business issues; transport and facilitation; training, employment and standards; environment and social issues; and accommodation and market growth.

Another current GIS approach to the assessment of tourism potential is the "Coastal Tourism Resource Inventory Project" (CTRP) (ARA 1991) for British Columbia, Canada. The purposes are: (1) to develop and implement a rigorous and credible tourism resource mapping methodology and (2) to ensure that the inventory provides a cost effective tool to support tourism planning. It consists of two phases. The first phase is to develop, test and refine the inventory methodology. The second phase is to prepare a tourism resource inventory for the entire coastline of British Columbia.

Rather than generalizing for total tourism potential, this project focuses on eight categories of visitor activity, identified by consensus of consultants, operators, and recreationists:
sportfishing, overnight               kayaking
sportfishing, day charters          scuba diving
coastal overnight cruising          marinas
coastal cruising, day               cruise ships

For each category, specific site criteria were identified and used in resource evaluation. This step is followed by GIS overlays of factor maps specifically suited to the end-use category. Although this is in the experimental stage, it again shows the value of resource study and computer mapping tools for new tourism planning methodology.

Exemplary is regional tourism planning led by the Scottish Tourist Board (STB). In cooperation with 32 Area Tourist Boards, the STB provides planning and financial assistance for expanded development, including new golf courses, old town rejuvenation, fishing, the arts, cycling, access and transport (STB 1993). A new Tourism Management Initiative includes plans for: newly designated tourist routes, priority destination area needs, town and village measures for improvement, scenic viewpoints, environmental awareness and protection, and facility design guidelines (STB 1992).

Conclusions on Regional Tourism Planning

Although not yet supported by a great groundswell of interest, tourism planning at the regional scale is the topic of more conferences, the concern of more policymakers, the subject of more technical study (such as use of GIS), and a beginning of serious implementation. Regional tourism planning is especially effective in creating national policy on transportation, marketing, interagency cooperation, and environmental and social issues related to tourism.

DESTINATION SCALE

Even more popular has become planning and design at the destination scale—a community and surrounding area. Proper functioning of a destination includes three major parts: attractions, community, services and transportation.
Tourism functions require integrated planning of the surrounding area and the city. Many recreational and cultural activities take place in rural areas as well as in cities, requiring cooperation among all political jurisdictions and private organizations.

Recently, several guides to planning and developing destinations have been prepared in the United States. The book, *The Community Tourism Industry Imperative: The Necessity, the Opportunities, the Potential* (Blank 1989) contains twelve chapters of guidance information for individuals and organizations that wish to develop destination zones. The province of Alberta (1988) prepared its *Community Tourism Action Plan Manual* as a guide for organizations and a 24-step process for tourism planning and development. As of 1990, 250 of 429 eligible Alberta communities have developed their plans following this guide (Go et al.1992). The U.S. Travel and Tourism Administration, in recognition of dwindling rural economies, has developed a tourism planning and development guide, *Rural Tourism Development Training Guide* (Koth et al.1991). These and others are indicative of the new interest in making a more concerted planning effort at the destination scale than in the past.

Two important examples of planning at the destination scale are included in *New Challenges in Recreation and Tourism Planning*, (vanLier and Taylor, eds. 1993). The Sils/Segl communities and surrounding areas in Switzerland have been planned to foster protection of mountain scenery of the Canton of Grisons by concentrating building areas (Jacsman et al. 1993). In France, Tarlet (1993) has reported on destination tourism progress in recent years. A major plan for the Aquitaine coast surrounding Bordeaux was prepared in 1967 and has met with reasonable success in years since. The tourism economy has improved at the same time that basic resource assets have been protected. Tarlet reports that planning of mountain tourist zones has met with mixed success. Many jobs have been created, new highways have improved access and the area has been revitalized. At the same time, some landscapes have been damaged, market studies were insufficient and sometimes development has not been adequately
integrated with local communities.

Among destination plans, there appears to be no uniform approach. Some are prepared by governmental tourism agencies whereas others are the product of public-private cooperation. The Pacific Area Travel Association has sponsored several consultant task force projects at this scale. For example, a week of intensive study and evaluation of tourism in Moorea, French Polynesia, by a task force of four specialists resulted in specific recommendations for improvement (Kennedy et al. 1990). The study methodology included air and land reconnaissance, visits to tourism installations, interviews with proprietors, meetings with governmental officials and community representatives, and review of documents. Consensus was reached by the study team on 14 specific conclusions and recommendations including the establishment of a central sewage treatment plant to avoid beach and water pollution. The tourism sector was asked to provide better tourist access and interpretation for the significant natural and cultural resource areas, such as the beautiful central mountains and over 30 Polynesian archeological sites. Because hotel occupancy was already marginal (below 50%), the task force recommended denial of a proposed mega-resort that would do damage to the fragile environment. Since the report was issued, this proposal has been refused by official local action.

An excellent example of effective destination planning is the plan for Viborg County, Denmark (Munk 1991). The physical plan is described as a comprehensive land use and area plan that includes: directive on urban development patterns, infrastructure, and protection of wetlands and natural resources. The plan resulted from collaboration among the County Council, mayors of municipalities, and tourist association representatives. Essentials of the plan also include product development, marketing and information, education, public planning and administration, and organization and economy. The plan is integrated with plans of the Danish Tourist Board. Another worthy example of destination planning in Denmark is the plan for the region of Fyn (Thybo 1991).
Conclusions on Destination Tourism Planning

Comparatively recent is the proliferation of destination tourism planning. Now there is greater sensitivity to visitor capacity management, integration of tourism with the local society and economy, and protection of natural and cultural resources as foundations for more and better traveler experiences. New organizational mechanisms that foster collaboration on planning are appearing. More areas are seeing the value of planning that utilizes input from local citizens as well as planning specialists and consultants.

SITE SCALE

Perhaps the greatest change emerging at the site scale is a new design paradigm that includes a combination of professional expertise and greater insight into social, behavioral, economic and environmental aspects of each tourism project (Motloch 1991). This change implies less design elitism and more public participation in the design process. There is greater recognition that each site design and development is part of an environmental whole rather than an isolated entity. Certainly, the special talent and experience of professional designers is as essential as ever. But, the enduring test of a design is not merely a designer-client agreement but rather a satisfying and valuable experience by the visitor.

Critical to this new approach to design at the site scale is new awareness of place and placemaking. Each place has its own characteristics that provide a special foundation for development requiring protection of assets and unique design rather than thoughtless and uniform modification of land resources. From this design approach new attractions and other tourism developments are being established that are endemic to place. This principle of local uniqueness creates development that is more competitive than a homogenized tourism landscape.

Another new design principle involves eco-design ethics. The burgeoning market interest in natural resource features is now requiring much greater design and management sensitivity to the environment. This new approach is not mere altruism—it is good tourism economics. For example, the collaboration between
altruism—it is good tourism economics. For example, the collaboration between owner and architect for Maho Bay Camps, U.S. Virgin Islands, has produced a popular, profitable and environmentally sound facility (Leccese 1992). The owner-developer argues that it is more profitable to work with nature than against it and that when well-designed and managed, the environment can be a valuable marketing tool (Selengut 1992).

An increasingly important design trend is greater involvement of those impacted by new development. In British Columbia, Canada, a "Co-Design Approach" (Callaway et al. 1990) has been applied to coastal planning. Several focus groups identified specific themes that led to design principles:

--use of natural landscaping with indigenous species;
--a marine architectural theme; and
--walkways to connect downtown with waterfront.

Artists then interpreted these into graphics, followed by specific plans for tourism that are likely to be implemented.

The Western Australian Tourism Commission (n.d.) has published Public Involvement in Tourism Development: What Does it Mean for the Developer? This guide states that all tourism developers have the obligation of letting the public know about plans by means of open houses, workshops, community liaison, and media releases.

Greater collaborative design and planning among professionals and many involved parties is taking place. An example is the Victoria & Alfred Waterfront, Cape Town, South Africa (Victoria 1991, 1992). Hotel investors, civic officials, architects, planners and citizen groups have collaborated on major waterfront redevelopment for both local citizens and visitors. Of the first phase investment (R63 million) R35 million has been spent in infrastructure alone--roads, water supply, waste drainage, landscaping, and relocation of nonconforming structures. These plans have received many honors and awards for their innovative approach.

Greater public-private planning between tourism interests and national
park administrators is taking place. An example is the site planning project for Orange Valley Resort, Antigua (Orange Valley 1991). The focus is on a resort complex but collaboration on plans for an adjacent national park is an important element of the project. Proposed for the national park are three zones: natural reserve, recreation zone, and a development zone (272 acres, 12 percent of total). The master plan objective is to create a world-class resort that is fully integrated into Antiguan way of life at the same time that it provides for visitors and adds to the economy. The plan concentrates buildings and facilities on "hardened" sites and manages rare and fragile environmental assets for long-range resource protection.

Conclusions on Site Scale Planning

The major change in site scale planning and development is greater integration with the physical, political and social setting. Local citizens and governmental agencies are now beginning to cooperate with owners and designers in the creation of plans. Better design is demonstrating that tourism development and environmentalism are compatible, even essential to each other. There is a growing trend toward more localized, small scale and slow-paced development rather than externally imposed, large-scale and high-impact development. The special qualities of places are being protected as new site designs are prepared for tourist facilities, services and attractions.

CONCLUSIONS

The traditional tourism archetype of promotion as the sole key to development is now being modified by many forms of planning. Modern planning has broken away from the traditionally narrow image of elitest, dictatorial, and insensitive legal planning and has moved toward the concept of participatory goal-setting and strategic planning as a process. Nations, provinces and states are increasingly engaged in regional planning for greater overall good. Communities, as never before, are coordinating their tourism planning with
design and planning for facilities and services is being modified with new concepts integrated with surrounding social and environmental factors.

These changes in planning, even though not universal, are a significant break from the past. For the first time in history they show that tourism developers must recognize several goals in addition to improved economy. Certainly, employment, wages, income and increased tax revenues will continue to motivate tourism development. But, the new interest in planning suggests that three other goals are equally important: increased visitor satisfactions, integration with existing local social and economic life, and protection and better utilization of basic natural and cultural resources.

Many challenges remain. Greater business success and economic impact are directly dependent upon stronger understanding of traveler's attitudes and preferences; greater sensitivity to all local social and economic impacts; increased realization and action to clean up and protect natural and cultural resources; new multidisciplinary educational programs; much more aggressive professional design and planning activity in the field of tourism; and a major shift from myopic to broad-scale understanding and practices by tourism investors and developers.

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TABLE 1
WEIGHTING OF RESOURCE FACTORS

Because the influence of factors varies, a differential weighting was assigned for aggregating computer maps.

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<thead>
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<th>FOR NAT. RES. DEVELOPMENT</th>
<th>FOR CULT. RES. DEVELOPMENT</th>
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FIGURE 1. Process for computer overlays. By means of a computer GIS (Geographic Information System) program, two series of map overlays were added, producing two composite maps.

FIGURE 2. Zones Based on Natural Resources. From the composite map based on natural resources, several zones of greatest potential for tourism development were interpreted. Within these zones, leaders can stimulate attraction development to meet market demand for activities related to natural resources.

FIGURE 3. Zones Based on Cultural Resources. These zones represent interpretation of the cultural resource composite map. These zones have potential for new attraction development to meet market demand for activities related to cultural resources.
FIGURE 4. Combined Zones of Potential. Overall tourism potential is revealed by adding together Figures 2 and 3. The darkest tone represents areas rich in both natural and cultural foundations for expanded tourism development to meet a wide range of travel market demand.
Figure 1. Computer Overlay Mapping Process

Figure 2. Zones Based on Natural Resources
Figure 3. Zones based on cultural resources.

Figure 4. Overlay of zones based on natural and cultural resources.
Dear Ms. Grant:

Thank you for passing on the manuscript questions from Wiley. My response to these is as follows:

P 20     Grenon should be Frenon
P 14     the Potential should be Its Potential
P 20     Clive Callaway and Sara Kipp
          Go, Frank M., David Milne, and Lorne J. R. Whittles
P 21     Jacsman, Janos, Rene Ch. Schilter, and Willy A. Schmid
          Kennedy, Ian, ed. (delete et al.)
          Koth, Barbara, Glenn Kraeg, and John Sem
P 17,22  Yes, Alfred is correct

I trust that these corrections will provide the information needed.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Clare A. Gunn, Professor Emeritus

Vicki Grant
Meeting Makers
50 George Street
Glasgow G1 1QE
Scotland, UK
May 13, 1994