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Weaving the Future of Asian City Tourism:
Drivers and Implications

Thesis submitted by
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Statement of the Contribution of Others

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I embarked on my doctoral study in the middle of 2013, the same year that provided me with vivid tastes of city experiences. The first half of the year I lived and worked in Bangkok. After a return to my home city of Hong Kong, I moved to Cairns for pursuing the doctoral degree. It was an amazing year of coming across three different cities with widely divergent cultures, people, food and living environment. I was born and brought up in Hong Kong which has always been a cosmopolitan city with everything. I have become so familiar with my hometown even without being aware of why it is prosperous. In the wake of living, working and studying in Bangkok and Cairns, I have realized how amazingly heterogeneous yet homogenous cities are. I found myself intrigued by cities – places full of hustle and bustle, serving tremendous functions, people coming from all over the world, offering dazzling innovation and dynamics. More importantly, I was blessed to work with some amazing individuals and had the opportunity to be in touch with key public and private sectors in few cities. These experiences set the foundation for my interest in understanding how tourism fits in cities now, as well as in the future of cities.

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Abstract

The principal aim of this thesis is to explore the future of Asian city tourism. Cities have become popular tourism destinations and have been gaining ground in scholarly research. Limited theoretical grounding about tourism functions in cities sparked this investigation. The aims are two-fold: identifying the major drivers shaping the tourism future of Asian cities; and building a conceptual model steering the future of Asian cities. The pragmatism paradigm best suits this investigation due to the complex nature of cities and the flexibility in research techniques that the paradigm provides.

Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the research domain. This chapter covers an overview of literature on cities and tourism, the significance of city tourism, shortcomings of existing scholarly literature, and definitions of key terminology. Taking a forward-looking perspective, the key drivers shaping the future of Asian city tourism and the research methods used for futurology study are reported. Research opportunities informed by the knowledge gaps conclude the chapter. Chapter 2 showcases the theoretical background of the thesis. A critical assessment of general tourism destination development models, and contemporary tourism thinking about cities and tourism, set the scene for theoretical discourse. Two conceptual schemes, the time-space theory and quadruple bottom line of sustainability, are adopted to make sense of the future of city tourism.

Research methodology is delineated in Chapter 3. Guided by the pragmatism paradigm, mixed methods were utilized to achieve the aims. Case study and grounded theory were chosen as the research strategies. A quantitative study was utilized to strategically select the case study cities. A tourism city similarity matrix was proposed, given the absence of readily available methods for comparing cities. Adopting an approach of building research-informed objective and comprehensive measures, the matrix incorporated five dimensions measuring the performance of key tourism and hospitality sectors in tourism cities. These dimensions included the tourism, hotels, aviation, MICE, and gaming sectors, with a total of 17 attributes. Multidimensional scaling analysis was performed to identify the overall degree of similarity of cities. The Asian cities, Bangkok and Hong Kong were chosen as case study locales after performing three-rounds of analysis.

The qualitative study is highlighted in Chapters 4 and 5. In-depth interview and document analysis were the data collection and analysis methods. Twenty-eight interviews with the key informants from public and private sectors across the three case study cities were performed. Document analysis was used to reveal the historical background of the contexts and offer supplementary information to the interviews. Scholarly and grey literatures were both considered as valid and useful information.

With reference to the time-space theory, Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 considered Asian tourism cities' development from the past to the present, and from the present to the future respectively. Chapter 4 introduced the historical background, city evolution, urbanization and tourism development in the three case study locations. Interviewees' insights on the past drivers that shaped the present landscape of tourism cities were featured. Fifteen major drivers were identified. For the sake of logical presentation, the drivers were subsumed into the STEEP analysis, including social, technological, economic, environmental and political categories. Political and social drivers were seen as the two cardinal drivers according to interviewees. Research findings demonstrated a strong tie to the time-space theory. Following the footprint of time, tourism cities offered geographical centrality in terms of resources and activities. The historical past served as important building block for the development of tourism cities in the present and the future.

Chapter 5 explored the present drivers that may shape the future. The interview-informed drivers were framed under the quadruple bottom line of sustainability. Nativism and human resources are anticipated to drive a socially sustainable future. Infrastructure is vital for economic sustainability, while liveability is prominent in achieving environmental sustainability. The interviews also revealed that upholding legitimacy is profoundly important in ensuring governance sustainability. This research reveals a new pattern of tourism cities. Asian tourism cities have gradually emerged as strategic nodes for the new types of operations: the findings note the prominence of cross-border economic dynamics and cities gaining visibility as individual entities.

The concluding chapter, Chapter 6, provides a synthesis of the entire thesis. A conceptual model was built to showcase the interplay of the two conceptual schemes in Asian cities' tourism future. This model weaved together the research findings, the conceptual schemes, critical evaluation of destination development models and contemporary

thinking on city and tourism. The chapter also underscores the theoretical significance and limitations of this research, and makes recommendations for future studies.

Research Outputs from Thesis

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

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1.1 Introduction

This PhD thesis is principally concerned with the major driving forces involved in creating a sustainable future for tourism cities. In particular, the investigation is oriented toward Asian tourism cities. The locations studied are Asian cities in general, Bangkok and Hong Kong. The research employs the time-space theory and quadruple bottom line of sustainability as conceptual schemes in making sense of the future of tourism cities. There are three highlights of the thesis: the work seeks to (1) develop a tourism city similarity matrix; (2) identify the key drivers shaping tourism cities from the past to

present and from the present to future; and (3) integrate the two conceptual schemes and findings by building a conceptual model.

Chapter 1 commences with introducing cities as important outlets for tourism activities. The significance of the research domain is then explained as a topic of growing importance. The shortcomings of academic city tourism research are outlined. Aiming to build a common ground of understanding throughout the entire thesis, definitions of key terminologies are clarified. With a forward looking focus, a review of the literature is presented to reveal the major driving forces which apply to the urban context. The drivers are framed under the five categories: social, economic, environmental, technological and political. An introduction to futurology research methods in academic studies is reported. The last section considers the problem statements, showcasing how the knowledge gaps in existing literature inspire this thesis.

1.2 Cities as Places for Tourism

Cities, as embodiments of proximity, prosperity, density and diversity, have long been places for tourism activity. As locations where people and economic activities aggregate in defined areas, cities offer opportunities for the production and consumption of goods and services including tourism (Page, 1997). This opens an extensive arena for a large number of social, cultural and economic pursuits for urban and mobile populations.

Tourism has emerged as a major sector in the economy in many cities and can be analysed from the perspectives of demand and supply. In terms of the demand side, people have higher expendable incomes, and greater discretionary leisure time and many are searching for a better work-life-balance. Combined, those forces have created a growing demand for tourism activity in cities (Holden, 2012; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). Cities facilitate the coexistence of diverse functions and cater for a wide variety of tourists with a large range of motives (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). As the epicentre of cultural, social, political and economic activity, cities are easy to reach and have a lot to offer tourists. As destinations, cities provide flexibility for tourists to find accommodation in any price range and for a wide range of leisure options. Tourists also seek vibrant and rewarding experiences, including but not limited to popular culture, arts, entertainment, and heritage sites unique to cities. The concentration of economic activity

also attracts business tourists, for example delegates to conventions and exhibitions. As for the supply side, cities with sophisticated infrastructure and amenities boost their attractiveness as destinations. Tourism is recognized as a profit generator, assists urban revitalization and can generate pride in the local community (Pearce, 2001).

The city environment has emerged as an area of interest for many researchers (e.g., Pacione, 2003; Van Kamp, Leidelmeijer, Marsman, & de Hollander, 2003). The economic, social and cultural importance of cities is growing. In 1950, one-third of the world's population lived in cities, whereas in 2012 half of the global population lived in cities (United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2013). The level of urbanization will grow to six billion people, or two-third of the entire world's population, by 2050. High levels of urbanization offer opportunities for many forms of economic activities.

Cities began to emerge as major tourism destinations from the early 20th century due to the variety of activities they offer (World Tourism Organization, UNWTO, 2012). Since 2009, tourists' spending in cities has increased more than as twice as fast as global GDP, giving a clear indication that city tourism is a barometer of the tourism industry around the globe (Wong, 2013). Many city governments are aware of the economic potential of this sunrise industry of substantial city tourism and have included the sector into their broader economic development strategy (Ashworth & Voodg, 1990). For some countries, tourism is a significant sector, accounting for a significant proportion of earnings and direct employment in the national economy. For example, Macau recorded a US\$19,256 billion direct contribution from the industry and 46.7% of the overall GDP in the same financial year (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2013a). Tourism in Macau generated 177,000 jobs which make up 51% of the total employment in the city.

1.3 Why City Tourism Matters

City tourism together with rapid urbanization transforms the face of the Asian region, as well as the lives of the inhabitants, industry players, city planners and public sectors in multiple ways and at an unprecedented pace. Driven by the technological advancements and higher disposable income, tourism encompassing large amounts of business travel and socially-motivated leisure travel is a quintessentially modern phenomenon. The long-term growth of this industry looks set to continue for the conceivable future. A point

to note is that the costs of the tourism industry imposed on the both natural and social ecological systems should not outweigh the benefits it brings in many other aspects. If costs outweigh benefits, it is very likely that the growth will be stagnant. More important, such costs are not only borne by an individual city. For example, Gleick (1987) highlighted the butterfly effect, which identified the view that a tiny input difference, triggers tremendous difference in output. Some costs can create consequential influence to the nation, the region and the globe.

In Asia, much city infrastructure has been built in recent times or will be built in the next 20 years. It took Europe over five decades to urbanize half of its citizens, while in Asia this change has happened in the past 10 years (World Bank, 2015a). The unprecedented pace of change is worthy of research attention, particularly in terms of understanding tourism as part of the entire system. Once cities are built, the urban form and land use patterns are locked in for generations. A large amount of money is required to undo detrimental decisions, not to mention the irreversible impacts created to the planet. The long-lasting effects on the lives of hundreds of millions of urban inhabitants do matter.

The agglomeration effect of cities reduces the cost of service provision and movement of goods, as well as allowing the exchanges of knowledge and ideas among entrepreneurs (World Bank, 2015a). Cities inherently result in a boost to productivity and economic growth. Tourism also brings economic prosperity to cities as revealed by the international tourism arrivals and receipts. Recognizing the fact that tourism is merely one of the many functions of cities, tourism development should not retard or jeopardize the overall balanced development of cities. Both public and private sectors provide the supply side of the tourism function of cities. Their decisions are influential yet important to the inclusive, responsible and sustainable development of cities in the long run.

The greatest increases in urbanization are likely to see more environmental degradation (Stern, 2004). Satterthwaite (2009) mentioned the close yet direct association on urban expansion, income growth and consumption of fossil fuels. Environmental and natural hazards are therefore at risk in the fast pace of city development. Land use and transportation decisions have long-term impacts on the environmental sustainability of cities (World Bank, 2015a). Poor decisions may increase susceptibility to pollution, flooding, landslides and other nature hazards. Low-lying cities are also vulnerable to climate related risks such as rising sea levels. For these reasons, city tourism

development is a vehicle serving as an economic, socio-cultural and environmental change agent. There is still considerable room for research efforts on the many topics connected to the growth of city tourism and future of city development.

1.4 Shortcoming of City Tourism Research

Studies on city tourism become all the more important as tourism activities have stepped up. Cities as tourism destinations, however, have received a disproportionately small amount of attention from tourism scholars. The following discussion focuses on the possible reasons contributing to the shortcomings found in city tourism research. The points also serve as issues guiding this thesis.

City tourism research was initially scattered but appeared to become more important in the 1980s. For example, when the industrial cities of Northern England were losing jobs on a large scale, the potential of tourism was perceived as an opportunity for the renaissance of such locations (English Tourist Board, 1980). City tourism was seen as an integrated development option orchestrating the intersection of people, place, consumption, mixed cultures, values, expectations and experiences (Edwards, Griffin, & Hayllar, 2008). The highly complex nature of the setting was due to its multifunctional natures serving multiusers (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). The pluralism of cities impedes scholars dissecting the cities' constituent (Law, 1996; Vanhove, 2012; Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Quantifying the economic benefits of tourism in cities poses another challenge, resulting in the difficulties in understanding the importance of city tourism research. Such forces have been important in limiting research activities.

Despite the fact that city tourism research was developed in the 1980s, disaggregating the tourist and non-tourist functions in a city was a challenge for researchers (Hall & Page, 2014). In understanding the importance of tourism, it is essential to standardize methodologies, given that analysing and interpreting longitudinal data are vital for research (Vandermeij, 1984). In the absence of the ready availability of appropriate data and the inaccessibility of relevant data sources, studies on city tourism have been constrained (Pearce, 2001; Mullins, 1992). Earlier, Vandermeij (1984) highlighted that city tourism was at that time among the most misunderstood and underestimated of all tourism topics. In addition, scholars' lack of the potential for city tourism research was a

difficulty in operationalizing studies because of vague and imprecise definitions of city tourism (Ashworth & Page, 2011). Edwards et al. (2008) simply noted that urban tourism is literally adding an adjective “urban” to the noun “tourism”. It merely locates an occurrence of an activity in a spatial context without offering a definition.

Ashworth (2003, p.143) observed that, “Those studying tourism neglected cities while those studying cities neglected tourism”. This single remark encapsulates the problem with city tourism studies. The investigation into tourism activities in cities remains a minor topic in the context that tourism has claimed to be an independent discipline and one of the streams in social science (Cohen & Kennedy, 2004; Tribe & Xiao, 2011; Zelfde, 1996; Bramwell, Henry, Jackson, Prat, Richards, & van der Straaten, 1996). Reviewing existing city focused research from a tourism perspective, Ashworth and Page (2011) commented on city tourism research that has emerged since the 1990s and identified eight sub-themes in the research domain. These research areas were: transport and infrastructure; marketing/ place imagery; management and planning; cultural agendas; impacts; sustainability; visitor perception and satisfaction; and urban regeneration. Arguably, those themes are not integrated. These sub-themes neither characterise the future drivers of city tourism nor provide a thoughtful analysis of the demand side simultaneously. Urban theorists have neglected the tourism phenomenon in cities despite the importance of the tourism function (Law, 1992; Selby, 2004a; Ashworth & Page, 2011). Arguably, tourism research has continued to have a fixation on the tourism lifecycle and regeneration (e.g., Wacquant, 2008; Deng, Huang, Rozelle, & Uchida, 2010; Pratt, 2009; Morgan & Ren, 2012; Pearsall, 2013). This debate has marginalized opportunities for a wider consideration of tourism as an element in the city lifecycle and development processes.

Debate on city tourism studies indicates a general lack of theoretical foundations. Compared to other social science fields, research in city tourism has a limited theoretical underpinning (Psatha, 2012). Jamal and Robinson (2009) proposed a rethink of many of the assumptions, models and frameworks currently in vogue within the wider perspective of tourism studies. They noted an emphasis on descriptions and cases rather than sophisticated theory and conceptual development. Most city tourism research also remains descriptive with the adoption of case study methods to illustrate different research agendas (e.g., Hoffman, Fainstein, & Judd, 2003; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003;

Rogerson, 2002; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Lawton & Page, 1997; Gotham, 2005). The isolated and ideographic nature of many of the case studies has hindered the replication of research activity from place to place and from time to time (Pearce, 1987). It also has limited contribution to greater theoretical or methodological understanding of city tourism (Hall & Page, 1999). The establishment of a coherent body of theories, concepts, and research methodologies is required to foster the advancement of knowledge. Ashworth (1992) called for comparable research towards a common understanding on the role of cities within tourism or tourism functions in cities. The current problem is that the case study method, as it has previously been applied, has been relatively ineffective in relating findings to wider issues or to a wider range of cities (Selby, 2004b). To produce value, the case study method needs to be linked to theory building and hypotheses testing (Flyvbjerg, 2006). As a result, current city tourism studies have been criticized as being descriptive without inspiring theoretical contributions.

Many city tourism studies draw conclusions from a constrained geographical perspective. For example, research on city tourism has generally had a European and Western cities focus (e.g. Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Taft, 2013; Walton, 2013; Bridaa, Meleddub, & Pulinac, 2012; Russo & Van Der Borg, 2002; Cooks, 2001; Cockerell, 1997). This has limited our understanding of the increasing importance of the Asian region despite its significant economic influence and booming population. Featuring the highest rate of the urbanization level amongst all regions in the globe, Asia experienced a 7% increase in urbanization during 2000-2010 and the figure will be up to 20.4% during 2010-2050 (United Nations, 2012). A total of 822 million people are forecasted to migrate into Asian cities by 2020. Eight out of the top ten of the worlds' most densely populated large cities are in South Asia (Asian Development Bank, 2012). Fuelled by rapid urbanization, the massive migration to cities and their surrounds may overwhelm the structure of cities. Research activity on city tourism in Asia is required to clarify the gap in knowledge.

1.5 Definitions of Terms

1.5.1 Tourism Cities

This section aims to define tourism cities inasmuch as it is a key terminology throughout the thesis. Cities vary in size, structure, spatial form, economy, availability of resources

and ecological impact. There is no uniform definition that captures the constitution of cities, given the divergence of realities of the urban setting. The concept of city is notoriously hard to define. A preliminary overview on how the dictionary, geographers, archaeologists, sociologists, the international organization and tourism scholars define cities is put forward.

The word, city, comes from Latin word *cīvitās* meaning community, state and citizenship via old French *cité*, capital city. According to the Oxford dictionary (2015), city is a large town created by charter and usually containing a cathedral in a United Kingdom context. By contrast, the United States interprets city as a municipal centre incorporated by the state or province. In the lens of geographers, a city exists by virtue of its contrast to countryside, though the two are mutually dependent. Countryside clearly provides raw materials to produce major commodities for consumption-oriented uses in city, as well as the production of rural landscapes and experiences (Tuan, 1971; Dahms, 1995; McCarthy, 2008). Cities in return administer and protect the countryside (Dean & Wickham, 1990; Tarlock, 1993). They do so by regulation which focuses on pollution risk minimization and biodiversity protection to achieve equitable efficiency.

Archaeologists view cities as the urban revolution (Childe, 1950). Cities are products of progressive change in the economic structure and social organization of communities, accompanied by dramatic increase in population size (Rich & Wallace-Hadrill, 1991; Childe, 1950). Not only the agglomeration and density of population but also the level of civilization constitutes the distinctive characters of the city as a form of settlement unit. Childe (1950) mentioned ten traits of the earliest cities and offered an advance with an early definition of city. Although the traits may be inadequate in explaining the variety of urban formations especially in the contemporary world, Childe's (1950) typology serves as a threshold to understand the rise of urbanism in the early human history. Following Childe (1950), the ten traits of the earliest cities are:

- Extensive and densely populated settlements in a restricted area
- Concentration of the social surplus and its appropriation by central authority such as military leaders, officials or priests
- Availability of agricultural and non-agricultural occupations
- Diversified social stratification

- Mark of civilization such as inventing systems of writing and numeral notation
- Elaboration of predictive sciences – arithmetic, geometry and astronomy
- Monumental public buildings and architecture, such as temples, palace and fortification
- Artistic expression
- Regular foreign trade
- Residence-based professions

Other views offer an elaboration on some of these traits. Sociologists basically characterized cities by the functions they serve. Lewandowski (1977) defines cities as clearly defined spaces possessed and controlled by human beings so as to reflect powers of reason, desire for convenience and order, aesthetic predilection for beauty and meaningfulness in the surroundings. Mumford (1961, p.547) emphasises purpose, noting that cities are “progressively reduced to a bundle of reflexes without self-starting autonomous goals”. Literally, the commonality of these two definitions highlights the multi-functions of a city setting. Such functions of cities may include ceremonial purpose, colonial port (particularly for colonized Asian cities), administrative centre, commercial centre, military use and some combinations of the above-mentioned. Cities can also imply social distinctions, where contrasts demarcate distinctions between the rulers and the ruled between the rich and the poor (Harvey, 2010). Gans (1968) and Stretton (1975) advocate the notion of social mixing as a means to achieve quality of life in cities, such as encouraging aesthetic diversity and raising aesthetic standards, nurturing the spirit of emulation, encouraging cultural cross-fertilization, increasing equality of opportunity, promoting social harmony, fostering individual and social maturity, improving the physical functioning of the city and its inhabitants, maintaining stable residential areas and reflecting the diversity of the urbanized modern world.

As for international organization, the United Nations reviewed the criteria of 105 countries in how they define cities. A hundred countries define cities by population size or population density, ranging from a minimum of 200 to 50,000 inhabitants. Around three-fifths of the countries went beyond population size as their sole urban criterion. A quarter specified the availability of urban infrastructure, for instance, paved streets, water supply, sewerage systems and electric lighting, and emphasized the significance of

economic characteristics. On the basis of the review, the United Nations defines cities as “an urban agglomeration as the built-up or densely populated area including the suburbs and continuously settled commuter areas, which may be smaller or larger than a metropolitan area” (United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2006, p.7). Small cities have less than 500,000 inhabitants while intermediate cities have between one to five million inhabitants. Given the rapid population growth in urban settings, megacities of more than 10 million inhabitants have been around since the 1950s while a new type of settlement beyond the megacity, the hyper city, has emerged with a population size of over 20 million people.

Tourism researchers interpret cities within the framework of Western models. Two seminal works in defining cities were developed by Ashworth and Tunbridge (1990) and Getz (1993). Ashworth and Tunbridge (1990) propose a terminology the tourist-historic city. It is not just an account of the old buildings or relics in an urban context. Indeed, a historic city is a district within a city where the patterns and functions are shaped by the legacy of the past. The longest continuous settlements for various stakeholders steer the present condition of cities. Usage of the term tourist in front of historic city is the acknowledgement of the rising yet important component of the cultural and entertainment function of cities. It implies a broader implication than welcoming tourists or performing tourism activities. Getz (1993) offers the term Tourism Business District (TBD). TBD describes the concentration and conjunction of visitors-oriented attractions and services located in the Central Business District (CBD) in an urban context. The concept features cities with: core attractions; such as heritage events, shopping and convention facilities; conventional CBD functions, such as government, offices and retail; and supporting services, for example, thoroughfares supporting the commuter, catering, accommodation and information. TBD emphasizes the predominance of the urban setting, with year-round orientation, completely cultural and purpose-built attractions, and the incorporation or separate development from the conventional CBD. Both the tourist-historic city and TBD notions highlight the repeated cooccurrence of tourism with other urban functions.

The present thesis concentrates on the interplay of tourism and cities and focuses the investigation on the supply side perspective. A synthesis of the corpus of definitions for the city from dictionaries, geographers, archaeologists, sociologists, international

organizations and tourism theorists, as in the above, results in the delineation of a tourism city according to the core criteria as below:

- Epicentre of the nation and region with economic, social and political significance;
- Agglomerations of a minimum of 1 million population;
- Growing number of residents in official forecasts;
- Tourism as one of the key engines of the economy (visitors' arrivals usually exceed several million)
- Consistent branding as a tourism city
- Important arena for traditional Central Business District, cultural and entertainment functions; and
- Availability of urban and tourism supporting infrastructure including but not limited to paved roads, water supply, sewerage system, illumination system, transportation network, international airport, attractions, catering and accommodation for tourists.

1.5.2 The Asian Region

In the entire thesis, the Asian region is defined according to the categorization of World Tourism Organization. The region covers three sub-regions, namely North-East Asia, South-east Asia and South Asia. North-East Asia includes China, Hong Kong, Japan, Republic of Korea, Macao, Mongolia and Taiwan. South-East Asia covers Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Vietnam, while South Asia includes Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The researcher emphasizes that all the discussions and findings presented in the remaining chapters refer to the big picture and macro-environment. Generic issues, trends, opportunities and challenges apply to the region or even to the rest of the globe but are not specific to any individual country. The influences of drivers to each country vary. The conclusion is thus conceived to be holistic instead of a country or sub-regional account.

1.5.3 Public Sector

In tourism, the public sector always refers to international, national or stated-based tourism organizations (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990). In this thesis, the public sector refers to the regional tourism organizations, such as Pacific Asia Travel Association, and local tourism-related government bodies. Centring on regional tourism organizations allows a more regional and specific investigation, given the gap in the literature on Asian cities tourism development. Further, this thesis focuses on local government, because it plays a fundamentally different role in tourism than the national level. Local government appears to demonstrate a clear focus on tourism policy and immediate planning initiatives instead of broad conceptual tourism issues (McKercher & Ritchie, 1997). Therefore, the supply orientation of regional tourism organizations and local tourism-related government bodies is considered a suitable lens for exploring the city tourism futures.

1.5.4 Private Sector

The private sector is generally recognized as a conglomerate of privately owned, funded or controlled entities (Raworth, Dhanarajan, & Wren-Lewis, 2008). Tourism is an industry dominated by the private sector with airline companies, tour operators, hotel management companies and attractions as examples of the numerous entities that make up its character (McKercher, 1993). This thesis concentrates on the lead players in the private sector, such as major hotel groups, lead tourism operators and theme parks, as their investment decisions significantly shape the city tourism future.

1.5.5 The Future

The future is commonly understood as a time dimension. There is no precise definition of the 'future time' perspective upon which scholars agree (Seijts, 1998). Trommsdorff (1983) deemed future as an extension of time perspective and coherence, whilst Prideaux (2013b, p.6) regarded the vision to the future as "the manner that today's decision maker deal with the problems of today". In this thesis, the future refers to the time period starting from the present and extending to the next 20 years. A restriction on a 20-year timeframe

is due to the availability of relevant tourism development projections and reports, such as the UNWTO tourism arrivals forecasts in 2030, produced by various tourism organizations. These reports serve as useful background information for the investigation of this thesis. The findings of this thesis help to offer a preliminary understanding on tourism development in the future.

1.6 Key Drivers Shaping Asian City Tourism Future

Drivers can be positive or negative. They can describe those forces that create change and thereby affect the market equilibrium point of supply and demand. While there is a large body of research on sustainable tourism development (e.g., Castellani & Sala, 2010; Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2011), its application in a city context is relatively new. Moving into the 21st century, the world is increasingly dominated by cities where ever-growing quantities of resources are being consumed (Prideaux, 2009). Many of the world's cities are also the world's greatest tourism destinations (UNWTO, 2012). Encouraging long-term city tourism development contributes to the well-being of dwellers, cities and tourists (van der Borg, 1992). However, not all past development has been within sustainable development guidelines. To achieve sustainable and resilient city tourism development in the long-run, it is important to understand the forces that are and will in the future drive development. Since tourism is closely-integrated with others sectors in the global economy, future tourism development cannot be divorced from the vast number of drivers that will shape the world of the future. In examining the drivers and externalities related to this research, three aspects must be considered:

- (1) No single driver or single or groups of externality will dominate the future and cities.
- (2) The impacts of individual drivers vary across regions, countries and cities.
- (3) The drivers can be mutually reinforcing or at cross-purposes.

These drivers and externalities are known yet unknown. They are known because they are well documented in both scholarly and grey literature. Meanwhile, they are unknown given that no one can affirm when exactly such externalities happen, the extent and level

of impact to the region or to the globe. Undoubtedly, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, the drivers and externalities shaping the future city tourism development are expounded in the following section. STEEP analysis is a well-known strategic management tool to categorize different drivers of change (Evans, Campbell & Stonehouse, 2003). It divides the macro environment that relates to the future of city tourism into five segments: social; technological; economic; environmental; and political. These drivers are the changing realities that influence the strategic context of the long-term tourism industry policies and development. The following discussion employs the STEEP framework to structure some of the key drivers of change that will likely shape the future of city tourism.

1.6.1 Social Drivers

Social changes and demographic shifts exert profound impact on all levels of social institutions (Dwyer, Edwards, Mistilis, Scott, Roman & Cooper, 2008). McRae (1995) stressed that demographic drivers are likely to be the most significant forces that will change the world. This section discusses the trends of social drivers and their implications for city tourism. The trends include longevity and the 'me' generation.

1.6.1.1 Longevity

The ageing population is the new demographic reality in most developed societies (Gore, 2013). The sheer size of the cohort is due to the significant increase in average lifespans. Over half of the babies born in developed countries after year 2000 are anticipated to live past the age of 100. In the United States babies who born in 2007 are expected to live four year longer than the projected average. According to the forecast of the United Nations (2013), some 250 million people will be aged 60 years and older in the world by 2050. The figure accounts for 21.2% of the total world's population, compared to merely 10% in 2000. Kinsella and Velkoff (2001) mentioned that Asia is one of the fastest growing regions with a triple increment for the ageing population. An ageing society is defined as a society with minimum 7% of its population aged 65 and older (United

Nations, 2013). China reached 7.6% in 2005, meaning one in every five seniors globally was Chinese (Flaherty, Liu, Ding, Dong, Ding, Li, & Xiao, 2007).

A number of reasons contribute to the increase in human average lifespans. Improvements in sanitation, nutrition and health care, as well as the introduction of antibiotics, vaccines and medicines, play significant roles. In addition, the rising education levels, literacy and the wide spread information and awareness of health care, have also made major impacts. Literature has documented the relationship between place of residence and health (e.g., Boehm, Franklin & King, 2014). It has been found that senior people living in urban contexts have significant longer lifespan than their rural counterparts due to better access to health care and wellness information and service (Griffin, 2015).

Longevity of the world population has affected all economic, social and tourism spheres. Some studies have researched the costs and economic consequences associated with this population trend, such as the pressures on public expense (e.g., Ezeh, Bongaarts, & Mberu, 2012) and its political significance (e.g., Harper, 2014). Tourism scholarly literature, featuring both the Western and Oriental populations, has highlighted the promising market size and potentials for tourism activities. Their tendency to travel, motivations, barriers, travel characteristics and behaviours have been popular research areas (e.g., Huang & Tsai, 2003; Lee, Tsai, Tsang, & Lo, 2012; Prayag, 2012; Alén, Losada, & Domínguez, 2016). Their flexibility in time is found to overcome the shortfall in filling the demand during low tourism season. Asian seniors have also changed their traditional mindset in bequeathing possessions to their offspring, demonstrating their willingness to spend on their own interests for leisure and tourism activities.

1.6.1.2 The Me Generation

Bolland and Lopes (2014, p.2) remarked, “*Time not only separates us in the continuum of being, but it also permanently marks us with a permanent tattoo*”. Different generations are marked by varying historical experiences and growing up in differing cultural and social environments. These differences explain the reason that every generation is distinct from each another. The millennial children of baby boomers born between 1980 and 2000 will be the future global leaders (Stein, 2013). This cohort is

known as Generation Y from the Western scholars' perspective, or is called the Post-80s and Post-90s generation in Asian researchers' view. Recently, this young cohort has been dubbed the Me Generation due to their characteristics (Stein, 2013). They were born and raised a time of peace in the world, being the first wave of people to enjoy a lifetime of exposure to the Internet and to enjoy economic achievements. With a population size of 80 million, this generation is indeed the biggest age group in American history. In China, this generation has witnessed China's gradual opening up and reaped the rewards of rapid economic growth, unlike their parents who suffered from turbulent political unrest. This cohort consists of approximately 300 million and the majority are the only children in the family because of the establishment of the One Child Policy in 1979 (Rosen, 2009). Foreign and Chinese media then gave attention to this generational cohort as the press mostly covered their unsavory traits such as self-centredness, cynicism and reliance (e.g., Lin, 2009; Wong, 2009). Despite millennials in each country being different, this generation somehow shares similar characteristics because of globalization, social media and the speed of change.

Social scientists started to research this underexplored generation. The ME Generation is armed with purchasing power. They are highly sociable, fame-obsessed, technology-savvy, and needs constant approval and entitlement (Lester, Forman & Loyd, 2006; Stein, 2013; Bilgihan, Peng, & Kandampully, 2014). To capture the needs of the Me Generation, tourism and travel businesses have to recognize their expectations. Millennials interact through a screen, including acquiring travel-related information, making reservation, posting photos on social media websites, and sharing travel experiences and reviews. They are economically robust, exerting higher spending than other generational cohorts (Bilgihan et al., 2014). As they have been brought up with numerous choices in the marketplace, they are less attentive to brand loyalty and are always seeking new experiences (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003). Comparing with other generations, they have been acculturated into a more materialistic consumer culture because of the proliferation of communication technologies. These reasons explain why this ME Generation is more likely to connect higher prices with improved quality, and are more motivated to trade up (Roberts & Manolis, 2000).

1.6.2 Technological Drivers

Information technology appeared in the lexicon of the English language in 1958 (Levitt & Whisler, 1958). Since then, the topic has become widely investigated and debated in many disciplines. Information technology is viewed as the single greatest dynamic changing the nature of the world. It has radical impacts in all areas, ranging from business management, operation, marketing and monitoring. Martha and Thomas (2013) described it is a competitive arsenal that drives business efficiency and effectiveness. The pervasive nature of technology also alters the dynamics of the tourism and hospitality industry. The following discussion centres on the perceived significant forces of technology that may steer the future of tourism, as the industry becomes smarter and adopts technology in its customer-orientation.

1.6.2.1 Being Smart

Speed plays a significant role in our tightly integrated global economy and in the planet-wide digital network. Wireless-Fidelity, WIFI in short, is seen as a radical and disruptive technology (Latzer, 2009). It has been a revolutionary piece of technology changing human life in all areas. In relation to tourism, information communication technologies (ICT) have been transforming tourism globally, largely because of the information intensity of the industry (Buhalis & O'Connor, 2005). Hardware development that includes massive processing capabilities allows computers to handle complex algorithms at constantly increasing speeds of computation. This enables tourism organizations to centralize ICT, controlling the core functions internally and outsourcing selected non-core functions to specialists. In turn, this enhances and improves the capability and flexibility of resources. ICT empowers tourists to customize and purchase tourism products. It supports the globalization of the industry via developing, management and distributing offerings worldwide.

ICT has been emerging into a new form as being smart. Smart describes technologies that rely on sensors, big data, open data and new ways of connectivity and exchange of information (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang, & Koo, 2015). The internets of Things, radio-frequency identification, and near field communication are examples of smart technology. This piece of technology has become a buzzword, enabling the emergence of smart

tourism. The key idea of smart destinations is the integration of ICT into physical infrastructure. Scholarly discussion in applying smart into tourism and city destinations is gaining grounds (e.g., Zhang, 2012; Wang, Li., & Li, 2013; Lopez de Avila, 2015). Smart tourism is defined as:

“Tourism supported by integrated efforts at a destination to collect and aggregate/harness data derived from physical infrastructure, social connections, government/organizational sources and human bodies/minds in combination with the use of advanced technologies to transform that data into on-site experiences and business value-propositions with a clear focus on efficiency, sustainability and experience enrichment.” (Gretzel et al., 2015, p.181)

Smart tourism has three layers: smart destinations; smart experiences; and smart business ecosystems. Smart destination refers to the building of infrastructure on state-of-the-art technology guaranteeing sustainable development. Associated facilities allow tourists to interact with and integrate into the surroundings, aiming to increase the quality of tourism experiences. For instance, the interactive bus shelters in Barcelona not only provide touristic information but also make available USB ports for charging mobile devices.

In addition to having a smart destination, offering smart experience refers to the convergence of ICT with tourism experience. It centres on using technology to enhance personalization, context-awareness and real-time monitoring. Wang et al. (2013) mentioned that market suppliers in the past are governed by a goods-dominant logic, while smart experience relates to service-dominant logic. Tourists become active participants in the creation of value-adding experiences via the mediation of smart technology. Uploading travel photos to social media sites with destination-related hashtags is an example.

Smart business ecosystems are the third component and refer to the business system that create and support the exchange of touristic resources. Buhalis and Amaranggana (2014) described smart businesses as characterised by dynamically interconnected stakeholders, digitalization of businesses and organizational agility. To achieve this, the public and private sectors' collaboration is necessary. Initiatives include more open mindsets and an emphasis on the technology- infrastructure.

Smart ICT is envisioned to comprehend tourists' experiences, allow tourists to acquire and retain knowledge, and successfully and quickly respond to new situation (Rudas & Fodor, 2008). The collective power of smart systems linked to tourism experiences, includes: ambient intelligence; context-aware systems; autonomous agents searching; and mining Web sources. They work together to produce augmented realities.

1.6.2.2 Customer-Facing Technology

Consumers nowadays are constantly connected to the internet. With the accelerating adoption of hand-held devices, consumers are no longer tethered to a desktop device for accessing information. This shift has fundamentally changed the business operating mechanism and behaviour of both organizations and consumers. Tourism and hospitality are not independent of this wave of change. The adoption of smart phones and social media sites has altered daily life allowing Internet-connected individuals to become linked in to numerous entertainment and information channels. There is much scholarly research on this topic, including adoption of web-based self-service technology (Lee, 2016), using smartphones during traveling (Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2016), and mobile payment (Andreev, Pliskin, & Rafaeli, 2012).

Along the same vein, the internet alters the way tourism and hospitality operators conduct business. In the past, technology has directed at offering the entirety of information needed to perform managerial tasks (Kirk & Pine, 1998). Technology was seen as tool in revenue management, financial analysis, interfacing systems between front and back office, point-of-sales networks and energy management systems. Coussement and Teague (2012) described this as management-oriented technology, serving as controlling and using information to develop, guide and create services to consumers. With the emergence of mobile technology, consumers are no longer passive information recipients. The mobile platforms have allowed them to read the information they want anytime and anywhere, permitting their direct desires and needs to be managed in real time. In this sense, technology in the industry is a user-defined experience. Technology thus has witnessed a transformation from the tradition management-oriented technology into the customer-oriented technology (Coussement & Teague, 2012).

Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004) proposed four building blocks of how customer-oriented technology co-creates value to customers: dialogue; access; risk; and transparency. In the era of mobile technology, consumers are free to choose when and where they want their dialogue to take place. Mobile devices enable consumers to access experiences, uncoupling them from direct ownership. Mobile technology also minimizes risk, given that consumers have autonomy to the selection of information and tools. Consumers have massive amounts of information available and enjoy the benefits of a new level of transparency. Tourism and hospitality operators are advised to be mindful and be prepared for this evolving trend.

1.6.3 Economic Drivers

Economic drivers are largely subject to the global dynamics that are pertinent to a broad economy at the regional and national level. It is generally agreed that the dynamic of the world economy is a barometer for international tourism demand. The increasing globalization and affordability to travel make travelling across borders easier. Globalization, meanwhile, inevitably entails risks and disruptions to the global economy, resulting in fluctuations in tourism demand. The following section reports several major economic factors that may create impacts on tourism. They are the rise of the Asian middle class and global integration of Asia.

1.6.3.1 The Rising Middle Class

The impact of the rise of the Asian middle class is being felt across the planet. Despite the great recession in 2008, consumer spending in Asia has surprisingly shown resilience, recording an approximate \$4.3 trillion in annual expenditures (Asian Development Bank, 2011). It is notable that lessons have been learnt from the European and American middle class consumers driving demand in the past 50 years (Kharas, 2011). The middle class is important because it is more sustainable than export-driven growth. This discerning segment also inclines to a broad range of choices and product differentiation, leading to value-adding in generic consumer markets. According to the figures of Asian Development Bank (2011), some 56% of the Asian population was considered as middle

class based on an absolute definition of per capita consumption of \$2–\$20 per day as of 2008. A point to note was that majority of the Asian middle class was in the low-end category, spending \$2-\$4 per day. These figures indicate that the group is highly vulnerable to slipping out of the label of middle class. Among the 145 countries, Asia took up a quarter of the world’s middle class (Kharas, 2011). The share is estimated to be double by 2020, suggesting a promising consumption power.

The massive pool constituting the Asian middle class not only drives the Asian economy but also the global economy. The rise of this segment played a key role during the global economic rebalancing and accelerated the world’s economic gravity to the Orient. The implication of the phenomenon goes beyond economic factors and extends to prominent social, political, and environmental changes (Anyon, 2014). To sustain a stable growth, it is essential for governments across the globe to implement middle class-friendly policies. Analysing characteristics of the Asian middle class, factors contributing to the growth in volume and the implications in full details are critical. This is of particularly importance in relation to the two giants of the region: China and India. By 2030, 70% of Chinese will become middle class spending nearly ten trillion per annum; while India will overtake United States and China in becoming the world’s largest group of middle class consumers (Kharas, 2011). The future prospect in these two nations is worthy of attention. For many scholars and practitioners, including, of course those who research city tourism.

1.6.3.2 Global Integration

In the second half of the 20th century, the world was facing numerous issues, such as post-war affairs, humanitarian law, environmental practices and international narcotics trafficking (Smith, 2003). Several nations had established formal organizations to rebuild the world order and structure their cooperation. The increased formalization of international structures accompanied the rise of the globalization. Globalization is not new, but its relatively recent acceleration draws the attention of researchers and practitioners. The acceleration of global integration is characterised by close ties in the global economy. There have been many catalysts, including lowering trade barriers, the opening and modernization of China and India, and revolutionary changes in

transportation, communications and information technology have been catalysts. All of these forces have had sweeping influences.

Worldwide nations have reached multilateral agreement and formulated blocs for economic collaboration at various levels. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade signed at the end of World War II was an early example (World Trade Organization, 1986). More recently significant interstate economic collaborations are the G20 and ASEAN Economic Community (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2016; Association of Southeast Asian nations, 2015). These entities incorporate both developed and emerging economies, demonstrating strategic importance and crucial importance in the global economy. This high-level coordination fosters globalization. Besides, the emergence of the Asian nations, particularly China and India, has contributed to rapid globalization (Gore, 2013). China opened its door to the world and has advocated more market-oriented policies since 1978. India has unlocked its vast potential through young entrepreneurs' innovation and technology, connecting the nation with the world. The rapid rise of the two giants has built the economic strength of the region.

The revolutionary advancement of transportation, communications and information technology are important contributors as well. All forms of contemporary transport, such as high speed rail and low-cost carriers, make travel faster and affordable (Button & Vega, 2012). The growth of international trade is a fundamental component of globalization. The advancement of telecommunication infrastructure allows businesses to grow and span beyond their own political boundaries. Nakamura (2013) described globalization as largely internet-driven. Due to the internet, knowledge and information is far-reaching, leading to the potential for the world scale convergence of values. Derudder, Hoyler, Taylor and Witlox (2012) suggested that the contemporary globalization has increasingly lessened the hierarchies and made global networks more horizontal. Scholarly literature has showcased the implications of global integration on governance (e.g., Dignam & Galanis, 2013), social justice (e.g., Moghadam, 2012) and environmentalist opposition (e.g., Kapur, 2015). These are all evidence of global integration.

The materialization of global integration in an urban context is applicable in world cities. Derudder et al. (2012, p.10) defined world cities:

World cities are bases of institutions capable of organizing vast regions of the world into an integrated world system. They might be mighty capitals and centres of wide-ranging inter-national political responsibilities. They might serve world-wide religious institutions. Or else they might function as global centres of learning and stores of knowledge. They obviously provide the infrastructure of world trade.

High degrees of commercial transactions and political influences are manifest in world city networks. World cities thus are emblematic spaces for global integration.

1.6.4 Environmental Drivers

Resource and energy consumption increase alongside the growth of human population. Academic research is not short of commentary calling for sustainable development, awareness of human impact to environments, and wise use of resources. Since natural resources are one of the sources of tourism experiences, the conservation of the environment particularly matters to the tourism and hospitality industry. The section below provides a discussion on some major environmental issues facing cities in relation to tourism development, climate change, and waste and pollution.

1.6.4.1 Climate Change

Climate change has emerged as an important contemporary global environmental and developmental issue facing the world. It has substantial impacts on tourism as the sector is climate dependent. Many tourism destinations are known for their pleasant climates, particularly resort destinations. Climate change issues have profound implications for tourism, namely tourists' holiday choices, geographic pattern of tourism demand, quantity and quality of flora and fauna, extinction of species, competitiveness and sustainability of destinations, and contribution of tourism to international development (Scott, Hall, & Gössling, 2012; Amelung & Nicholls, 2014). The global average surface temperature is expected to rise between 1.4 °C and 5.8°C from 1990 to 2100, according to varying forecasting techniques. Projections of global mean sea level suggest an increment of between 0.09 and 0.88 meters during the same period. The increased

frequency and intensity of extreme weather events are resultant consequences of such shifts in temperature and sea level (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2001).

Many of the world's largest cities are located in coastal areas. It is estimated that by 2025 over 75% of the world population will live within 100 kilometres of the coast (European Environment Agency, 2006). The world's 440,000 kilometres of coastline is a dynamic and complicated human-natural context which nurtures the interaction between anthropogenic activity and natural sub-systems (Fabbri, 1998). Cumulative urbanization, coastward migration and chaotic development in the coastal zone has created unique problems that have generated a multitude of negative impacts including destruction of marine life, degradation in bio-diversity, coastal erosion, and pollution, all of which threatens the potential for tourism development (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission, 2009). The situation is compounded by climate change and associated sea level rises and will present an unprecedented challenge to coastal cities throughout the 21st Century and beyond (Nicholls & Klein, 2005). Settlements in the coastal zone are particularly vulnerable to climate change and will be one of the first urban areas to be affected in terms of structure, operation, function and location. City infrastructure as well as human population situated in the coastal zone will be forced to adapt to these pressures (Queleennec, 1998). While a growing number of authors have identified climate change as a threat to tourism (e.g., Elsasser & Bürki, 2002; Becken, 2013), the literature has yet to consider in its full potential impact in the coastal zone and the need for adaptation.

Eighteen out of 20 of the largest cities in Asia are located in the coastal zone and are home to one-third of the world's urban population (United Nations Economic and Social Communication for Asia and the Pacific, 2008). Coastal cities in many developing nations including China and India have also begun to face serious competition between the needs of the tourism industry and other urban needs, particularly available land for local residents (UNWTO, 2011). Tourism scholars see climate change as a challenge; meanwhile, opportunity still exists for systematic, smart, strategic and sustainable tourism (Amelung, Nicholls, & Viner, 2007; Weaver, 2011; Becken, 2013). Dealing with the complexities of climate change and developing adaptive practices are essential for public and private sectors in all fields.

1.6.4.2 Waste and Pollution

The rapid growth of the global population is pressing against the boundaries of some natural resources and is producing large streams of waste. According to a recent report produced by the World Bank (2013), the current municipal solid waste generation is 1.3 billion tonnes per annum. The figure is expected to rise to 2.2 billion tonnes per year by 2025. In other words, a significant increment in per capita waste generation of urban inhabitants will grow from 1.2 to 1.42 kg per person per day in the next decade. Despite the averages varying considerably by city, region or country, the solid waste generation rate is highly correlated with economic development. The higher the economic development and urbanization level, the greater the amount of solid waste produced. The World Bank (2013) report further points out that the waste generation is because of the degree of industrialization, public habits, and local climate. Citizens living in highly industrialized and affluent cities have higher demands for and levels of consumption of goods and services, which correspondingly increases the amount of waste. Urban residents thus produce twice as much waste as rural dwellers. Waste generation by region showed that in the East Asia and the Pacific region, as well as in the Eastern and Central Asia, waste generation was above the world average. China, however, made up 70% of the East Asia and Pacific region total in terms of waste generation. The affluence of urban population is important to consider in the projection of waste generation. China indeed had disproportionately high urban waste as they have a large pool of poor rural populations that dilute the national figures.

Solid waste is an issue when it is associated with mishandling and irresponsible disposal practices. Scientists have utilized technology to transform municipal solid waste into useful end-products or resources, such as composting urban waste into rich and organic compost for agriculture use (Garcia-Gil, Plaza, Soler-Rovira, & Polo, 2000) and generation of biogas (Igoni, Ayotamuno, Eze, Ogaji, & Probert, 2008). The wide variety of substances, for example heavy metals, persistent organic toxins and other potential pollutants in municipal solid waste, limits the use of such residue as it can cause environmental pollution (Giusquiani, Pagliai, Gigliotti, Businelli, & Benetti, 1995).

The growing volume of electronic-waste is worth noting. Electronic-waste, or e-waste for short, refers to “*various forms of electronic equipment that have ceased to be of any value to their owners*” (Widmer, Oswald-Krapf, Sinha-Khetriwal, Schnellmann, & Böni,

2005, p.438). The use of electronic devices has proliferated in recent decades, so has their adequate disposal. The US Environmental Protection Agency estimates that around three quarters of the computers sold in the US are stockpiled in garages and closets, ending up in landfills, or exported to Asia (Greenpeace International, 2015). Electronic-waste comprises over 60% of metals that include high toxicity pollutants when burned or recycled in uncontrolled environments (Widmer et al., 2005). As most collected electronic-waste is not handled domestically, the e-waste management system does not function properly without bearing the responsibility for the cost and eliminating the toxic substances (Basel Action Network. Silicon Valley Toxics Coalition, 2002; Terazono, Murakami, Abe, Inanc, Moriguchi, Sakai, & Wong, 2006). It is a hazard to the environment, especially to the poor and vulnerable communities in Asia.

Waste and pollution are inseparable. Waste contains pollutants that are not discharged into the atmosphere. Agricultural and industrial chemicals, the leftover of World War II, were stored in the stockpiles and included unused nerve gas and munitions (Gore, 2013). These chemical compounds introduce toxin into the ground and waterways. Changing climatic conditions, rapidly increasing populations, the rapid pace of urbanization and persistent over-use of available resources have generated concerns of a pending global water crisis (World Water Council, 2000). The demand for water keeps rising while the quality continues to deteriorate. The access to clean drinking water and sanitation remains problematic in developing countries such as South Asia and Africa. Groundwater is by far the most readily available source of freshwater, followed by lakes, reservoirs, rivers and wetlands. High levels of exploitation of groundwater, limited knowledge of aquifer systems and ineffective monitoring activities, however, do pose issues in many developing countries (Alexander & West, 2011; Gore, 2013). In addition, water is important in the production of commodities. Some water-scarce countries import water to relieve the pressure on their domestic water supply. On a global scale, this still decreases water availability; and ultimately, water quality will be susceptible to long-term water scarcity. Importantly, over half of the world's major rivers are seriously polluted, leading to the degradation and poisoning of surrounding ecosystems and reduced livelihoods (Alcamo, Henrichs & Rosch, 2000; Alexander & West, 2011). Water pollution is a serious problem. Like many other environmental issues, further development of city tourism may be impeded by the need to manage water resources for local communities first.

Amid various type of pollution, ambient air pollution in urban context is a prevalent threat to cities and to tourism in cities. Of foremost concern is the health and well-being of urban dwellers. Evidences show that the air pollutants prevailing in the urban context cause morbidity, diminished pulmonary function and cardiovascular capacity, and even mortality (Schwartz & Dockery, 1992; Mage, Ozolins, Peterson, Webster, Orthofer, Vandeweerd, & Gwynne, 1996). Air pollution damages the material resources of cities, such as vegetation, art works for public display and buildings. Such problems are particularly severe in developing economies due to the lack of proper monitoring and control mechanism (Mage et al., 1996). For instance, 70% of the 360 cities in China did not meet the country's national ambient air quality standards according to the 2004 figures; three quarters of urban residents were exposed to unsuitable air condition, as required of inhabited areas (Shao, Tang, Zhang & Li, 2006). Urban agglomerations are major sources of regional and global atmospheric pollution and emission of greenhouse gases. The growing number of vehicles and use of coal as primary energy induces high levels of sulphur dioxide and total suspended particulates. Air pollution problems continue to intensify.

1.6.5 Political Drivers

Political factors are totally beyond the control of tourism industries and yet they have a massive impact on the supply and demand perspectives of destinations. From an internal perspective, political stability is a significant precondition for the prosperity of tourism. With a stable political base, policies can boost the opening up and positioning of destinations. Externally, conflicts between nations constrain tourism demand; in this way, the industry suffers from the political turmoils. Political drivers are likely to affect future city tourism in two ways, namely the world dynamic moving East, and conflicts and stability.

1.6.5.1 Moving East

The political equilibrium of the world is changing dramatically. The Industrial Revolution, which began in 1760 marked a turning point in human history, affecting

significant improvement to the productivity, economies, standard of livings, and many aspects of daily life (Weingast, 1995). Since then, Western Europe and the United States have dominated the world economy. Prior to the end of World War II, the United States had taken the global leadership role (Gore, 2013). The country has also exercised military, diplomatic and moral responsibility, for instance maintaining the stability of the international monetary system, periodic market crises, and world order (Obama, 2007). In recent decades, however, the leadership role of the United States has been declining. The global institutions established with the United States' leadership after World War II, such as the United Nations, World Bank and World Trade Organization, have, arguably, become less effective (Gore, 2013). Decisions made by these institutions require support from 85% of member nations. The United States has effective veto power over the decisions as the country alone has over 15% of the voting rights. These multilateral institutions have thus encountered challenges from developing countries regarding unequal rights.

Two major incidents in the recent decade accelerated the weakening power of the United States (The Economist, 2014). Ukraine received a guarantee from Russia and America about retaining Ukraine's territorial integrity in exchange of surrendering nuclear weapons in 1994. In 2013, the Russians broke the promise and took control of Ukraine's Crimea Peninsula. American merely threatened fierce sanctions over Russia's violation, causing the loss of credibility. Additionally, the economic crisis in 2007 induced a significant loss of confidence in the country's leadership. American dominance of the financial markets, mishandling the crisis, failing to keep economic imbalances in check, and exercise proper oversight of financial institutions were viewed as the causes (The Economist, 2013). America's heights of global dominance have been weakened. Meanwhile, China has emerged as a major global player due to its sustained high economic growth, expanding military capability and substantial population (Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre, 2008). China outperformed the United States as becoming the world's largest manufacturing nation in 2010 (Gore, 2013). In this respect, it brought to an end the leading role of the United States had played since 1900, the time when the United States first became the world's largest economy and a dominant global power.

Furthermore, China has taken an active role in building a network of alliances with several Asia Pacific countries. Asian Infrastructure and Investment Bank, a newly created multilateral bank headquartered in Beijing, was officially opened in January 2016 (The Asia Foundation, 2016). Having approximately 30 percent of the shares, China is the main shareholder and has the most votes. It gives China the space to play an influential soft power and push for infrastructural investments in the region. In 2015, China announced a plan for the opening up of the Silk Road reviving pancontinental land routes and developing maritime links (Holodny, 2015). The project aims to expand its commerce and influences in freight systems that were once dominated by European ships. This venture shows the ambition and engagement of China in regions across globe. A number of Asian countries, such as Malaysia, Myanmar, Vietnam and the Philippines, have moved to favour China in seeking protection. Such activity indicates that the centre of gravity in the global economy is shifting from West to East.

1.6.5.2 Conflict and Stability

Diplomatic disputes have been the source of profound issues and problems in the Asia Pacific. The region has witnessed problems of territorial delimitation, leading to substantial unresolved territorial disputes (Komissina & Kurtov, 2003). These unresolved territorial disputes and maritime claims have posed a challenge to the stability of the region and pose a real threat to activities such as tourism. The border disputes between China, Russia and the Central Asian Republics has been critical for several centuries. China, which has the dominant number of territorial claims, has pushed these territorial claims aggressively (The Economist, 2014). A handful of examples include seizing the Senkaku Islands, known as Dioyu Islands in China, with Japan, the claimed legal sovereignty over Taiwan, as well as the South China Seas disputes between Vietnam and Philippines (Komissina & Kurtov, 2003; Council Foreign Relations, 2016). Eight out of the 14 nations in the South Pacific, such as Fiji, Samoa, Tonga and Vanuatu, had tensions with China in relation to diplomatic, economic and cultural aspects (Shie, 2007). The rising Chinese involvement takes hold while the European and American interests are scaled back. Such disputes have induced bilateral tensions and sporadic conflicts between the concerned nations.

Tourism has a role in promoting the stability of the region. The concerned countries have attempted to deploy tourism in legitimizing control of disputed regions. For instance, Vietnam offered a special sovereignty cruise visiting the reefs and islands in the contested Spratly Islands (Gady, 2015). The underlying agenda was to arouse national pride and awareness of the sacred sovereignty of the nation. Meanwhile, China has also run cruise ship to the islands, claiming that these activities are purely for tourism purposes. Despite direct and indirect confrontations, the Chinese government offered substantial trade and aid contributions to several Asian Pacific countries, including military, medical, infrastructure and tourism, in order to strengthen its soft power. Some initiatives include boosting familiarity with Chinese goods and services, expanding student exchanges, rising business ties, encouraging the study of Mandarin, and paving the way for Chinese tourism. Such soft power, of which tourism is a part, has been viewed as successful as showing multilateral cooperation and bringing mutual benefits to concerned countries.

1.7 Research on Tourism Future

“Tomorrow is built today” is the mission statement of the World Future Society (2014). This statement points to the sense of urgency in envisioning the future. The capacity to recognise and deal with changes across a broad range of factors, and understand the way they interact is important. A quote from the founder of the World Future Society, Edward Cornish (2014), recognizes the significance of future research.

“We can do nothing to change the past, but we have enormous power to shape the future. Once we grasp that essential insight, we recognize our responsibility and capability for building our dreams of tomorrow and avoiding our nightmares. Of course, we feel abysmally ignorant of how to proceed, but as we join together, forming networks of human concern about the future, we will find the strength and wisdom needed to create a better future world.”

Thinking about the future is important to human history and has been since the end of World War II (Son, 2015). In the 1950s, European countries faced post-war problems and continued to reconstruct their war-torn continent (Masini, 1993; Bell, 1997). Academia mostly in Europe and USA proposed differing approaches to constitute a more

positive future for the interests of their countries. The endeavour to identify trends stressed the importance of forecasting possibilities and the long-term consequences of policies and actions (Masini, 2006). Early accounts of the future studies are attributed to social scientists mostly those with scholarly interests in the philosophical and sociological dimensions of future studies. Wilbert Moore (1966) analysed the aspirations prompting sociologists to project the future. Ossip Flechtheim (1966) firstly introduced the term futurology, acknowledging future study as a scientific branch of knowledge. His book *History and Futurology* details his ideas. Henry Winthrop (1968), an American sociologist, presented an evaluation of Western futures literature in the 1950s and 1960s. Bettina Huber and Wendell Bell (1971) related the emergence of future studies to the sociology of the future. Traditionally, future scholarly ideas have focused thoughts drawn from historical and social backgrounds, disciplines, specific events or regions, and paradigms.

A seminal work of future studies in the tourism field is a paper by Joseph van Doorn (1982) titled “Can futures research contribute to tourism policy?” The study examines the interrelationships between planning, policymaking and forecasting. It pre-dates the work of a handful of tourism scholars with the tourism future interest, such as Getz’s (1986) model in tourism planning, Haywood’s (1988) responsive tourism planning and Tekin’s (2004) animation plan for sport tourism. In relation to research itself, there is growing activity and interest highlighted by the following: tourism future research centres on tourist behaviour prediction (e.g., Weiermair & Mathies, 2004; Yeoman, Brass, & McMahon-Beattie, 2007; Michopoulou, Darcy, Ambrose, & Buhalis, 2015) and destination wise forecasting (AmorimVarum, Melo, Alvarenga, & Soeiro de Carvalho, 2011; Dwyer, Cvelbar, Edwards, & Mihalic, 2012). Recent work includes Tolkach, Chon and Xiao’s (2015) study on Asia Pacific tourism trends, and Gillovic and McIntosh’s (2015) paper on the future of accessible tourism. With the growing awareness in academia and the professional world of the role of tourism in the future world, a peer-reviewed academia journal titled *The Journal of Tourism Futures* was launched in 2015. Evidence shows that tourism futures research is coming of age.

Researching the future requires connecting science. It relies on empirical facts that are available from the past and the present. John McHale (1969), a well-known futurist, supported the stance. He said that the future orders the present and gives meaning to the

past. Masini (2006) echoed this viewpoint. Looking into the future is beyond the creation of beautifully conceived Utopias. The future is indeed chosen and built. Future studies seek to identify future consequences of present actions. Decision makers for destinations need valid information about the futures. Knowledge of such information with the associated possible implications and associated positive and negative change are essential to the creation of policies to promote desirable outcomes (Bengston, 2015). The methodological techniques used to research the future are critical so as to offer valid and reliable information. The following section introduces several common techniques for tourism future studies.

1.7.1 Quantitative Forecasting Methods

Quantitative forecasting methods are widely used in tourism demand forecasting. The aim of quantitative forecasting is to help decision makers in both public and private sectors to make the best possible decisions about the future. The methods primarily rely on the extrapolation of data and trends. These methods analyse the relationships between an outcome variable and influential factors. A basic assumption that the past is a prologue for the future is imposed. It assumes no significant change of the environment of an organization or region. Time series methods and causal econometric approaches are the two most popular quantitative forecasting methods used due to the simplicity in execution, low cost and power in verifying existing economic theories (Song, Gao & Lin, 2013). Not only academia but also industry professionals adopt quantitative forecasting methods to project tourism demand. For instance, the Public Policy Research Institute and The Hong Kong Polytechnic University introduced in 2007 the Hong Kong Tourism Demand Forecasting System which uses econometric modelling to forecast the tourism demand of Hong Kong (Hong Kong Tourism Demand Forecasting System, 2015). Quantitative forecasting models can project future trajectories by extrapolating historical data, although none of the approaches outperforms another one on all occasions (Song & Li, 2008). As the time horizon lengthens, these methods can fail to capture the complexity and rapidly changing externalities that induce future states of affairs.

1.7.2 Delphi Technique

The Delphi technique is a qualitative data collection method for future studies. It was firstly introduced by Olaf Helmer and Norman Dalkey in 1953 to obtain consensus from a group of experts on policy making (Schwarz, 2008). The process involves structured communication (Okoli & Pawlowski, 2004). Its stepwise processes involve individuals contributing information, some assessment of the group's judgement, and opportunities for individuals to revise their views; a certain degree of anonymity among the participant experts is maintained. The core aim of the Delphi Technique is to deal with particular problems of the future, especially highly complex ones. It is recommended that 10 to 18 experts make-up a Delphi panel. Group size does not matter but rather it is the group dynamics in reaching consensus among the experts that is of importance.

As tourism research has increased over the last three decades, the Delphi technique has become as an established and legitimate method (Donohoe & Needham, 2009). Such a method is relevant to tourism research because of its utility for consensus building, flexibility and a wide range of application to issues that are difficult to address with conventional surveys, and its strength is in informing the policy development process (Wright, 2006). Since the responses are anonymous, the problems associated with ego, domineering personalities and the halo effect are avoided (Moeller & Shafer, 1994). The technique also has drawbacks, including sensitivity to panel design and question clarity. It is susceptible to high attrition rates due to time commitments, difficulty in determining what constitutes sufficient consensus and the risk of specious consensus where expert panels conform to the median judgement (Taylor & Judd, 1994). A broad range of application of the technique is evident in various research areas in the tourism discipline. Murphy (1983) adopted the Delphi method to investigate events shaping the future of ecological tourism development. Liu's Delphi study (1988) consulted local experts about the future of tourism development to Hawaii for the next decade. Lee and King (2008) used the Delphi Technique to assess the potential of Taiwan's hot springs tourism.

1.7.3 Scenario Planning

Scenario planning has been gaining popularity among tourism scholars. This praxis-based method to assist in the future planning, aims to inform the behaviours and states

of affairs that might plausibly occur in the future and combine them into snapshots of the future (Schwarz, 2008). The essence of scenario planning is to cover different futures. The three approaches for establishing scenarios are known as La Prospective (Godet, 1986), Driving Forces, and Extreme Worlds (Goodwin & Wright, 2004). The aims of each method are the same but the processes differ. La Prospective is an early scenario methodology arising from the French nuclear power programme. It prioritises the impacts which arise from the analysis of relationships. Subjective descriptions of the perceived likelihoods of the current states of affairs that may evolve in the future are delineated. The Driving Forces and Extreme World approaches emphasise the priority of perceived impact arising from relationships. The Driving Forces approach focuses on the levels and importance of uncertainties. The Extreme World approach hinges on the viability of affairs by polarising future choices into extremely positive or negative outcomes. The latter two approaches are more commonly employed than La Prospective due to their more reliant and less subjective analyses (Moriarty, 2012).

Scenario planning is powerful in reducing complexity to a finite number of options (Yeoman, Tan, Mars, & Wouters, 2012). The scenario framework provides clear narratives of what the future may be. Individuals can easily relate to these stories, making this approach popular. The efficiency in communication is another merit of scenario planning. Scenario planning purports to promote sustainable practices through improved planning, revealing valuable knowledge and decision-making. Its application is extensive, servicing beyond the discipline of tourism and into other fields, for example, the World Economic Forum Scenarios for the Russian Federation, and the European Commission's Constrained Scenarios on Aviation and Emissions 2050. A strategic dialogue engaging over 350 public, private and academic leaders in 2012 resulted in three possible pathways for the future of Russian economy (World Economic Forum, 2013). In 2005, the European Commission produced scenarios with a focus relevant to planning in the aviation industry and climate models with a long term focus, until 2100 (Berghof & Schmitt, 2005). In contrast, academic research has taken a shortened view when employing the scenario planning technique. Willuweit and O'Sullivan (2013) investigated the scenario of urban water system planning with a timeframe lapsing the next 20 years. Arkema, Verutes, Wood, Clarke-Samuels, Rosado, Canto and Raries (2015) adopted a 15 years horizon in building the scenarios of coastal planning.

1.7.4 The Futures Wheel

The Futures Wheel is another qualitative methodological approach to capture expert knowledge for futures studies. It was firstly introduced by Glenn in 1971 for policy makers and private leaders to identify potential problems and opportunities for strategic planning (Glenn, 2003). The Futures Wheel is a hierarchical mind-map showing the possible events and their consequences flowing from each of those consequences. The relationship is displayed on a diagram resulting in a wheel-shaped hierarchy. Conventionally, the operationalization of the Futures Wheel approach is a brainstorming exercise about the impacts of the central theme (List, 2004). Based on what did happen, the wheel starts with the past making its way to the present and exploring the continuing trends about the future. The innermost ring relates to the most primary events and consequences. Sequentially, the secondary consequences are arranged in the second ring, with the tertiary consequences in the third ring.

This tool is powerful in presenting complex issues and relationships in a highly visual manner (Deal, 2002). The process of rolling the wheel helps to alert participants to the unforeseen effects of the past decisions by comparing what might have happened with what occurred (Benckendorff, 2007). Through the brainstorming exercise, the dynamic view of the phenomenon makes it particularly well-suited to sustainability research. The depth and contextual richness of information generated is another advantage. A key challenge is to maintain the sensitivity and clear boundaries among the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The Futures Wheel is particularly useful for:

- Thinking through possible impacts of current trends or potential future events;
- Organizing thoughts about future events or trends;
- Creating forecasts within alternative scenarios;
- Showing complex interrelationships;
- Displaying other futures research;
- Developing multi-concepts;
- Nurturing a futures-conscious perspective; and

- Aiding in group brainstorming (Glenn, 1994, p.2)

In comparison with the quantitative forecasting methods, the Delphi technique and scenario planning, the Futures Wheel has received the least attention among tourism academia. Benckendorff (2007) performed an exhaustive search of the tourism literature but surprisingly revealed no paper employing the Futures Wheel technique, despite the Futures Wheel tool being documented as being useful in constructing futures (Slaughter, 1987). Some applications have been noted in the education literature. Wagschal and Johnson (1986) advocated the tool for charting trends of global conditions from the view of school children. Salvadoria (1997) employed the tool to stimulate children's thinking about the future of city planning.

1.8 Problem Statements

A substantial review of the multi-facets of the literature pertaining to cities and the role of tourism can play in the future of cities, informing the problem statements for the present study. Cities are gaining grounds in the real world due to their massive populations and economic significance. The locales are profound for tourism functions as well. Several knowledge gaps have been identified in Section 1.3. They are:

- (1) Lack of research on many issues related to city and tourism;
- (2) A paucity of knowledge on many issues related to tourism activity in Asian cities;
- (3) Lack of an adequate theoretical foundation to evaluate city tourism;
- (4) Fragmented understanding of driving forces leading to future city tourism development.

In essence, the tourism literature does not provide a comprehensive theory on this topic. Where some of the forces driving future tourism development are known, many may not be. The opportunity to explore future studies techniques in tourism literature is also notable. Section 1.5 reports the major drivers exerting impacts on cities. These drivers have not been investigated at a deeper level, such as their strengths and relationships in tourism cities. An array of related issues has also arisen, including the roles of tourism

in cities, the impact of drivers on city and tourism planning, and the facilitation of city tourism with global integration. These issues have seldom been covered in tourism studies. Tourism, characterised as a multi-disciplinary field of study, can be understood as a branch or extension of knowledge from other disciplines. A blending of geography and tourism domains greatly advances existing tourism knowledge and opens up a nascent arena for the exploration of the future of city tourism.

The review of literature also informs the value of pursuing city tourism research within an Asian context. Cities in Asia have been evolving in a unique way from their Western counterparts. Western countries experienced radical growth since World War II (Law, 1996), whereas Asian cities evolved later due to the legacy of colonialism and complex political issues (Dwyer, 1991; Marcotullio, 2003). This opens up opportunities for research endeavours into the big picture of the outlook for city tourism in the future with Asia. This study responds to the problem statements, as well as extending current knowledge and understanding of the concepts and theories in the area of generic tourism futures.

CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

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2.1 Introduction

The background and literature review on city tourism and futures studies were discussed in Chapter 1. The discussion informs the value for future city tourism development investigation, especially an Asian regional focus. Chapter 2 introduces a theoretical discourse on city tourism. The chapter starts with an introduction to general tourism destination development models, pointing to their limited application in the urban context. An examination of contemporary tourism thinking relevant to city introduces issues surrounding scholarly works on city and tourism. To unpack these issues further, two conceptual schemes are presented; these schemes heavily underpin the entire thesis. They are the time-space theory and the quadruple bottom line of sustainable development. A philosophical framework, pragmatism, is then introduced to inform readers of the

epistemology of this investigation. At the end of this chapter, the research aims and the full structure of this thesis are outlined. A diagram will showcase the connection among the chapters.

2.2 General Tourism Destination Development Models

The purpose of this section is to offer a general overview of tourism destination development models. Three models are introduced: Doxey's Index of Tourist Irritation (Doxey, 1975); the Evolution of Destination Regions (Miossec, 1976); and Butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle (Butler, 1980). The section concludes with a discussion of the current state of knowledge on destination development, which builds to reveal potential areas of research.

2.2.1 Index of Tourist Irritation

The socio-cultural impact of tourism on destination development has for some time drawn the interest of scholars. George Doxey considered the interaction of hosts and guests from a theoretical perspective and proposed the Doxey's Irritation Index (Doxey, 1975), or Irridex in short, to describe the evolution of local attitudes to visitors. The central idea is to recognize the link between increased community irritation and continual tourism development. Locals modify their attitudes to visitors over time particularly with the increasing number of incoming tourists to destinations. Figure 2.1 depicts the four stages where the modification of attitudes takes place. The stages start from euphoria and conclude with antagonism, ranging from positive to negative feelings.

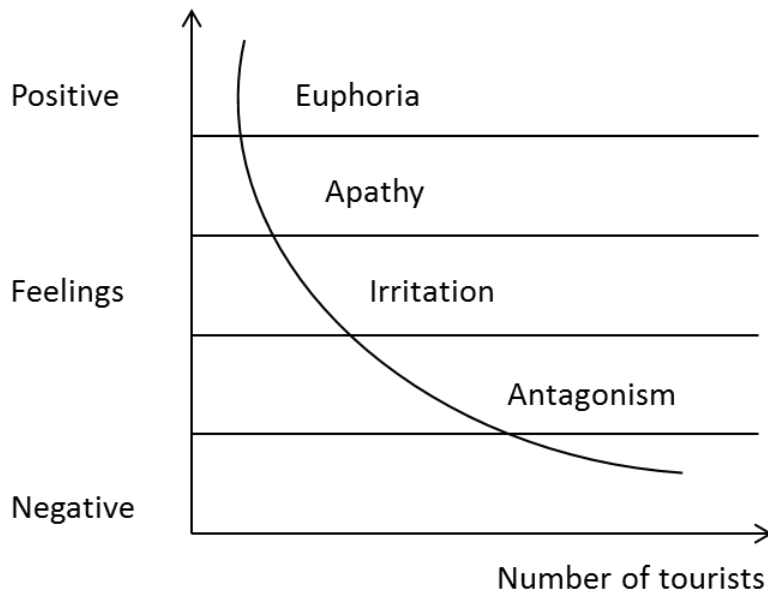


Figure 2.1 Doxey's irrindex model (Adapted from Doxey, 1975)

In the initial phase of tourism, tourism is seen as providing opportunities for local people. Both tourists and investors are welcome. Little planning or few control mechanisms are in place. Doxey described this stage as euphoria, pointing to a high level of positive attitudes of locals. The next stage is named apathy in which tourism activities are taken for granted. The interaction between hosts and guests becomes formal and is primarily based on commercial purposes. Tourism activities are well planned and marketing efforts are involved. Irritation is the third stage, indicating that saturation has been reached. Capacity is reached when visitors leave dissatisfied, especially in the peak season. At this point, locals have misgivings toward tourism development. The public sector attempts to control development via increasing infrastructure instead of limiting the growth. The final stage is antagonism. In this stage, locals perceive tourists as the core cause of all disruptions, such as increased crime and taxes. Tourists who become the scapegoats are harassed, cheated, ridiculed or even robbed (Iranlu, 2004). The travelling experience deteriorates due to the manifested irritations of the hosts. Planning is remedial and promotion is pursued to offset the declining reputation of destinations.

2.2.2 The Evolution of Destination Regions

The Miossec's model (1976) describes the structural evolution in time and space of tourist regions. The model is based on the resort context. Five distinct phases have been identified, describing the visibility of resorts, level of accessibility, tourists' behavior and locals' decision factors. Details of the evolution are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Miossec's model of tourism development (Adapted from Miossec, 1976)

Phases	Resorts	Transportation	Tourists' behaviour	The attitude of the local decision makers and of the host population
0	The area is unknown to tourists	The area is isolated. The transportation network is missing	Lack of interest and of knowledge	Oscillates between mirage and refusal
1	In the area a first resort appears (Trailblazing resort)	Opening the connections other areas	Vague local perception	Observation
2	Multiplying resorts	The development of the transportation network between resorts	Progress in the perception of the places and itinerary	The preoccupation for improving the infrastructure that serves the resorts
3	Organizing of vacation spaces in each resort; the beginning of the hierarchization and specialisation	Trips – different tourist circuits	Competition regarding space and segregation	Demonstrating the dualist effect of segregation
4	Hierarchic specialisation's saturation	Diverse system of connections	The disintegration of the space of perception; populating the area' saturation and crisis	Total tourism; planned development; measures for ecological protection

The model suggests tourism development in a holistic way. The changing behavior of tourists and locals are highly related to the increased number of resorts and expansion of the transport network (Afrodita, 2012). The local decision factors are thus the resultant effects. Miossec's model shows the dynamics of development of the resort region in time and space (Sharma, 2004). The model can be distinguished from Doxey's Irridex, since the decision makers, for instance the public sector, the domestic or foreign investors, are not explicated.

2.2.3 Tourist Area Life Cycle Model

Tourist areas are dynamic; they evolve and change over time (Butler, 2006). Many reasons lead to fluctuations in the popularity of tourist areas, including changing needs of visitors, gradual deterioration of tourism amenities, disappearance of the natural scenes, and changes in cultural attraction. Akin to any consumption products, tourist areas experience fluctuations in demand in a way that is similar to the product lifecycle. Butler (1980) introduced a conceptual framework depicting how tourist areas change over time and the number of visiting tourists follows an asymptotic curve. The model is known as the Tourist Area Life Cycle Model (as shown in Figure 2.2). Scholars have indicated that the model is an extension of the Doxey's Irridex (e.g., Horn & Simmons, 2002). Analogous to the Doxey's model, the development of this theory is largely based on the resort destination context.

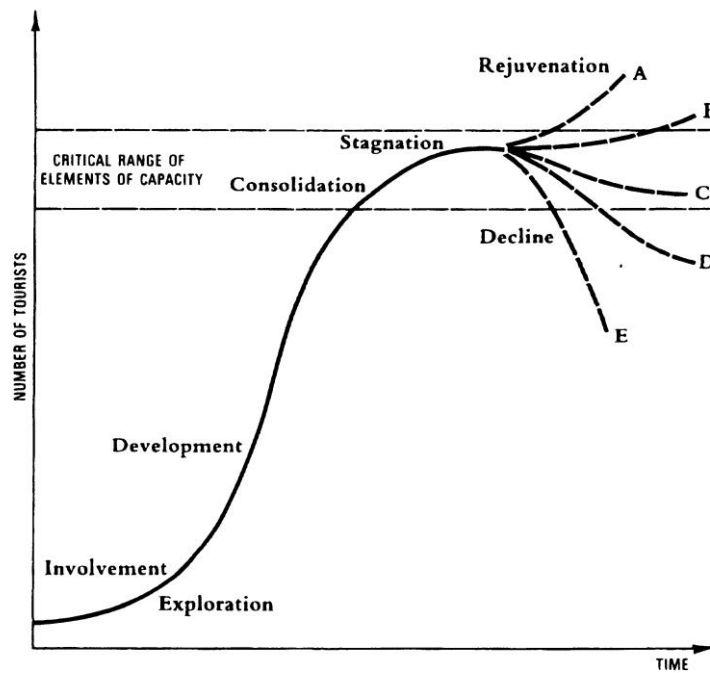


Figure 2.2 Tourist area life cycle model (Adapted from Butler, 1980)

According to Butler's theory, tourism areas go through five stages: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation and stagnation. In the exploration stage, small amount of tourists and irregular visitation patterns are evident. Limited specific facilities are provided to cater to the tourists' demand. The encounter between locals and tourists is high, and the interactions are seen as a significant attraction to tourists. Due to the small number of tourists, tourism activities bring minimal influence to local communities in terms of economic and social aspects. Along with the increasing number and frequency of visitors, some cohorts of local residents enter the involvement stage providing services and tourism products primarily or solely for tourists. Tourism activities are limited in defined areas while the encounters between locals and tourists remain high especially in tourist seasons. Marketing efforts, as well as the constructions and enhancement of tourism infrastructure, by the public sectors are anticipated.

The development stage is reached when the tourist market area is well defined. Heavy advertisement in tourist-generating markets shapes the strong demand. As for the tourism offerings, locally controlled facilities are replaced by larger and more updated facilities provided by external organizations. Tourism facilities become more sophisticated. The installation of international chain hotels is a typical example. The original natural and

cultural attractions are retained, and enhanced by the additional man-made or imported facilities. In this stage, a noticeable change of the physical appearance of the tourist area is expected. National planning and involvement in provision of facilities is commonly found. The decision may give way to tourists' preferences rather than the interests of locals. At peak tourism seasons, the number of tourists may exceed the total number of dwellers.

The next stage, consolidation stage, also concerns massive number of tourists, despite the decline in growth rate. The economy of the tourist area is highly dependent on tourism. The total number of tourists always exceeds the number of permanent residents. Marketing efforts are still thriving to extend the peak tourism season. Major franchises in the tourism industry emerge. Because of the surge of tourists, locals may express discontent about the deprivation and restrictions upon their activities. The objection is particularly from those who do not benefit from tourism.

The peak number of tourists has been reached when a tourist area enters the stage of stagnation. The physical limit of capacity has been reached or exceeded, resulting in noticeable environmental, social and economic problems. Natural and cultural attractions are likely to be substituted by imported artificial facilities. The resort image becomes divorced from its geographic surroundings. Frequent changes in ownership of the resort properties are anticipated. The well-established images lose their fashionability and the area largely depends on repeat visitation. From the exploration to the stagnation stage, an increase in either time or number of tourists implies a reduction in overall attractiveness after the critical capacity has been reached.

Several possibilities may develop prior to reaching the stagnation stage. The interpretations point to varying levels of rejuvenation and decline. Rejuvenation occurs only if there is a complete change in the attractions on which tourism is based. Two conventional tactics to accomplish the goal are building additional man-made attractions, or taking advantage of the untapped natural resources in the area. The success of the first of these tactics depends on whether the neighbouring and competing areas outperform the site. Uniqueness in tourism offerings is therefore the key to success. The latter strategy is to foster the appearance of new forms of recreation in order to boost the low season visitor numbers in the tourist area. The appreciation of natural resources allows the area to experience a year-round tourist industry. The two strategies require the

collective effort of both the public and private sectors of tourism. In contrast, the decline stage refers to the area being uncompetitive with emerging attractions or other tourist areas. The site faces a declining market spatially and numerically. It no longer appeals to vacationers. Instead, it better suits the needs of day trippers. Because of the decline in tourism demand, some tourism facilities would be replaced by non-tourism amenities.

2.2.4 The State of Knowledge

Tourism is widely regarded as a means of achieving development in destinations. World tourism has been seen as important in narrowing the economic gap between the developed and developing nations, as well as the acceleration of alleged economic and social development and progress (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Sharpley, 2008). These advantages justify the promotion of tourism in any area or region. Many countries or tourist areas regard tourism as a vital stimulus in their overall development plans and policies (Sharpley & Telfer, 2015). In particular, Telfer and Sharpley (2008) indicated that tourism has been seen as a vehicle for modernization and advancement. Not surprisingly, much tourism research explicates how it impacts on development (e.g., Carmichael, 1999; Wu & Pearce, 2014; Kim & Butler, 2015). Recent insights from the social exchange theory advocated by Ap (1992) also sheds light on this research area. Pearce (1989) and Preister (1989) suggested attribution theory and dependency theory respectively as theoretical bases for analysis. Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) however, pointed out the lack of detail in operationalizing these two theories, at this stage.

Much of the academic research has utilized the three models used in resort destination. Bulter (2006) identified and summarized the 49 major tourism life cycle studies from the period of 1981 to 2002. Most of research has been conducted in resort, water front, beaches and island destinations. Only one study in this set investigated an urban locale. Miossec's model has been adopted in the rural hinterland (e.g., Getz, 1999) and winery area (e.g., Dodd & Beverland, 2001). The employment of Doxey's Irridex has been restricted to rural regions (e.g., Mason & Cheyne, 2000) and small towns (e.g., Ryan & Montgomery, 1994). The work of Teo (1994), and Upchurch and Teivane (2000) has witnessed the recent adoption of the index in cities. It is evident that the application of destination developments models in cities is still in its infancy. In urban contexts,

tourism has been utilized as a means of mitigating the problems of industrial decline, particularly in many European cities. Tourism is a global phenomenon and a thriving demand is expected in the East. Hence, it is necessary to review how tourism influences the development in Asian cities.

It can be suggested that the three models overlook the changing reality of recent times. In the second half of the twentieth century, growth in international tourism is a good example of change taking place (Manolache & Serban, 2012). Rapid economic growth especially the Asian-tiger economies, advancement of transport and communication systems, and increasing volume of business or leisure travel foster the changes and open a new page for tourism. This is also considered as a major change in human history in terms of mobility. Changing land use, expansion on infrastructure, concentrating on cultural and historical heritage assets and hotel property development projects are examples of responses to recent changes. Thus, tourism itself is deemed as an agent of change. The manner in which tourism is an agent driving change may be through a range of forces, small events or mega incidents at national, regional or global levels. Public and private sectors at destinations act to acknowledge changes and step in to implement appropriate responses. These early tourism models, however, confine the destination development in tourism to issue of volume and degree of development without addressing the dynamics that frequently occur in the real world. Destinations would not naturally develop merely under these constrained conditions. An invisible hand of the public and private sectors orchestrates the operations behind the scene.

2.3 Contemporary Tourism Thinking About Cities

The purpose of this section is to detail some contemporary school of thoughts about tourism in a city context. This overview informs the current theoretical discourses and debates on cities enmeshed with tourism functions and activities. Three approaches are outlined: critical urban theory; mobility; and, sustainability in tourism. These three notions exhibit overlapping facets. The discussion aims to make sense of cities and tourism in cities in the contemporary world.

2.3.1 Critical Urban Theory

Critical urban theory generally refers to the writings of the leftist urban scholars, namely Henri Lefebvre, David Harvey, and Peter Marcuse, during the post-1968 period. In one of the major work by Lefebvre *The Production of Space* (1974), he described capitalist globalization as a contradictory integration, fragmentation and polarization of social spaces. Since then, further commentary has been undertaken among critical urban researchers (e.g., Dear & Scott, 1981; Saunders, 1986; Katznelson, 1993) building on Lefebvre's idea. In the recent decade, a conference for critical urbanists and planners was held in November 2008 in Berlin, in memory of Peter Marcuse's birth 80 years earlier in the same city. It was about the transformation of cities and urban space under contemporary capitalism, polarization among classes and sustainable urban formations. For an explicit expose of critical theory, the volume edited by Neil Brenner, Peter Marcuse and Margit Mayer, *Cities for People, Not for Profit* (Brenner, Marcuse & Mayer, 2009), revitalize debates about social justice and the city from a radical direction. The following section presents a brief introduction to critical urban theory.

2.3.1.1 Introducing Critical Urban Theory

Critical urban theory differs from the mainstream urban theory, the latter referring to the Chicago School of urban sociology, or those neoliberal forms of policy science. It rejects the inherited profit-driven and market-oriented forms of urban knowledge (Brenner, 2000). Instead, it focuses on criticism of the power, inequality, injustice and exploitation within and among cities. Such criticism is not merely negative criticism, but is also important for critically exposing the positive and the possibilities of change (Oakley, 2014). The criticism adopts the position of changing any wrongs and seeks to foster desirable needs. From the perspective of the proponents, critical urban theories are concerned with:

- Analysing the systemic, yet historically specific, intersections between the process relating to capitalism and urbanization
- Examining the changing balance of social forces, power relations, sociospatial inequalities and political-institutional arrangements that shape, and are in turn shaped by, the evolution of capitalist urbanization

- Exposing the marginalization, exclusions and injustices (whether of class, ethnicity, race, gender, sexuality, nationality or otherwise) that are inscribed and naturalized within existing urban configurations
- Deciphering the contradictions, crisis tendencies and lines of potential or actual conflict within contemporary cities, and on this basis,
- Demarcating and politicize the strategically essential possibilities for more progressive, socially just, emancipatory and sustainable formations of urban life (Brenner et al., 2009, p.179)

Under capitalism, cities function as strategic sites for a continuous commodification process. The production and consumption, internal socio-spatial organization, governance systems, and socio-political conflict have to be understood. The profit-oriented strategies show the intense competition among dominant, subordinate and marginalized social forces. Urban space is there, never permanently fixed but rather, is a continual process of relentless clashes of opposed social forces. In addition, strategies to commodify urban spaces often fail to productively satisfy social needs. The process is at the cost of considerable human suffering and massive environmental degradation. The conflicts and failures associated with capitalist urbanization lead to a dynamic processes of implosion-explosion (Lefebvre, 2003).

The pressing urban struggle of the 21st century has revitalised the revisiting of critical urban theory. Capitalism is a system with severe internal contradictions (Marcuse, 2009). Three ongoing and deep tensions have dramatically intensified the contradictions. They were:

1968 - The civil rights movement, the new left, the student protests, the Vietnam War

1990 - The crisis of existing socialism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union

2008 - Today's financial crisis

These incidents validated the critical urban theorists' claims regarding the destructiveness of the neoliberal forms of urbanization. Albeit differing in their severity and consequences, each crisis reflected the strengths and weaknesses of the established system. Indeed, the major function of critical urban theory is to evaluate both the merits and demerits of the systems, and inform potential strategies they may adopt.

2.3.1.2 The Right to The City

Critical urban theory follows with interest the ‘right to the city’, in theory and in practice. It shows the common nature of the demands, and aspirations of the majority of the people. The right to the city is a cry and a demand (Lefebvre, 1996). “The demand is of those who are excluded, the cry is of those who are alienated”, summarized Marcuse (2009, p.190). The demand comes from the most immediate needs that are not fulfilled, for example, the homeless, the hungry, and those persecuted due to racial, gender or religious grounds. The cry comes from the aspiration of those integrated into the system but who are oppressed in their social relationships for growth and creativity. Marcuse (2009) profiled a conventional class structure in cities, namely, the excluded, the working class, the small business people, the gentry, the capitalists, the establishment intelligentsia, and the politically powerful. In cities, choices have to be made. Under the capitalist structure, priority is always given to most of the capitalists, the gentry and the intelligentsia. From an economic perspective, cities under capitalism marginalize the underpaid and insecure members of the working class. Capitalism is thus the common enemy of the inferior and the right to the city should be their common cause. There is in fact a conflict among rights. Many critical urban theory advocates seek to recover the possibilities embedded or repressed within current conditions (Pinder, 2015). The key questions emerging are: Who is the most deeply affected? Who will lead the fight? Who will support whom and why? In the real world, deprivation of rights does not inherently lead to the support for the alienated. The threat of discontent and the fear of social unrest scare those at the top of the hierarchy, the elite and those in power. Meanwhile, the direction of reaction from those who are alienated is in opposition to this thinking. Marcuse (2009) critically reasoned such a phenomenon exists as a wedge between socialism and barbarism. It is a battle of ideologies and understanding grounded in material oppression.

The right to the city is not about individualistic rights. It is indeed a totality of rights in which “each of the parts is part of a single whole” (Marcuse, 2009, p.193). It is a moral claim that goes beyond the rights in a legal sense (Meagher, 2010). Informed by theory, critical urban theory also contributes to solutions in practice. A three-step critical planning practice is recommended – expose, propose and politicize. Expose is to analyse the fundamental causes of the problem. It involves the clarification and communication to those affected. Propose is about real action. Goal setting, as well as coming up with

actual proposals and strategies, is pursued to achieve the desired results. The final step, politicize, is to clarify the implications for political actions. It includes drawing attention to the strategies, intervention with the media, raising issues within the critical groups and academia, and other day-to-day policies. In short, critical urban theory helps in deepening the expose, formulating the propose, and demonstrating the needs to politicize.

2.3.2 Mobility

A wide range of geographical research characterizes the research of mobility. The investigation centres on the economic (e.g., Bosker, Brakman, Garretsen, & Schramm, 2012), demographic (e.g., Maralani, 2013), geopolitical and cultural dynamics (e.g., Wissink, & Hazelzet, 2012) of migration. The growing importance of mobility related research was reflected in the launch of a new journal, *Mobilities*, in 2006. It demonstrated a breadth of research areas ranging from corporeal movement, transportation and communications infrastructures, capitalist spatial restructuring, migration and immigration, diaspora, citizenship and transnationalism, to tourism activities (Hannam, Sheller, & Urry, 2006). To introduce the concept, the basic components of human mobility are detailed prior to introducing the emerging paradigm of ‘mobilities’ and later focusing on ‘cities and mobilities’.

2.3.2.1 Basic Components of Human Mobility

This section utilizes Cresswell’s (2010) classification of the basic components of human mobility. He noted that the three fundamental blocks of corporeal mobility are: movement; representation; and, practice. Movement is “*the raw material for the production of mobility*” (Cresswell, 2010, p.19). It is the way in which cities make possible the way and practice of physical movement aspects of cities. The transport planners’ efforts in mechanically aiding physical movement to make transport more efficient and less environmentally harmful, and their pursuits in critical flow analysis of airports and railway systems, are typical examples of mobility studies in the area of physical movement.

Representation regards how movement is coded to give shared meaning. Mobility is viewed as freedom, mode of movement, and even as being a threat (Cresswell, 2010). In the modernized Western world, citizens perceive mobility as a taken-for-granted human right. It is not the case for some countries on the other side of the globe. Immigrant mobility, to some extent, can be a threat. Even a simple form of mobility representation, walking, could be understood as conformity or rebellion in different contexts.

The last component is practice. It is “*enacted and experienced through the body*” (Cresswell, 2010, p.20). Commuting between two points can be different depending on how the body moves. Walking, driving, flying or sailing are mobile practices. Practice plays a critical role in constructing the social and cultural theory. It could be interpreted in narratives of morality, worthiness and aesthetics.

Cresswell (2010) further commented that the three blocks of mobility are political, given that they imply the production of power and relations of domination. The discussion however detailed each aspect on an individual basis without commenting on their interrelationships.

2.3.2.2 The New Mobilities Paradigm

Mobility, from an early account, was known as movement, migration and transport. Geographers interpreted mobility with closed spatial categories, such as societies, states, cities, neighbourhoods and regions (Giddens, 1984). This sub-discipline incorporated everything concerned with people on the move, ranging from dispersals, (Sauer, 1952), migration theory (Greenwood, 1985), daily mobility patterns (Pickup, 1988), to transport geography (Kenyon, Lyons, & Rafferty, 2002). Conventionally, distance and frequency of physical movement remained as the focus. Cresswell (2010) argued that the capacity of various aspects of mobility and making it powerfully political was yet to be explored. The situation changed in the 1970s (Gregory & Urry 1985) when a surge of interest in mobility in the social science field highlighted the nexus between the social aspects of different forms of transport. It also explains how humanities and social experiences can operate through distance.

Globalization and technology advancement generate the liquidity of modern society (Moscardo, Konovalov, Murphy, & McGehee, 2013). Because of these influences, the patterns of mobility blur the boundaries between tourism, work and leisure. These complex changes in social processes foster a recognition and attention to the concept of mobility. John Urry, a proponent of the new mobility paradigm, highlighted the endless streams of people, goods, information and ideas travelling around the world every day (Urry, 2000; Sheller & Urry, 2006; Larsen, Urry, & Axhausen, 2007). He emphasized movement at flux as opposite to the sedentarist and nomadic perspectives. The sedentarist theories assume that people are stable, finding specific places to stay for most of their lives and they develop a strong connection to this single place. Under the new mobility paradigm, people's identities are associated with social networks instead of places. In addition, according to the notion of traditional mobilities theory, movement occurred with one place pushing people out and another place pulling people in. In short, places still remained the centre. Alternatively, the new mobilities paradigm offers a broader perspective that goes beyond the spatially fixed terrains to encapsulate social elements and processes. It is based on the consideration of the increase in cross-border transactions and capabilities for enormous geographical mobility in the contemporary world. Sheller and Urry (2006, p.210) claimed that:

“Thus the new paradigm attempts to account for not only the quickening of liquidity within some realms but also the concomitant patterns of concentration that create zones of connectivity, centrality, and empowerment in some cases, and of disconnection, social exclusion, and inaudibility in other cases.”

This emerging paradigm suggests a range of questions, theories and methodologies rather than a reductive description of the social process. Tourism scholars have gained a growing interest in the new understanding on movement and have undertaken research endeavours on tourism mobilities. Coles and Hall (2006) stated that the paradigm no longer marginalizes tourism. It instead places tourism at the core of social and cultural life. Tourism is viewed as exotic, encountering practices outside normal everyday life. It becomes integral to a wider process of economic and political development process (Edensor, 2007; Hannam, Butler, & Paris, 2014). Recent lines of inquiry include examining the intersection of tourism mobilities and community well-being (e.g., Moscardo et al., 2013), the contribution of tourism to cross-border innovation systems

(e.g., Weidenfeld, 2013), and the contemporary lifestyle-led mobility (e.g., Cohen, Duncan, & Thulemark, 2015).

2.3.2.3 Cities and Mobilities

Making sense of mobilities in the urban setting is all about tempo. The pulse of city life not only drives its social, economic and infrastructural formations, but also the psychic forms of urban inhabitants. The onrushing impressions and multiplicity of social life set up a big contrast with small town or rural area (Frisby & Featherstone, 1997). Due to the richness of stimuli and the multiple mobilities of human, information and innovation movement, urban dwellers develop the personality of insensitivity. They are reserved, rational and detached. Moreover, the bustle of the city demands punctuality. The aggregation of significant amount of people with differentiated expertise is required to integrate their relations and activities into the dynamic and complex city organism. The whole urban structure would dissolve into an inextricable chaos without absolute punctuality in promises and services.

The modern city was perceived to threaten the stability of the rhythms of life (Smith & Hetherington, 2013). The overwhelming pace of life and the increasing economic rationalization reconfigure space, time and interaction. The amplification of social connections, networks and flows are profound. Cities, as mobilities of information, goods and people, form a node in larger-scale spatial and temporal patterns. Neal (2012) coined the term 'locality' in reference to the connectedness of cities. The shift brought about by technology is tremendous. Mobilities involve movements of images and information through local, national and global media (Sheller & Urry, 2006). The concept embraces one-to-one communications, as well as the many-to-many communications. Wood and Graham (2005) launched a discussion on differential mobility. It was defined as the exclusion of the population having no access to technology. People with high mobility can move freely, whereas people with slow mobility experience difficult movement or even blocked access. In other words, mobility exerts direct relationships with power. According to Gordon and de Souza e Silva (2011), the Internet is the platform on which location becomes the organizing logic of networked interactions. The physical location increasingly connects people with the information online. The digital and physical spaces,

as a consequence, are not separated from each other. Growing numbers of urban areas are embedded with wired or wireless networks connections. This is described as the net localities by Gordon and de Souza e Silva (2011).

As indicated in the previous discussion, urban citizens have higher mobility power compared with rural dwellers. A century ago, in the 1950s, the sociologist Georg Simmel stated that metropolitan citizens cannot go back to live in small cities (Frissen, Lammes, de Lange, de Mul, & Raessens, 2015). The immobile infrastructures in smaller areas limit the intermittent flow of people, information and image. The loss of power in those areas is a reality that makes readjustment difficult. In short, the spatial relations of mobility and immobility, the technological concerns about mobile information and communication technologies, as well as the infrastructures of security and surveillance, are all likely to be influenced by technologies. These ideas all need to be explored in the analysis of the development of Asian city tourism. In particular, the issues of mobility warrants special consideration is the analysis of the future of these cities.

2.3.3 Sustainability in Tourism

Interest in the nexus between sustainability and tourism sprang up in the late 1980s (Bramwell, 2015). It became a concern because of several streams of thought associated with the tourism phenomena (McCool, 2015). In the 1980s, tourism activities recorded a rapid growth and penetrated into a wide range of destinations, including those with low incomes and those with high biological diversity locations. To welcome massive international tourists, some developing countries put great effort to reconfiguring their destinations; these efforts caused unease. They encompassed displacing voluminous impoverished inhabitants with limited engagement and relocating massive materials, such as dams and transportation systems. The mode of development raised anxieties. The second thread was the acknowledgement of the financial impact brought by tourism and the potential of being an economic powerhouse. The quality of life, a social well-being indicator, was ignored and was by-passed with economics-based measures, namely gross domestic product, tourists' receipts and arrival numbers. The third thread was the irreversible negative consequences of tourism in the cultural and environmental degradation. Governance was the means through which consideration was given to the

rights of people affected by government decisions. Good governance need to be typified by the demands of transparency, accountability and inclusiveness.

These thoughts drew the attention of the United Nations. The association formed a World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987 and produced a report titled *Our Common Future* (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). The commission studied issues that dealt with development, for instance poverty, resources degradation and consumption, and larger scale environmental affairs. Since then, sustainable development has emerged as a much discussed topic. Planners, academia and activists began to consider sustainable tourism in their acts and research. Specifically in tourism research, a peer-reviewed journal, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, was launched in 1993. In 1995, the first world conference on sustainable tourism was held on the island of Lanzarote, Spain (The Charter for Sustainable Tourism, 2015). To understand the notion of sustainable tourism, the following section details the myths of sustainable tourism and the redefining of sustainable tourism.

2.3.3.1 Myths of Sustainable Tourism

Debates on sustainable tourism emerged during the 1980s. Indeed, the seeds of researching sustainable tourism were planted early. Prior to any proper definition of the term ‘sustainable tourism’ and any inkling of the problem being recognised, three myths were commonly discussed and interpreted as sustainable tourism: alternative forms of tourism; the domain of small businesses; and, problems with carrying capacity.

At first, sustainable tourism was understood as a notional form of tourism with reference to social justice and sensitivity to environmental impacts (Saarinen, 2006). Academia advocated the transformation in modes of production and consumption in the Western societies. Ecotourism (e.g., Mowforth & Munt, 1998) typified sustainable tourism. The concept was closely related to interacting with indigenous people and community-based tourism. Importantly, sustainable tourism and mass tourism were conceived as polar opposites (Clarke, 1997). Mass tourism was seen as being destructive. The negative social and environmental consequences were largely triggered by mass tourism at destinations (e.g., Wheeler, 1991; Valentine, 1993). Wheeler (1991) stressed the scale as the focal point, stating the preference of individual rather than group, specialist

operators instead of large firms, as well as indigenous accommodation to multi-national hotel chains. Alternative forms of tourism, emphasizing the hybrid environmental and social conscious products, were strongly advocated.

Carrying capacity was closely mentioned with regard to sustainable tourism. It referred to “the maximum number of people who can use a site without any unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without any unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by tourists” (Mathieson & Wall, 1982, p.21). The problem with the concept related to concerns about conceptualization and measurement of carrying capacity. Different locales have different combinations of settings and environments. It was hard to set a uniformed yet timely formula to measure carrying capacity. In addition, the central problem was the difficulty in setting benchmarks. An optimum was considered to be the ideal situation; and a maximum was the absolute limit. The term carrying capacity became conceptually confusing and the need to clarify how the limits could be defined (Saarinen, 2006).

These myths are characterized by the social trap (McCool, 2015). The idea of a social trap refers to behaviour that is appropriate in the short-run but is detrimental in the long-run or behaving that fail to meet the needs of the larger social system (Costanza, 1987). Developing sustainable tourism with a short-term orientation and without looking into other paramount dimensions of sustainable development would inadvertently create negative impacts on the system. The following section sheds light on contemporary understanding about sustainable tourism. It offers an answer to the problem of engaging in social traps.

2.3.3.2 Redefining Sustainable Tourism

Theoretical activity aids in explaining the world (Bramwell, 2015). It simplifies complex process into more understandable and manageable knowledge that demonstrates how things work. Though systematic thinking about abstract ideas, social relations and practices are created. Because of this reason, this section examines how conventional and contemporary theoretical thinking rationalizes sustainable tourism.

In the late 20th century, scholarly discourse on tourism was dominated by the views of modernist and post-modernist premises. The world was perceived as stable, linear and ultimately understandable. A complex problem was akin to a jigsaw puzzle. To understand complex problems in the real world, researchers may decompose the problem into digestible parts and develop solutions to each components. After reaching solutions of every constituent, researchers may assemble the deconstructed pieces in order to find a more comprehensive solution. This reductionism produced policies and decisions that centred on interventions in communities in specific areas or sectors. Such ideology was criticized by its insensitivity (Ostrom; 2007; McCool, 2015). In the case of sustainable tourism development, the insensitive interventions to indigenous communities may create negativity, such as ignoring the cultural norms and unacceptable environmental impact. Diverse communities are subject in different ways to stress of affluence, power relations, access to education and form of encounter with the external world. Without an understanding of the entire system, the outcome is likely to create tensions instead of the so-called solutions.

A more recent theoretical understanding of the worldview on sustainable tourism provides an advanced comprehension on the topic. The new assumption is that the world is non-linear and dynamically complex. Small alterations may lead to radical change. Practically, there will never be sufficient data to completely understand the world. The causes, patterns, consequences and structures remain unknown. Featuring the interconnected nature of the world, local systems are shaped by diverse unpredictable externalities occurring at the global level. The tourism system is also not impermeable to these external forces. In this case, tourism acting as a component of a bigger system should be framed as an intervention to enhance the system's resilience. Resilience is effective response to external shocks (Singh, 2015). Hence, tourism could absorb shocks from disturbances and learn from those upheavals. Sustainability is concerned with the ability of a system to maintain a desired state or function over time (Milman & Short, 2008). Researchers found that resilience is connected to sustainability (Xu, Marinova & Guo, 2015; Derissen, Quaas, & Baumgärtner, 2011). The two concepts are both about the ability to create, test and maintain adaptive capability (Derissen et al., 2011).

The insular focus on tourism by isolating it from other economic alternatives compartmentalizes the practice of sustainable tourism. A narrow framing of sustainable

tourism decisions limits the understanding of its potential impacts. In this sense, sustainable tourism should be repositioned to capture its role within the complex broader system and consider ways in which it can enhance the resilience of the broader system. This view of sustainable tourism turns the focus from the debating definitions to broader questions of how to make sense of the role of sustainable tourism in the development of cities. Section 2.4.2 Quadruple bottom line will elucidate a possible approach to this issue.

2.3.4 The State of Knowledge

In perusing the contemporary theories of city tourism, there is a need to rethink current city constitutions. The increasing fluidity in innovation, people and resources provides stimuli for the international globalized world. Cities go beyond their physical, geographic and spatial boundaries within which the social meanings and interactions of actors are of concern. Tourism cities in the contemporary world should not be isolated as an independent research area. Instead, the integration and roles of tourism in building contemporary cities are of the essence. Understanding cities as one of the players in global economies demonstrates theoretical and practical significances.

2.4 Conceptual Schemes

Understanding city and regional development is noteworthy. Cities and regional conditions are central to individual and collective well-being. They have implications for standards on living, economic prosperity, environmental quality, social practices, and cultural transformation, all of which influence individuals' self-identities and aspirations. To understand city tourism thus requires the review of the complex totality of city and regional development rather than merely focusing on the tourism dimension. Diverse streams of thought ranging from political, economic, environmental, social to technological, from the past to the present, and from the present to the future, should be considered in order to make sense of city tourism. This thesis attempts to tackle such a task. To further unpack this idea and comprehend cities, this entire thesis is heavily underpinned by two urban geography conceptual schemes: The Time-Space Theory by

Michael Dear (1988); and, *The Quadruple Bottom Line of Sustainability* (c.f. Wheeler, 2015).

2.4.1 Time-Space Theory

The time-space concept was firstly proposed by a French philosopher and sociologist Henri Lefebvre in his book entitled *The Production of Space* published in 1974. He dedicated the text to a philosophical ideology of the importance of space and social relations. The argument was that space is a social product constructing and affecting the spatial practices and perceptions. Lefebvre (1974) insisted on the significance of considering the geometry of space and its lived practices and symbolic meaning. His work has deeply influenced political science and geography, especially urban theory. Michael Dear was one of the early geographers advocating the time-space notion in making sense of cities.

The social science discipline presents an inherent layer of complexity in any investigation. Simultaneously dealing with the complexity of the world and interpreting the diversity of means are endeavors of social scientists. Advancement of social science knowledge has, however, been impeded by the separation of geography (the space dimension), and history (the time dimension) (Stilwell, 1992). A typical example is the core of mainstream economic studies using the demand and supply curves to study the effect on equilibrium prices of changes in consumers' tastes. Stilwell (1992) commented that it was meaningless in terms of the time path of market adjustment between the initial price and the final equilibrium price. Similar treatment applies to the space dimension. In mainstream economics analysis models, such as Keynesian analysis, the internal distance variable on how the market economy functions is not considered. Indeed the location of economic activities, the national and international systems of production, distribution and exchange are important bearings on efficiency in reality. It is about the resources distribution and who gets what.

Dear (1988, p.268) said that, "The essence of science is interpretation". Scholars' understanding of the world changes as the world evolves. The saying that best describes this perspective is: the only constant is change. In this case, the truth is determined by the evolving states of the observer and the observed. The social science discipline is

somehow beset by varying degrees of ambiguity because no truths can have a permanent consensus. Social scientists have to be clear about the objects being analysed. Contemporary social theory primarily centres on the structure and evolution of society over time and space (Dear, 1988). Exploring the mutual relationship between the short-term practices and long-term structural forces is necessary in order to write the narrative of a locale. The time-specific element, including the economic, political and social history, makes sense of the development of relationships at different temporal dimensions, while the space-specific element attends to the recognizable locale based on the opaque spatial diffusion.

In a city setting, space is not independent of time. To understand the fabric of a city, it is crucial to recognize the interrelation of space and time (Dear, 1988). A locale acquires its distinctive identity and social relations gradually with the passage of time. Space moulds the manner in which lives are conducted and reflects the interaction within the structure of the economy and society. Social relations are constituted, constrained and mediated through space (Dear, 1988). The core agriculture and manufacturing outputs of cities is constituted by the resource-based activities and the physical environments. The inertia imposed by the built environment or physical condition of cities limit the development of cities. The ideology and beliefs within the confined geographic area frame the practices and relations of the inhabitants. Lefebvre (1978) backed the claim and delineated that space in cities embodies the decisions made in the past, present and future, for instance, the form of transport, housing provision and the manufacturing area which was, is, and will be built.

Individual locale is a synthesis of objects, patterns and processes derived from the simultaneous evolution operating at a macro or micro scale. As time elapses, locale expresses the sediments from the patterns of the past. The locale forms an amalgam of the past, present and the emerging future patterns (Dear, 1988). Researchers studying human behaviour and the structure of society should place the same emphasis on the respective dimensions of time and space in order to capture the whole picture. The case of history is crucial as it stresses the significance of time in human activity. Meanwhile, understanding the spatial perspective is vital given that human life is space-specific.

2.4.1.1 Adoption of the Theory in This Thesis

It is apparent that the time-space theory exerts remarkable influence on research in the areas of geography (e.g., Sullivan, Stewart, & Diefendorf, 2015; May & Thrift, 2003; Scott & Simpson-Housley, 1989; Allmendinger, 1998) and sociology (e.g., Monkkonen, 1994; Fairbanks, 2003). It is not surprising as the time-space theory emanated from a human geography tradition. To the best of the author's knowledge, the time-space theory has not been utilized in tourism literature. This thesis is seemingly among the first that attempts to adopt the theory in a tourism context.

The purpose of the present set of studies is to examine the role of tourism can play in the development of cities, and so, it seeks to explore the key drivers shaping the future of Asian city tourism. The time-space theory is appropriate in establishing a geographical and historical foundation for the research process and a lens through which the findings can be viewed. Following the conceptual vein of the time-space theory, the thesis investigates both the space and time dimension of tourism activities in Asian cities. As for the space dimension, this thesis commences the investigation by understanding the social relations of the tourism supply side of cities, referring to the decisions made by the public and private sectors, as well as the externalities shaping the future. The directions of the research effort includes identifying the key public and private stakeholders who have a role in shaping the future of tourism, examining the rationales behind the making of such decisions, and the identification of the drivers and externalities that create both positive and negative impacts on the future of tourism. As for addressing the time dimension, the line of investigation follows the trajectory of selected cities and tourism development in Asia. History plays a role in city formation and tourism development. Celebration of the past contributes to explanations and understanding of development. Chapter 4 will explore the historical background, city evolution and tourism development of the units of analysis.

2.4.2 Quadruple Bottom Line of Sustainable Cities

Frank Stilwell, a political economist, has a research interest in the process steering contemporary urban change. He posited that the future for urban and regional development is uncertain. Through the systematic organization of relevant issues and

careful analysis, it is viable to clarify the possibilities of the unknown future. Stilwell (1992) introduced the three systems of cities: society; economy; and, ecology. They are seen as interconnecting systems in forging a reasonably sustainable future for cities (shown in Figure 2.3). Through the attainment of the three social goals (efficiency, equity and environment), public policy and collective action of the private sector will lead toward building a more sustainable city. Stilwell (2000) stressed that sustainability is in a central place in pioneering new directions of urban and regional development. Significant action is needed in each system by the various interested stakeholders in cities, according to whether they become winners or losers of the political choices being made.

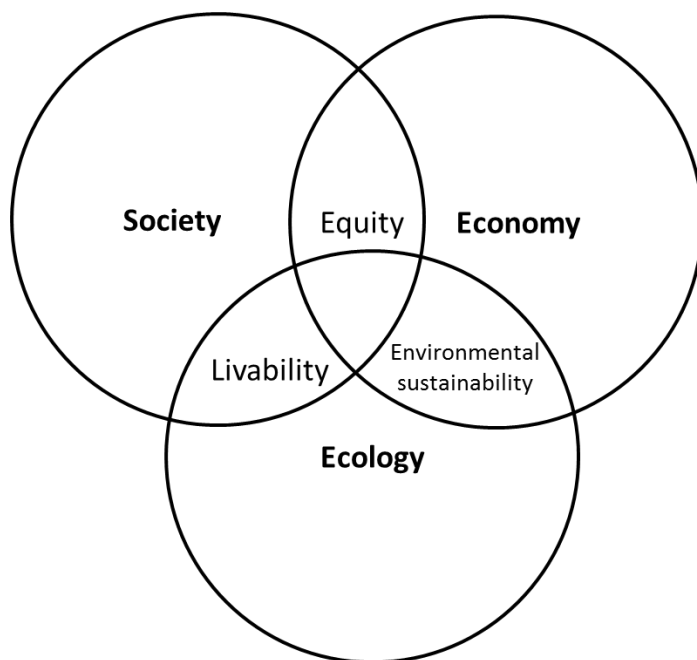


Figure 2.3 Society, economy, ecology: conditions of interdependence (Adapted from Stilwell, 1992, p.209)

Sustainability is three-fold, namely social, ecological and economic (Stilwell, 2000). Social sustainability is defined as maintaining a constellation of social structures and relations over more than one generation. Social reproduction that evolves according to the diverse groups within the society, as well as the structural economic condition, is not static. The society somehow gives priority to individual consumption over collective

concerns. Constant disruptions including the combined effects of growing inequality, polarization of wealth and consumerism create social tension. Stilwell (2000), therefore, proposed a more modest evaluation of social sustainability as the avoidance of significant conflicts breaking down the cohesion and continuity of social life when undergoing the process of change.

Economic sustainability is regarded as producing the goods and services by utilizing the natural, manufactured and human resources in an indefinitely reproduced manner (Stilwell, 2000). In simple words, it is about desired outputs maximization and resource inputs minimization so as to reach production efficiency. Avoiding waste at the point of production and within systems of distribution is necessary. It relates to the fundamental problem of market competition. Market competition, in a good way, encourages innovation in terms of cost reduction but also leads to socially inefficient duplication. Stilwell (2000) further touches on the problem of economic planning. Despite wise planning that helps to eliminate waste, the variability in technology and consumer taste is an issue. Pursuing profits and economic growth at the expense of exploiting human and natural resources is the essence of capitalism. This description is true to a certain extent. Under the structure of the contemporary economy, contradiction is further intensified between the production of actual goods and services production and the speculative financial institutions. Dealing with inequality and instability is the essence of pursuing economic sustainability.

Ecological sustainability is of concern from three essential aspects: biodiversity maintenance; ecological integrity; and, intergenerational equity (Stilwell, 2000). Biodiversity maintenance refers to excessive loss of flora and fauna due to environmental mismanagement. Ecological integrity is to prevent environmental burden by copying with the capacity of natural waste disposal mechanism and biological breakdown. Passing onto the next generation the legacy that the physical environment is in good condition is the underlying principle of intergenerational equity.

Equally sustainability matters to the private sector. It is and will be a central agenda for the 21st century business. Elkington (1997) coined the term 'triple bottom line' and illustrates the importance of this concept in his book *Cannibals with Forks*. Future market success not only depends on the capacity of companies to satisfy the traditional profitability bottom line, but also the two emergent bottom lines, environmental quality

and social justice. Attention needs to be given to not only the financial and physical forms of capital, but also the natural, human and social capital in the operating locale of companies. Sustainability of cooperation takes into account conservation and better utilization of natural resources for the benefit of present and future generations. Showing respect to human rights, including the right to live in a clean and safe environment, is of the essence. By achieving the triple bottom line, a win-win-win outcome will be the consequence.

The triple bottom line means giving equal importance to social, economic and environmental considerations. Recently, a new school of thought criticises the ideology of the triple bottom line. It argues that in the real world, these three considerations are not equally important. Wheeler (2015, p.254) highlights that “it is economics not ecology that drives the world”. He notes that price and cost is the key when it comes to decision-making. Driven by the profit maximization motive, the other two considerations have been considered to be insubstantial and of less importance. Because of this reason, the involvement of governance in facilitating sustainable development should not be underestimated.

Governance refers to “*emerging forms of collective decision-making at the local level, which lead to the development of different relationships, not simply between public agencies but between citizens and public agencies*” (Goss, 2001, p.11). It highlights a concerted effort for decision-making, including the participation of and collaboration with the stakeholders. Urban scholars (Nolmark, 2007; Teriman, Yigitcanlar, & Mayere, 2009) emphasized that governance is a cross-cutting consideration concerning the institutional capacity and its instruments, such as law, regulations and planning systems. Such consideration should also be applied to private sectors. At the private sector level, governance means being accountable to the boards of management and shareholders. Effective business management would then be achieved through being adaptive to the dynamic external environment and establishing a control framework over ethical deviations (Guerra, 2004; Durden & Pech, 2006). The functioning of governance is central in achieving urban sustainability. Wheeler (2015) contends that ignoring governance is ignoring the reality.

The inclusion of governance as one of the dimensions in achieving sustainability is particularly prominent in any Asian setting. Harmony has been a profound element in

many Asian cultures in the senses of ontology, ethics and religious (Tao, Cheung, Painter, & Li, 2010). The Western democracy is built upon the notion of a social contract derived from the consent of the people in order to protect the rights of individuals in the larger community. In contrast, political leaders in many Asian countries declare that realizing a harmonious society is the aim of government. Ironically, harmony arguably poses a threat of totalitarianism without a genuine commitment to the values of diversity and difference. Some issues are highly contentious: the legitimate governmental concern in equally achieving communal harmony and upholding the good of individuals; the realization of harmony; the legitimacy in advocating harmony among citizens of a given country; and, the challenges of achieving harmony in the real world of governance are all complex issues deriving from this fundamental imperative for a non-divisive community order. Given these important and specific concerns, the present study integrates governance with the triple bottom line mechanism for assessing city tourism sustainability; and, proposed a quadruple bottom line of sustainable city tourism framework (shown in Figure 2.4). The juncture between the four pillars represents a common ground within which the four pillars can be attained or exercised to achieve common benefits for all in the achievement of sustainable city tourism.



Figure 2.4 Quadruple bottom line of sustainable city tourism

The quadruple bottom line sustainability framework stresses the importance of the legitimacy to live without compromising nature and future generations. Cities concentrate disproportional segments of the economy and are largely responsible for resources consumption. A report produced by the United Nations Environmental Programme (2015) indicated that cities consume 75% of the global natural resources, 80% of the energy supply, and produce approximately 75% of carbon emission. The unprecedented urban growth rate, continuing popularization and intensive resource consumption raises stringent questions about the sustainability of cities and resource traps for future generations. With the emphasis on both theoretical concepts and real world problems, the framework presents a benchmark for working toward a sustainable city tourism future.

2.4.2.1 Adoption of the Theory in This Thesis

Academic debates on building a sustainable city prevail across the urban study discipline. Urban planning and its role in sustainable urban development (e.g., Campbell, 1996), transport planning (e.g., Kenworthy, 2006), urban parks (e.g., Chiesura, 2004), urban building design and construction (e.g., Kibert, 2012), and policy planning on sustainable urban development (e.g., While, Jonas, & Gibbs, 2010) are common research endeavors. When it comes to sustainable tourism development, the majority of tourism research work is limited to wilderness, rural and resort contexts. The application to cities is relatively new. Earlier work taking into consideration the urban backdrop on sustainable tourism was conducted by Hinch (1996). This work characterised the essence of urban tourism, by addressing the relevance of the concept of sustainability in relation to the tourism function, and by discussing a theoretical framework on basic organizational approaches to sustainable urban tourism. Other lines of enquiry include Bramwell's (1997) study on utilizing sport mega-events as a means for sustainable urban tourism development, Hall and Lew's (1998) research on perspectives on sustainable urban tourism development, as well as Timur and Getz's (2009) work on perception on stakeholders on sustainable urban tourism.

Given that the sustainable city development in the social, environmental, economic and governance dimensions has been repeatedly recommended in urban literature, the

quadruple bottom line framework serves as a foundation steering the empirical inquiry and establishing the framework for model building. In the research design, the researcher gathered key statistics and forecasts based on the performance of cities on these three interconnecting systems. Such information framed the questions design and flow of conversation with interviewees. As for model building, and based on the above discussion, it is assumed that the quadruple bottom line framework is fundamental to the core goals and principles of the future development of city tourism. The theory will therefore play a role in the later formulation of a city tourism model development.

2.4.3 The Conceptual Schemes: Integrating the Perspectives

In the ensuing sections of the present thesis, the time-space theory and the sustainability theory are the conceptual schemes underpinning the entire research ranging from research design, data analysis, interpretation and model building. The researcher is fully aware of the interplay of time and space in cities. Inspired by the time-space theory, a historical review of the passage of time that has shaped the current status quo is delineated prior to comprehending the future. The empirical investigation, namely the in-depth interviews, followed the timeline of city and tourism development, from the past to the present and from the present to the future. In addition, the quadruple bottom lines of sustainability are the basis of the design of the interview questions. The discourse on future drivers is based on the sustainability theory. Furthermore, the integration of these two conceptual schemes will be instrumental in achieving the second objective that is to build a conceptual model steering the future of Asian city tourism. The two theories are thus the connecting agents of theory building for this thesis.

2.5 Pragmatism – Philosophical Framework

Across and within disciplines there are varying views of knowing the truth. Paradigms guide the way of developing knowledge and pursuing research. Weaver and Olson (2006, p.460) defined paradigms as, “*patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which investigation is accomplished*”. According to Guba (1990), paradigms, as overlying view

of the way the world works, can be characterized through their ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology is known as the nature of reality that determines how the world is perceived (Jennings, 2010). Epistemology relates to the ways the researcher comes to know things and demonstrates the legitimacy of knowledge. Methodology refers to the set of guidelines for conducting research and for how the researcher gathers data, while method refers to the tool for data collection.

Jogulu and Pansiri (2011, p.688) stated that, “*Research is becoming increasingly complex and intricate, requiring new techniques for examining research problems and analysing data to explain and clarify social phenomena*”. As aforementioned, city tourism has received disproportionately little attention from tourism researchers, particularly in relation to research activities with an Oriental focus. The complex nature of the city further stifles the advancement of city tourism lore.

In multidisciplinary debates, three conventional paradigms are dominant: positivism, constructivism, and critical theory (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Post positivism and critical realism are variants of these major approaches. Quantitative purists believe that the positivist philosophy is supreme. Positivists contend that social observation should be objective and the researcher should separate himself or herself from the study entities or contexts. Proponents of positivism have traditionally sought for researcher neutrality, which is manifest in the disconnected observer, the impersonal passive voice writing style and technical terminology (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The purpose of such an approach is to establish social laws, eliminate biases, detach the researcher from emotional commitment, be uninvolved the objects of study, and empirically justify the stated hypotheses. Qualitative proponents tend to favour the constructivist and critical theory approaches. Such researchers acknowledge the multiple-constructed view of realities. In this view, the knower and known cannot be separated because the subjective researcher is the sole source of reality (Guba, 1990). Unlike the positivists’ passive writing style, the qualitative purists prefer rich and thick narratives. The writing is very straight-forward and somewhat informal. The two schools of thoughts are divisive. Some scholars have called for an evolutionary movement for approaching research and advancing research methodology (Creswell & Garrett, 2008). They proposed a new paradigm, pragmatism.

Pragmatism emerged in the second half of the 19th century in the United States (Hammersley, 2012). Pragmatism is derived from the Greek word 'pragma' and mean action (James, 2000). Charles Sanders Peirce, a practicing scientist and mathematician, was the pioneer who introduced the paradigm into philosophy in his article 'How to make our ideas clear' published in 1878 (Pansiri, 2005). The aim of science is to produce knowledge of the world and it can only be achieved if researchers capture reality. John Dewey was another leading proponent of pragmatism. He argued that singular multiple realities are open to empirical inquiry and solve practical problems in the "existential reality" (Dewey, 1925, p.40). The terminology refers to an experiential world with non-identical layers which some are objective, subjective or a combination of two.

Pragmatism focuses on the research question and various methods can be employed to answer the question. Its essence is derived from the multiple and pluralistic manner in which the research is approached (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell & Garrett, 2008). It concerns the capacity of theory to solve human problems (Rorty, 1989). In this sense, pragmatists are free of mental and practical constraints; they can choose between positivism and constructivism, and are not confined to a particular research method or technique (Feilzer, 2010). Scholars pursuing pragmatism adopt a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods, emphasising that they neither of these methodological approaches are different at an epistemological or ontological level (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) noted that pragmatism rejects the conventional dualism of subjectivism and objectivism. They advocate a more straight forward philosophy that methodology and research strategy should follow the research question and are selected based on how well they are to offer solutions for real-life problems. The paradigm is characterized by "*recognizing the existence and importance of the natural or physical world as well as the emergent social and psychological world that includes language, culture, human institutions, and subjective thoughts*" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.18).

The pragmatism paradigm was considered as the most suitable due to the fundamental need to address the research aims. The research topic, city tourism, is diverse in many ways, ranging from the definitions, data collection methods, and justification of the stakeholders of cities. The positivist paradigm advocates an objective investigation and

quantitative methods. It poses difficulties given the pluralism of cities and the topic of interest. In addition, constructivism acknowledges the multiple-constructed realities of the various stakeholders, which suits the study scenario. The thick and rich qualitative narratives are also seen as appropriate methods for approaching the research aims. For the sake of knowledge advancement, constructivism however fails to offer the best justification in selecting the units of analysis. As a result, pragmatism is more flexible to approach the research aims and allows a stronger justification of strategic selection of cases. The paradigm allows the researcher to better investigate the emergent social, psychological, natural and physical world from multiple points of views.

A paradigm that is sufficiently flexible, penetrative and multilayered to reflect the reality of social science research in the 21st century is essential to offer superior research (Denscombe, 2008). Pragmatism therefore comes into play and underpins the philosophical framework of the entire thesis. The paradigm draws conclusions through a pragmatic approach to problem solving in the social world offers an alternative and more reflexive guide to research design and grounded research (Feilzer, 2010). Its ability to accommodate the existence of variations is deemed suitable to approach city tourism, given the highly complex and multilayered nature of cities.

2.6 Research Aims

Building on the literature review, this research addresses the gap in city tourism knowledge and studies the future of city tourism development. Focused attention will be given to the Asian region. Two primary research aims are set out as below. Aim 1 contains six sub-aims which correspond to the time element of the past, present and future. Sub-aims 1.1 to 1.3 are related to the drivers in the past that shaped the present situation, while sub-aims 1.4 to 1.6 are concerned with the present drivers that may shape the future. Aim 2, building a conceptual model, effectively outlines the theoretical significance of this thesis. These aims are further detailed below.

Aim 1: To identify the major drivers shaping Asian city tourism futures

- Aim 1.1: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Asia
- Aim 1.2: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Bangkok
- Aim 1.3: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Hong Kong
- Aim 1.4: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Asia
- Aim 1.5: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Bangkok
- Aim 1.6: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Hong Kong

Aim 2: To build a conceptual model steering the future of Asian city tourism

2.7 Overall Thesis Outline

Figure 2.5 is the overall thesis outline of individual chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the background and justifies the research significance. The present chapter presents the conceptual scheme, philosophical framework and the key theories addressing the research domains. The next chapter, methodology, reports the research strategies informing the exploratory empirical investigation. Methods of data collection and analysis will also be introduced. The next two chapters are the narratives of the findings aligning with the time dimensions ranging from the past to the present, as well as from the present to the future. The final chapter, Chapter 6, is a synthesis of the research findings. It also features the theoretical contributions and conclusion of this thesis.

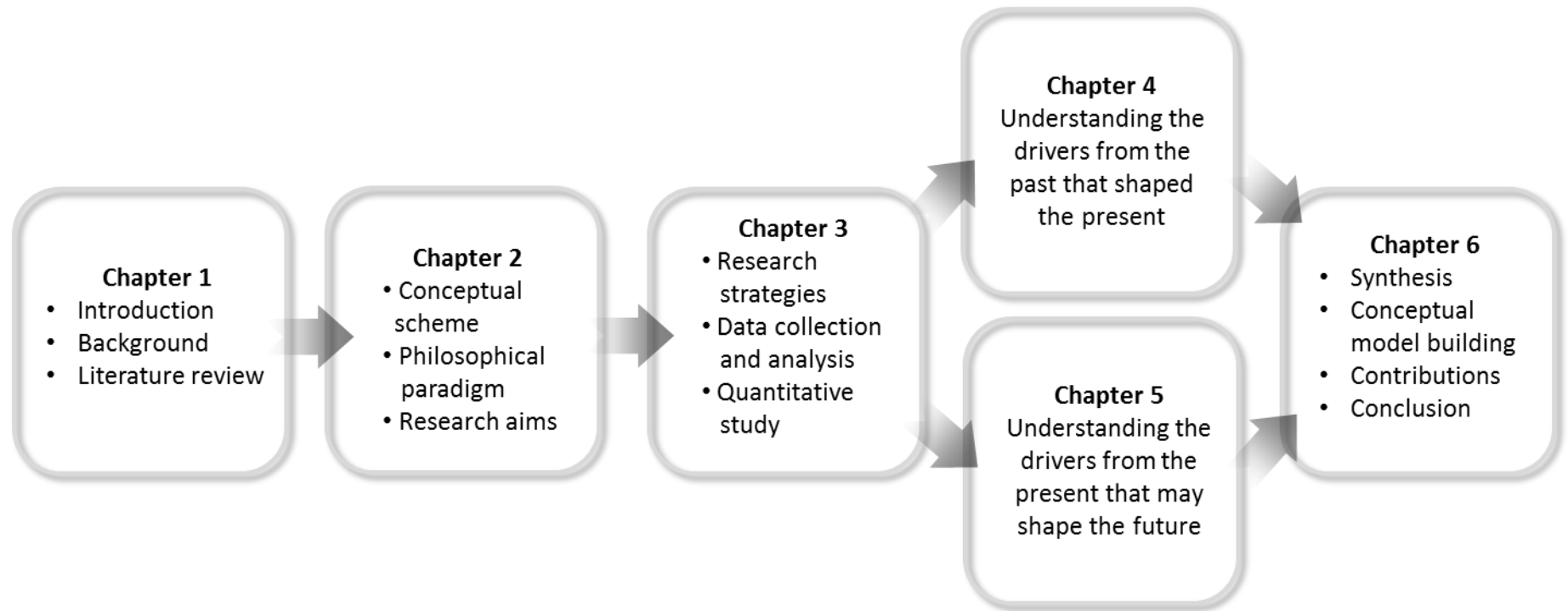


Figure 2.5 Chapter outline of the thesis

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Outline of Chapter

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3.1 Overview of Chapter

This chapter details the methodology utilized in this thesis. A mixed methods research design, the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods, was employed. The case study approach was the overriding research strategy used to achieve the aims. Strategic selection of cases was performed through three rounds of multidimensional scaling to ensure a sound sampling of cases. A review of scholarly and grey literature (see Section 3.5.1 Document Analysis for details) set the scene to inform the background of the locations and the interview questions. For the three cases, document analysis and in-depth interviews were adopted as the primary data collection tools. Twenty-eight stakeholders from the public and private sectors were invited for interviews. The researcher pursued the grounded theory approach during data collection and analysis.

Such an approach informs the development of theory. Given the importance of validity in qualitative study in this chapter, the researcher discusses some tactics used to ensure the findings were credible. Research ethics and limitations of the current study were also delineated.

3.2 Research Design: Mixed Methods

Research design is the procedure for collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting data in a study. Paradigms direct the way to articulate theories. Pragmatism is a philosophical partner of mixed methods. Mixed methods proponents Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p.119) defined it as “a research design (or methodology) in which the researcher collects, analyses, and mixed (integrates or connects both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a multiphase program of inquiry”. In mixed methods, both quantitative and qualitative views are important. The ultimate goal of mixed methods is not to replace either of these stances. Instead, it aims to capture the wisdom of both viewpoints by recognizing the strengths and reducing the weaknesses of both in a single research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In the 20th century, research employing mixed methods was seen in the work of culture anthropologists (e.g., Lynd & Lynd, 1929; Jahoda, Lazarsfeld, & Zeisel, 1931). As for the tourism discipline, mixed methods were not popular in the last two decades. Ballantyne, Packer and Axelsen (2009) researched the trends in tourism research and shortlisted 144 articles from the top three leading tourism journals for further analysis via stratified random sampling. Only 6% of the chosen articles used mixed methods during the period of 1994 to 2005. Nunkoo, Smith and Ramkissoon’s (2013) investigation of 140 articles about residents’ attitude to tourism also identified a small amount, 13%, of tourism articles utilized a mixed method approach. In the recent decade, the approach has been gaining popularity. Examples include Wight’s (2006) study on dark tourism, McGehee, Boley, Hallo, McGee, Norman, Oh and Goetcheus’s (2013) investigation on a regional sustainable tourism project, and the work of Rittichainuwat and Rattanaphinanchai (2015) on the travel motivation of film tourists. Merits and weaknesses of the mixed method approach are listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods (adapted from Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21)

Strength	Weakness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers. • Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative. • Can provide quantitative and qualitative research strengths • Researcher can generate and test a grounded theory. • Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach. • The specific mixed research designs discussed in this article have specific strengths and weaknesses that should be considered (e.g., in a two-stage sequential design, the Stage 1 results can be used to develop and inform the purpose and design of the Stage 2 component). • A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently; it may require a research team. • Researcher has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately. • Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm. • More expensive. • More time consuming. • Some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyze quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).

the weaknesses in another method by using both in a research study.

- Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings.
- Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used.
- Can be used to increase the generalizability of the results.
- Qualitative and quantitative research used together produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.

Mixed methods advocates suggest various classifications of mixed method research design. Patton (1990) proposed experimental design versus naturalistic inquiry. Morse (1991) suggested simultaneous or sequential triangulation. Tashakori and Teddlie (1998) delineated the confirmatory, exploratory, parallel and sequential usage of quantitative and qualitative data. Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) introduced the sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, sequential transformative, concurrent triangulation, concurrent nested and concurrent transformative designs. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) also presented six types of procedural designs namely the sequential explanatory design, the sequential exploratory design, the convergent parallel design, the embedded design, the transformative design and the multiphase design. Selecting a specific design that best matches the research problem is the primary consideration. In the present thesis, the explanatory design of the participant selection model by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) is chosen. The notation of illustrating mixed methods research design is pictured in Figure 3.1. The explanatory design participant selection model features the collection and analysis of quantitative data, following by the collection and

analysis of qualitative data. In this design, the researcher needs quantitative information to identify and purposefully choose participants for follow-up qualitative inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The arrows show the sequential form of data collection while capitalization indicates an emphasis on the quantitative or qualitative data collection and analysis in the study.

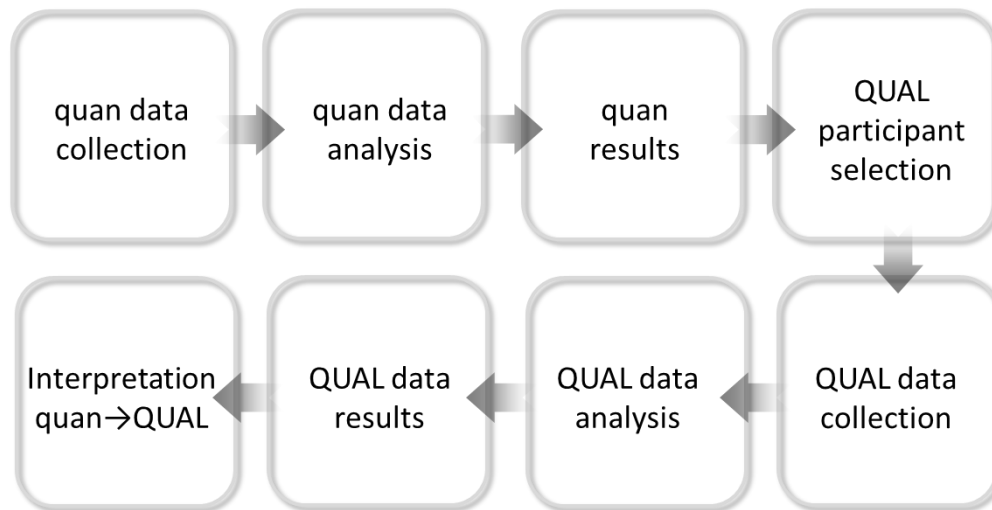


Figure 3.1 Explanatory design: Participant selection model

In this design, priority is given to the second phase, qualitative study. It is the most straightforward one among the six aforementioned approaches. The merits are two-fold. The quantitative and qualitative methods are in separate phases and data collection is performed in an orderly fashion. Only one single researcher is needed to conduct the study. In addition, the report can be written into two phases which offers a clear delineation for readers. Applying it to this thesis, the participant selection model commencing with a quantitative study provides a strong quantitative orientation and justification for selecting specific Asian cities. It offers a solid ground for the second phase qualitative study.

This thesis is heavily qualitative in its orientation. Three important notes for researchers pursuing qualitative research are highlighted by Lincoln and Guba (1985), and Hoepfl (1997). They are adopting a stance which meets the characteristics of the paradigm, developing an appropriate level of skill to collect and interpret data, and preparing a

research design that utilizes accepted strategies for naturalistic inquiry. Achieving these three approaches, Strauss and Corbin (1990) referred to a term theoretical sensitivity which concerned with the skill and readiness of researchers in terms of qualitative inquiry. Theoretical sensitivity is regarded as “the attribute of having insight, the ability to give meaning to data, the capacity to understand, and capability to separate the pertinent from that which isn't (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 42). Glaser (1992) stated that theoretical sensitivity is attained through immersion in the data, word by word, line by line and code by code. Constant comparison is therefore important technique to enhance the theoretical sensitivity and credibility of qualitative inquiry. Researchers pursuing qualitative study should be open with the data and listen “what the subjects themselves are saying” (Glaser, 1992, p.50). In addition, Strauss and Corbin (1990) recommended researchers have some prior knowledge of the literature but no proposition. It is helpful to prompt theoretical sensitivity, to have draft interview questions and be familiar with the existing secondary data. Dey (2007, p.167) echoed this thought and said that theoretical sensitivity allows researchers to commence data collection “with an open mind, not an empty head”. Following such recommendations in enhancing theoretical sensitivity, the researcher is mindful of being open-minded and the importance of following the flow of data. The researcher also starts with an awareness of the topic through a comprehensive literature review without any pre-conceived ideas about what the research findings might discover. This mindset is reinforced throughout the iterative process of data collection and analysis.

3.3 Research Strategy: Case Study

The case study was chosen as the portal to achieve the thesis's research objectives. Yin (2013, p.2) reports the case study method “investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident”. It is indeed a very commonly and preferred research method in social science field for investigation of contemporary phenomenon. He noted further that pursuing case study research should follow a rigorous methodological path, beginning with a thorough literature review, thoughtful posing of research questions, and dedication to explicit procedures. The method has received a number of criticisms despite its popularity in academic research.

The definition of case study in the Dictionary of Sociology is that a case study is “the detailed examination of a single example of a class of phenomena, a case study cannot provide reliable information about the broader class, but it may be useful in the preliminary stages of an investigation since it provides hypotheses, which may be tested systematically with a larger number of cases” (Abercrombie, Hill, & Turner, 1984, p.34). The statement is somehow misleading because it overlooks the capacity of the case study method. Flyvbjerg (2006) legitimized the significant role of case studies in human learning. Virtuosity and true expertise, the most advanced level in the learning process, are achieved through a person’s own experiences as practitioner of the relevant skills. As for researchers, the closeness of the case study and its wealth of details are valuable for two reasons. First, the case study is important in the development of a nuanced view of reality and to reveal human behaviour that cannot be easily understood. Second, performing case study research equips researchers with skills needed to conduct good research. As the method builds context-dependent knowledge, emphasizing the proximity to the studied reality, the concrete experience obtained during the data collection and analysis is central to gain meaning from the data. Great distance from the studied reality stultifies understanding, leads to ritual academic blind alleys and defeats the usefulness of research. Popper (1959) proposed the idea of falsification, forming part of the critical reflexivity in social science. If one observation is found not to fit with the proposition, it comes to a conclusion as not valid generally and eventually the ideas can be revised or rejected. Using the example of “all swans are white”, Popper (1959) argued that identifying a black swan would falsify this proposition and stimulate further investigations and theory building. Singling out the black swan symbolizes the value of the approach.

The case study method has been widely used in city tourism literature (e.g., Gotham, 2005; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Hoffman, Fainstein, & Judd, 2003). Most city tourism research remains descriptive with the adoption of case study methods to illustrate different research agendas. The isolated and ideographic nature of many of the case studies has hindered the replication of research activity from place to place and from time to time. It also has limited contribution to greater theoretical or methodological understanding of city tourism (Hall & Page, 2014). The establishment of a coherent body of theories, concepts, and research methodology is required to foster the growth of knowledge. Ashworth (1992) called for comparable research building a common

understanding on the role of cities within tourism or tourism functions in cities. The current problem is that the case study method, as it has previously been applied has been relatively ineffective in relating findings to wider issues or to a wider range of cities (Selby, 2004b). To produce value, the case study method needs to be linked to theory building and hypotheses testing (Flyvbjerg, 2006). As a result, current city tourism studies have been criticized as being descriptive without inspiring theoretical contributions. The value of the case study and the generalizability of the findings can be greatly enhanced by the strategic selection of cases (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This chapter therefore aims to promote a best practice of strategic selection of cases.

Prior to the strategic selection of cases, designing the type of case study is important. According to Yin (2013), there are two types of case study design, namely single- and multiple-case designs. Within each type of design, researchers can choose using a single unit of analysis or multiple units of analysis (see Figure 3.2). Choosing a single case or multiple cases for investigation depends on addressing the research aims. There are both merits and demerits of either method. The investigation of multiple cases is more compelling but the extensive resources and time needed may be beyond the means of one independent research investigator. By way of comparison, the single case is ideal for studying rare, critical and revelatory cases but is considered as less robust. To suit the questions of interest, this thesis conducts single-case design with multiple units of analysis as shown in Figure 3.2. The study context, Asia, represents a revelatory case within tourism literature particularly in the research area of city tourism. Multiple units of analysis are chosen because it adds significant opportunities for extensive analysis and enhances the insights into the single case. In this case, two units of analysis, referring to two Asian cities, will be derived from the process of strategic selection of cases for further analysis.

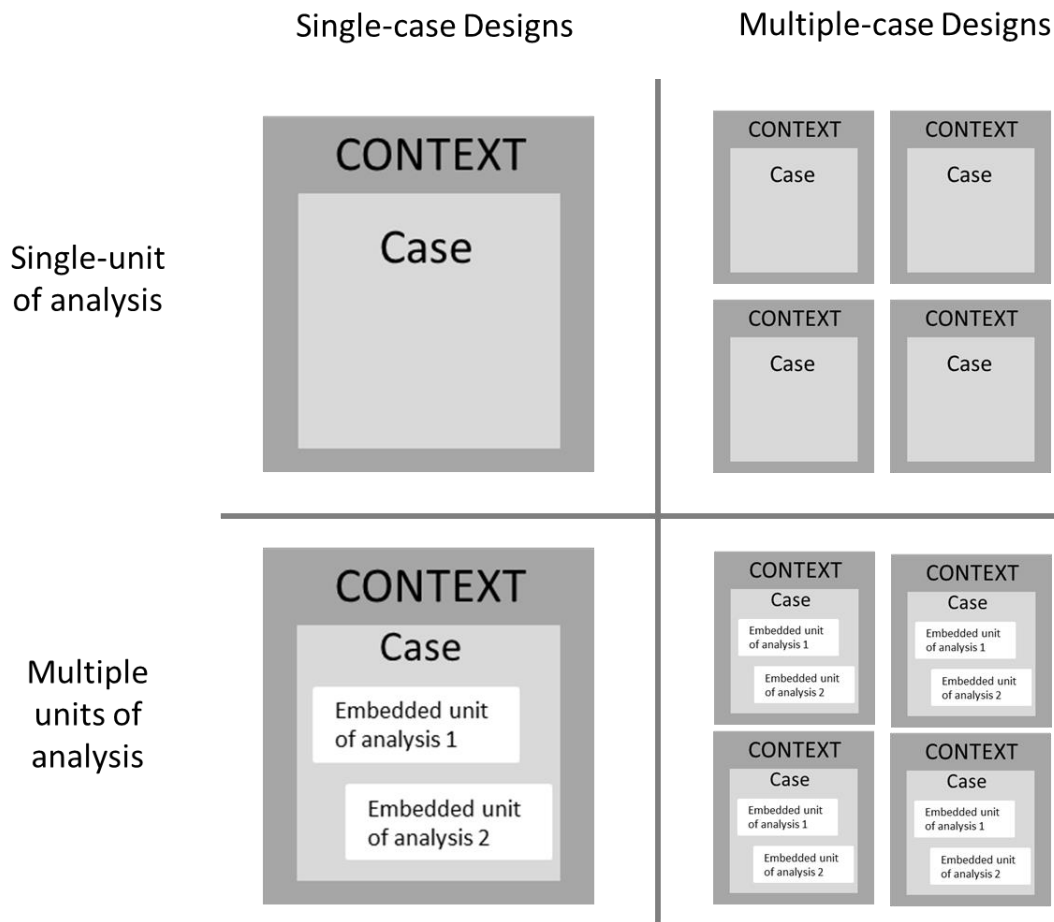


Figure 3.2 Design for case study (Yin, 2013)

3.3.1 Strategic Selection of Cases

The complexity of the city hinders research endeavours. The pluralism of cities and the absence of readily available and appropriate data pose significant methodological hurdles for advancing city tourism knowledge. Much of the city tourism literature taken an inductive approach by utilizing the case study method, or studied the demand side through a deductive approach in surveying tourists. These methods suffer from the failure to pursue comparative analyses. In addition, previous literature adopting the case study approach was unlikely to present a strong justification of case selection. This thesis is therefore carefully planned for resolving these problems through multidimensional scaling analysis and strategic sampling of cases.

In case study research, dialogue on case selection has long been an issue mainly surrounding the question of single-case or multiple-case selection. A school of thought has voted for multiple cases over single case (Eisenhardt, 1991). The prime reason was the capability in replicating among individual cases, serving as a powerful mean in generating theory. Multiple cases yield more robust, generalizable and testable theory (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Leonard-Barton (1990) echoed and justified this thought with the limitation of single case in generalizability and potential biases, for example misjudging the representativeness of a single event. Another school of thought pleads for the single-case study, highlighting that single-case studies allow the researcher to learn the intricate intertexture of how a system works rather than averaging the pattern across a barrage of cases (Edgar & Billingsley, 1974; Cronbach, 1975). Flyvbjerg (2006) made a concluding remark by ascertaining the misunderstandings about case-study research and recommended the selection of cases with a non-arbitrary approach. The determination of multiple cases or single case should depend on the problem under the study and its circumstances. Researchers possess a set of skills for carrying out scientific work and generalization is just one of the skills (Kuhn, 1987). More important, research should literally allow people to gain and accumulate knowledge.

Following the principle, the present study considers multiple cases as a legitimate method of scientific inquiry. First of all, the primary aim of this thesis is to ascertain the big picture of the city tourism future for Asia that is in process of creating. The future features multiple details across various focuses and actors. Fuelled with the proliferation of the Internet and globalization, the world nowadays is unprecedentedly interdependent. Investigation on merely one individual city limits the understanding of issues and trends on the macro environment. Unilateral proximity to the studied reality easily leads to stultified knowledge and understanding where the usefulness of research becomes unclear. Furthermore, the circumstance and context of the thesis' investigation offers the justification of multiple cases. A wider array of scenarios should be addressed and conferred in order to contribute to a meaningful understanding of the topic of interest. The first case, the Asian region in general, was selected because of its overall suitability to the research aim. An investigation from a macro perspective with an emphasis on tourism development in the region contributes to the enhancement of knowledge.

A closer investigation of Asian cities strengthens the understanding of the generic research domain. The selection of the cases was based upon the approach to case sampling suggested by Flyvbjerg (2006). Two sampling strategies, paradigmatic case sampling and extreme case sampling, guided the principal of selection. Paradigmatic case refers to cases that feature the more general characteristics of the societies in question. A scientific activity is acknowledged or rejected as good science as demonstrated by how close it is to the exemplars or prototypes. Such prototypes offer a reference point and function as a focus for the founding of schools of thought. Dreyfus, Dreyfus and Athanasiou (2000) acknowledged the paradigmatic case as central to human learning. Dreyfus et al. (2000) further commented that intuition is central to identifying paradigmatic cases since it is impossible to justify one's intuition.

The extreme case was another strategy adopted in the study. A representative case out of random sample may not be appropriate when the objective is to reach the greatest possible amount of information (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This is because a typical case is less likely to offer the richest information. Alternatively, an extreme case often reveals richer information by virtue of the activation of more actors and more basic mechanism in the examined situation. Besides, from knowledge accumulation perspective, clarifying the deeper causes behind a problem is more important than describing the symptoms the problem and its frequency of occurrence. The extreme case is well-suited for getting a point across a dramatic way. Two Asian tourism cities are thus selected based on the criteria of a paradigmatic case and an extreme case.

3.3.2 Multidimensional Scaling

The purpose of employing multidimensional scaling is to systematically select cases for analysis. Multidimensional scaling (MDS) is a multivariate data reduction technique akin to factor analysis. It is used to assess and visualize similarities or dissimilarities among a range of cognitive or physical objects. Fenton and Pearce (1988) described the two main aims of MDS as reducing data to a manageable and meaningful manner; and identifying the inherent underlying structure within the data. The major merit of MDS is to produce a graphic output indicating the proximities, referring to the degree of similarity or dissimilarity among objects. The graphic output, also known as a perceptual

map, displays the distance among objects or stimuli. The visual output is thereby conducive for interpretive purpose. Besides, MDS is found to be appropriate for examining a relatively small number of stimuli. This quantitative data collection and analysis method is employed to fulfil the explanatory participant selection model as an adoption of mixed methods research design. It aims to select the cases that are most appropriate to address the research question.

The MDS technique works as follow. The data analysis is based on measuring the proximity through pairwise judgments. A proximity matrix is then produced with Euclidean distances which serve as raw data for MDS (Jackson, Singh, & Parsa, 2015). In order to create the proximity matrix, cluster analysis is performed and the resulting matrix is used to create the perceptual map. Such distance in the geometric space represents the degree of similarity among stimuli, where a smaller distance between stimuli means higher degree of similarity and less similarity was noted if the stimuli are far apart. Subsequently, a stress function measuring the fit between input proximities and distances is computed. An iterative cycle is then accomplished to find successive approximations to the solution until the stress function has been minimized. Kruskal's (1964) stress function is the most widely used measure in determining the goodness of fit or usefulness of the solution. The stress figure ranges from 0.0 to 1.0, the larger the stress figure the worst the fit. Diekhoff (1992) recommended a threshold of stress scores below 0.05 deeming to be good fit and below .10 are considered as fair. The squared correlation coefficient between the data and the distance, known as r-squared, is another important indicator showing the goodness of fit. The value is closer to 1, the better the solution.

The field of psychophysics was the area of the study where the MDS technique was first used in the late 1930s (e.g., Eckart & Young, 1936; Young & Householder, 1938). Application of MDS technique can be noted in other disciplines, for instance political science (e.g., Rabinowitz, 1975; Sabucedo & Arce, 1991), linguistics (e.g., Gandour & Harshman, 1978; Croft & Poole, 2008), and marketing (e.g., Rao & Katz, 1971). In the tourism literature, Goodrich (1978) provided the very first article employing MDS in destination image analysis. Later, Fenton and Pearce (1988) explored the potential uses of MDS in tourist studies. Driscoll, Lawson and Niven (1994), and Lawson, Williams, Young and Cossens (1998) extended the MDS approach in measuring tourists'

perception towards destinations. Moscardo, Morrison, Cai, Nadkarni and O'Leary (1996) examined tourists' attitude of the cruising holiday as a tourism product differing from other holiday types.

In the present study, MDS was deemed appropriate since the similarity of Asian cities can be easily conceptualized through succinct visual display of the stimuli. Further sampling technique could then be pursued in selecting the cases. To ensure study rigor, three rounds of MDS were performed. The first run was the incorporation of 10 Asian tourism cities with the highest visitor arrivals in 2013. The second round was a microscopic perspective of the clustered cities based on the results of the first MDS study. The third round adoption of the MDS was a macroscopic perspective by including 17 Asian tourism cities for analysis. The chosen 17 Asian cities were with the highest visitor arrivals in 2013 (World Tourism Organization, 2014).

3.3.2.1 Generation of Tourism City Similarity Matrix

MDS primarily measures the similarity of the units under study. In the present study, a list of measures for the tourism and hospitality performance of ten Asian tourism cities was composed. In producing a tourism measurement system applicable across the ten identified Asian cities, objective measures with a readily available data set should be utilized. The measurements should also reflect a comprehensive picture of the tourism and hospitality performance of respective cities. Adopting an approach of building research-informed objective and comprehensive measures, the matrix incorporated five dimensions measuring the performance of key tourism and hospitality sectors in tourism cities. They were the tourism, hotel, aviation, MICE and gaming sectors (Selby, 2004).

As a tourism city, primary and supporting tourism infrastructures, including attractions, hotels and transportation system are among the most important elements in customizing tourism offerings and connecting tourists to the destinations. Some general yet key indicators measuring tourism performance of a city were then incorporated. The tourism sector included five measures: international tourist arrivals, international tourist receipts, number of major attractions, and number of amusement and theme parks. The two measures of the hotel sector were the number of hotels and number of guest rooms. The aviation sector included the number of international airport, passenger volume, aircraft

movement, number of connecting destinations, numbers of airlines serving, and air cargo. The MICE sector has emerged as an important component in the tourism and hospitality industry in recent years. This sector is particularly important for city tourism as city is the arena for multiple commercial activities and functions. High accessibility places city as a good place for MICE activities. The three measures of the MICE sector were convention centre space, number of major convention centres, and number of meetings held. In addition, an increasingly important function of a city is the space for consumption due to the post-industrial and globalizing trends (Clark, 2004). Entertainment, an emerging urban growth sector, appears to rise as the elite workers living in urban area induced the quality of life demands. The sector was therefore considered as one of the dimensions. The wide range and format of entertainment posed difficulties in having readily available data for analysis. The gaming sector, one of the significant components as a form of entertainment in cities, was chosen due to the availability of measurable data. The number of casinos and gaming revenues were the measures of the gaming sector. A total of 17 measures were subsumed in examining the tourism city similarity.

The next step was to obtain values for the MDS analysis. Secondary data from the year 2013 that related to the 17 measures was utilized. The most recent figures were obtained as replacement if the values in 2013 were unavailable. There were many challenges in obtaining data from the official channels. The major reason was the unavailability of city-wise data from the national statistics bureaus. Alternatively, the secondary data was attained through the annual reports and in-house surveys from relevant statutory authorities, international and regional associations, consultancy firms, press and a well-received user generated content website regarding travel advisory.

3.3.2.2 Multidimensional Scaling: The Case of 10 Asian Tourism Cities

The 17 X 10 city similarity matrix shown in Table 3.2 was submitted to the ALSCAL MDS program within the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 22.0. ALSCAL MDS program was deemed as the most approach MDS program given that it has theoretically no limits to the sample size (Fenton & Pearce, 1988). The two-dimensional solution was the best. There was little improvement in either stress scores or the r-squared

values for the multiple dimensional solutions. The SPSS output offered two indicators demonstrating the goodness of fit of the solution, namely the Kruskal's stress figure and squared correlation coefficient (r-square) values. The Kruskal's stress level is 0.00405, fulfilling the threshold of below 0.05 (Diekhoff, 1992). The r-square index of 0.99996 was deemed to be good for metric scaling since the closer the value to 1 means the better the solution (Meyer, Heath, Eaves, & Chakravarti, 2005). Table 3.3 shows the list of the 10 city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration while Figure 3.3 is the graphic output of the perceptual map from the MDS analysis.

Table 3.2 Tourism city similarity matrix: The case of 10 Asian cities

	Bangkok	Beijing	Hong Kong	Jakarta	Kuala Lumpur	Macao	Delhi	Seoul	Taipei	Tokyo
Tourism Sector Attributes										
International tourist arrivals ('000)	17,468	4,503	25,587	2,194	11,182	14,269	3,672	8,619	6,692	4,595
International tourist receipts (USD billion)	15.8	5.42	8	1.4	7.3	7.46	1.7	10.8	9.6	6.3
Major attractions	139	697	224	27	58	95	176	131	122	605
Number of amusement/ theme parks	0	0	3	3	1	2	1	4	2	6
Hotel Sector Attributes										
Number of hotels	470	625	251	138	140	73	454	113	170	394
Number of guest rooms	48,983	105,047	73,807	5,520	35,141	29,725	21,121	21,911	6,800	53,256
Air Sector Attributes										
Number of International airport	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Passenger Volume (million passengers)	66.5	83.7	63.3	60.1	47.5	5.03	36.88	41.5	30.7	110.5
Aircraft movement	327,749	567,759	372,040	369,740	325,537	41,997	313,958	271,224	194,239	221,692
Number of connecting destinations	155	244	180	64	117	37	115	51	129	117
Numbers of airlines serving	80	94	100	52	69	27	64	94	50	50
Air cargo (million metric tons)	1.27	1.8	4.38	0.34	0.68	0.26	0.6	2.46	1.97	1.95
MICE Sector Attributes										
Convention Centre Space (square meters)	50,400	23,000	169,500	2,462	19,076	1,853	71,775	36,000	1,858	722,290
Number of major convention centres	1	2	3	1	2	1	3	1	1	2
Number of meetings	93	105	89	26	68	1030	35	125	78	79
Gaming Sector Attributes										
Number of casinos	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	3	0	0
Gaming revenues (USD million)	0	0	0	0	0	45,918	0	744	0	0

Source: UNLV Centre for Gaming Research, 2014; Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad, 2014; Malaysia Airports, 2015; Beijing Capital International Airport, 2014; Airports Council International, 2014a; World Airport Codes, 2015; Euromonitor International, 2015; Macau

International Airport Company Limited, 2015; Airports of Thailand, 2015; Travel China Guide, 2015; Soekaron-Hatta International Airport, 2015; Hong Kong International Airport, 2015; Indonesia's Airport Company, 2015; Statistics and Census Service, Government of Macao Special Administration Region, 2015; Tourism Commission, 2015; Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, 2014; Incheon International Airport Corporation, 2015; Cvent, 2015

Table 3.3 List of the 10 city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration

City Stimulus	X-Axis	Y-Axis
Bangkok	0.36	0.12
Beijing	0.68	1.49
Hong Kong	-0.29	0.47
Jakarta	0.66	0.28
Kuala Lumpur	0.53	0.072
Macao	0.42	-1.55
Delhi	0.23	0.033
Seoul	0.40	-0.23
Taipei	0.54	-0.70
Tokyo	-3.53	0.01

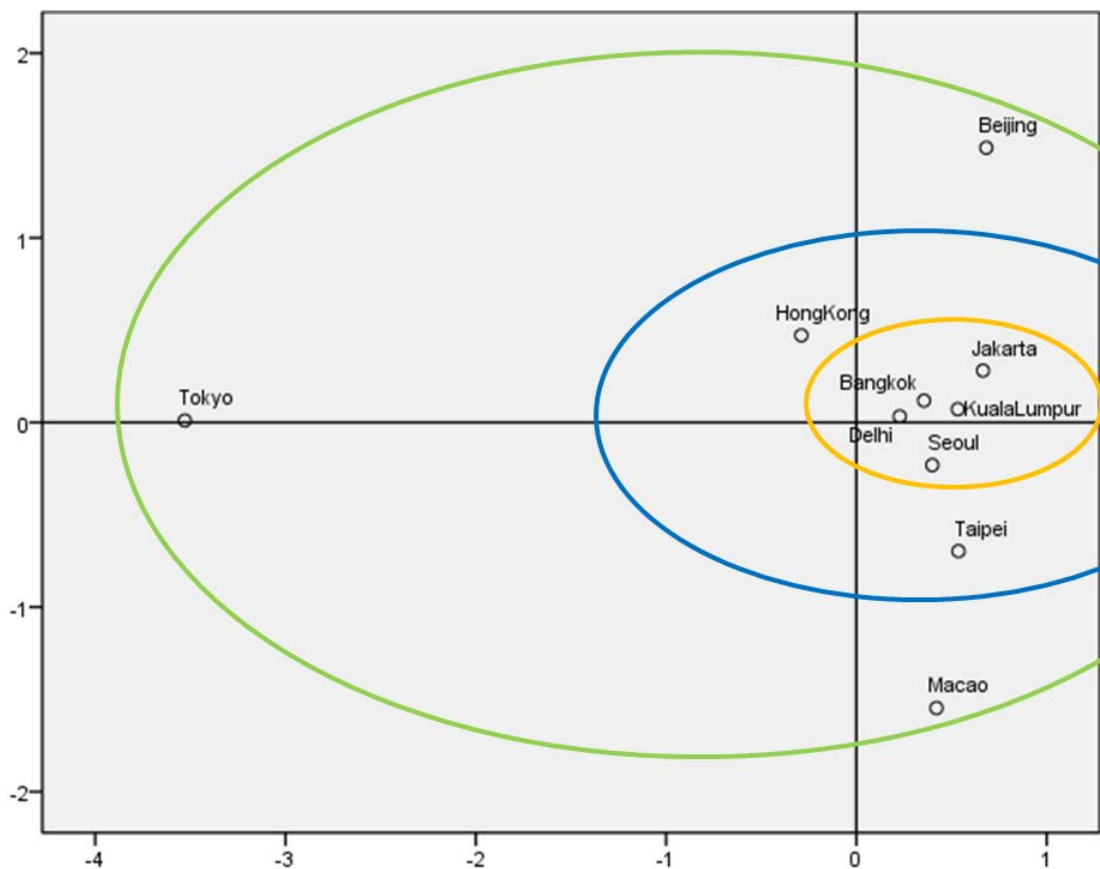


Figure 3.3 Perceptual map: The case of 10 Asian tourism cities

The coordinate of individual cities shown on the perceptual map is a composite view of the 17 attributes. The key to interpret the perceptual map is to recognize the points which are close in space, given that the distance between points reflect the degree of similarity. Following the principle, the perceptual map (Figure 3.3) informed three patterns across the 10 tourism cities in Asia – the exemplar (within the orange circle), marginal outlier (within the blue circle) and outlier (within the green circle). Five out of the 10 cities grouping into a cluster on the map were conceived as exemplars. They were Bangkok, Delhi, Jakarta, Kuala Lumpur and Seoul, indicating that these five cities shared certain level of similarity. Diekhoff (1992) suggested a common practice in interpreting the MDS output in looking for attributes on the clustered points that show the similarity. An investigation of the attributes indicated that these five cities were close in the air sector attributes. Despite the varying international visitor arrivals, the five cities all received similar level of passenger volume (ranging from 36.88 to 60.1 million passengers per annum) and had similar extent of aircraft movement (ranging from 271,224 to 369, 740) and serving 52 to 94 airlines in their international airports.

In addition, Hong Kong and Taipei are classified as outliers while the remaining three cities, Beijing, Macao and Tokyo are the more extreme outliers. These cities are clearly very dissimilar to the exemplars. Each city stands alone in one of the five attributes which makes them being apart from each other. Hong Kong stood out because of the highest number of airlines serving the cities and the volume of air cargo handled. Taipei was different from other cities as the figures across the tourism, hotel, air, MICE and gaming sector attributes were relatively small. Beijing was different in terms of the leading number of hotels, guestrooms and connecting destinations of the airports. Macao outperformed the nine cities in the areas of its gaming sector, including the number of casinos and gaming revenues. The great difference were also attributed to the least air passenger volume, aircraft movement, connecting destinations, number of airlines serving and air cargo, plus the leading number of meetings held. Tokyo was unique basically because of having two international airports and massive convention centre space. The three patterns identified from the MDS output provided a clear signpost of the similarity and dissimilarity among the ten cities. The finding was conducive for sampling of cases in pursuing the present study.

3.3.2.3 Multidimensional Scaling: A Microscopic Perspective

To ensure that the approach used was robust, another two rounds of MDS analysis were performed. Based on the first MDS results, this section takes a microscopic perspective by conducting MDS analysis with the six clustered cities identified. As shown in Figure 3.1, the six cities are Bangkok, Hong Kong, Jarkata, Kuala Lumplur, Delhi and Seoul. The city similarity matrix for these six cities derived from Table 3.1 was submitted to ALSCAL MDS program for analysis. The Kruskal's stress level was 0.01209 and the r-square index was 0.99938. The two goodness of fit indicator were deemed satisfactory. Table 3.4 shows the list of the six city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration while Figure 3.4 is the graphic output of the perceptual map from the MDS analysis. As shown in Figure 3.4, the perceptual map reveals that Bangkok, Delhi and Kuala Lumpur are the exemplars (within the orange circle). Hong Kong, Jakarta and Seoul are marginal outliers (within the blue circle). The performance of Hong Kong in terms of the tourism and MICE attributes far outweighed the remaining cities. Jakarta, in comparison, under performed in these two areas. Seoul was unique because it was the only city having the entertainment attributes among the comparison set.

Table 3.4 The six city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration

City Stimulus	X-Axis	Y-Axis
Bangkok	0.07	-0.05
Hong Kong	-2.45	-0.15
Jakarta	1.04	-1.15
Kuala Lumplur	0.75	-0.15
Delhi	-0.06	0.48
Seoul	0.84	1.02

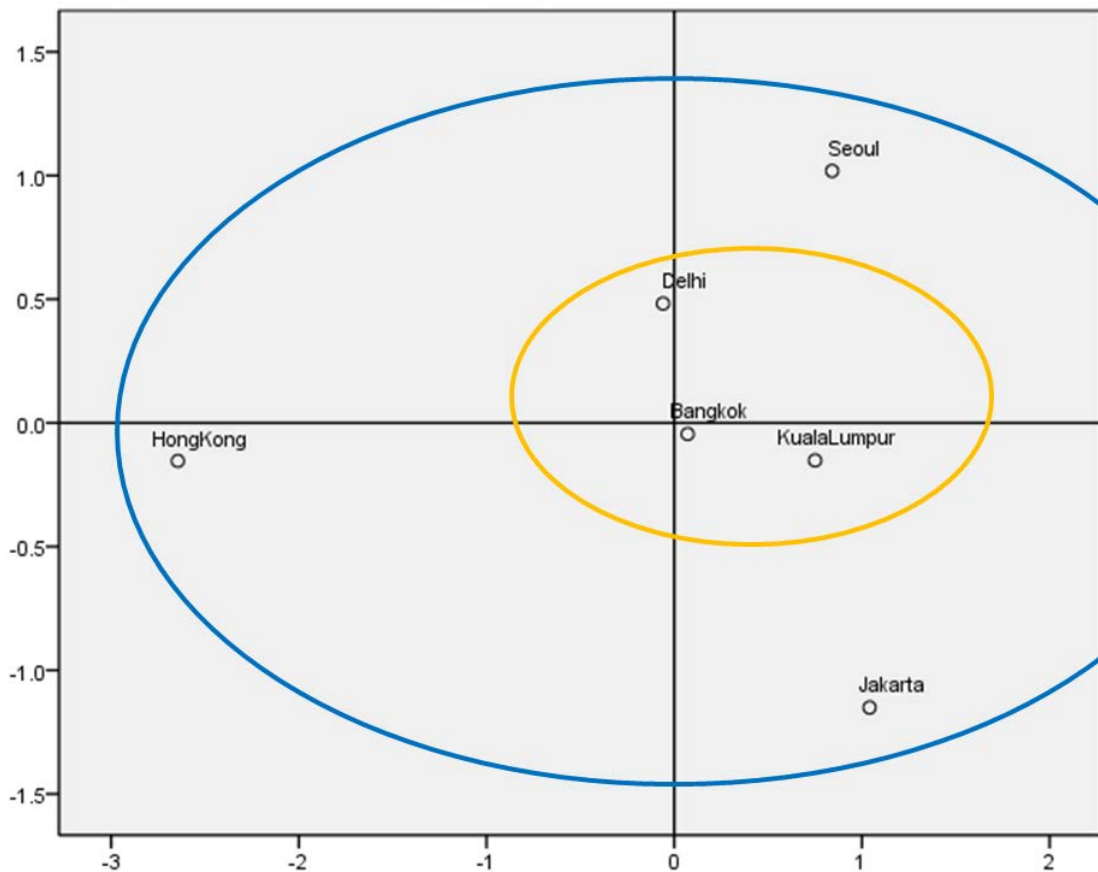


Figure 3.4 Perceptual map: A microscopic perspective

3.3.2.4 Multidimensional Scaling: A Macroscopic Perspective

This section takes a wider perspective to ensure the strategic selection of cases. The third round of MDS analysis incorporates a broader coverage of Asian cities for analysis. Seventeen Asian tourism cities are chosen for the third round of MDS analysis. The chosen cities were with the highest visitor arrivals in 2013 in Asia (World Tourism Organization, 2014). It serves to justify the selection of best appropriate cases to answer the research questions. The 17 cities are Bangkok, Beijing, Busan, Colombo, Delhi, Hong Kong, Jakarta, Kuala Lumpur, Macao, Manila, Osaka, Phnom Penh, Shanghai, Seoul, Singapore, Taipei and Tokyo. These cities are geographically located in North Asia, Southeast Asia and South Asia respectively. Due to the unavailability of data, only 14 variables are utilized to undertake the MDS analysis. Details of the attributes are tabulated in Table 3.5. The three eliminated measures are number of meetings, international tourist receipts and connecting destinations of the international airport. Details of the city similarity matrix are tabulated in Table. As advised by the MDS results, the Kruskal's

stress level was 0.00721 and the r-square index was 0.99987. The two goodness of fit indexes were satisfactory. Table 3.6 shows the list of the 17 city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration. Figure 3.5 is the graphic output of the perceptual map of the MDS analysis.

Table 3.5 Tourism city similarity matrix: The case of 17 Asian cities

	Bangkok	Beijing	Hong Kong	Jakarta	Kuala Lumpur	Macao	Delhi	Seoul	Taipei	Tokyo	Manila	Singapore	Phnom Penh	Colombo	Shanghai	Busan	Osaka
Tourism Sector Attributes																	
International tourist arrivals ('000)	17,468	4,503	25,587	2,194	11,182	14,269	3,672	8,619	6,692	4,595	3139 (2012)	22,455	1972.9	1247.8	8175 (2011)	2801.5	2,600
Major attractions	139	697	224	27	58	95	176	131	122	605	48	185	30	43	432	29	250
Number of amusement/ theme parks	0	0	3	3	1	2	1	4	2	6		2	1	0	4	0	1
Hotel Sector Attributes																	
Number of hotels	470	625	251	138	140	73	454	113	170	394	82 (2012)	113	123	21	623	50	139
Number of guest rooms	48,983	105,047	73,807	5,520	35,141	29,725	21,121	21,911	6,800	53,256	15141 (2012)	13118.4	9,900	3,149	110,555	6,910	23,884
MICE Sector Attributes																	
Convention Centre Space (square metres)	50,400	23,000	169,500	2,462	19,076	1,853	71,775	36,000	1,858	722,290	70,000	123,000	1,000,000	4,330	24,991	285,118	55,742
Number of major convention centres	1	2	3	1	2	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	
Air Section Attributes																	

Number of International airport	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Passenger Volume (million passengers)	66.5	83.7	63.3	60.1	47.5	5.03	36.88	41.5	30.7	110.5	32.9	53.7	0.41	7.34	89.62 (2014)	9.67	0.18	
Aircraft movement	327,749	567,759	372,040	369,740	325,537	41,997	313,958	271,224	194,239	221,692	237,050	343,800	26,583	52178	655500 (2014)	77665	133296	
Numbers of airlines serving	80	94	100	52	69	27	64	94	50	50	60	100	40	27	94 (2014)	17	76	
Air cargo (million metric tonnes)	1.27	1.8	4.38	0.34	0.68	0.26	0.6	2.46	1.97	1.95	0.41	1.84	0.31	0.19	2.93 (2014)	0.12	0.67 (2012)	
Gaming Sector Attributes																		
Number of casinos	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	3	0	0	5	2	1	7	0	2	0	
Gaming revenues (USD million)	0	0	0	0	0	45,918	0	744	0	0	1536.7	4,111	344.9	300 (2010)	0	130.3	0	

Source: UNLV Centre for Gaming Research, 2014; Malaysia Airports Holdings Berhad, 2014; Malaysia Airports, 2015; Beijing Capital International Airport, 2014; Airports Council International, 2014b; World Airport Codes, 2015; Euromonitor International, 2015; Macau International Airport Company Limited, 2015; Airports of Thailand, 2015; Travel China Guide, 2015; Soekaron-Hatta International Airport, 2015; Hong Kong International Airport, 2015; Indonesia's Airport Company, 2015; Statistics and Census Service, Government of Macao Special Administration Region, 2015; Tourism Commission, 2015; Census and Statistics Department, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, 2014; Incheon International Airport Corporation, 2015; Bremner, 2015; Jones Lang LaSalle Property Consultants Pte Ltd, 2015; World Casino Directory, 2015; Department of Tourism Philippines, 2012 & 2013; Manila International Airport Authority, 2015; Shanghai Airport Authority, 2015; World Tourism Organization, 2012; Centre for Gaming Research, 2015a & 2015b; Changi Airport, 2015; Busan Metropolitan City, 2015; Korea Airports Corporation, 2015; Ministry of Tourism, 2014; Cambodia Airport, 2015; Kansai International Airport, 2015; New Kansai International Airport Company, 2015; Osaka Government Tourism Bureau,

2014;NagaCorp Ltd., 2015; Katunayake International Airport, 2015; Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2014; Sri Lanka Airlines, 2015; Robinson, 2013; Huot, 2014; Philippine Amusement and Gaming Cooperation, 2014 & 2015; Cvent, 2015; Incredible India, 2015; Japan Airport Terminal Corporation Limited, 2015; Indira Gandhi International Airport, 2015; Singapore Tourism Board, 2015; Taoyuan Airport Cooperation, 2015

Table 3.6 The 17 city stimuli and their coordinates in the two-dimensional configuration

City Stimulus	X-Axis	Y-Axis
Bangkok	0.53	0.13
Beijing	0.99	1.10
Hong Kong	0.10	0.48
Jakarta	0.78	0.19
Kuala Lumpur	0.66	0.05
Macao	0.33	-1.15
Delhi	0.42	0.07
Seoul	0.51	-0.16
Taipei	0.54	-0.53
Tokyo	-2.42	0.63
Manila	0.32	-0.26
Singapore	0.25	0.26
Phnom Penh	-3.86	0.18
Colombo	0.33	-1.12
Shanghai	1.11	1.47
Busan	-0.81	-0.61
Osaka	0.23	-0.70

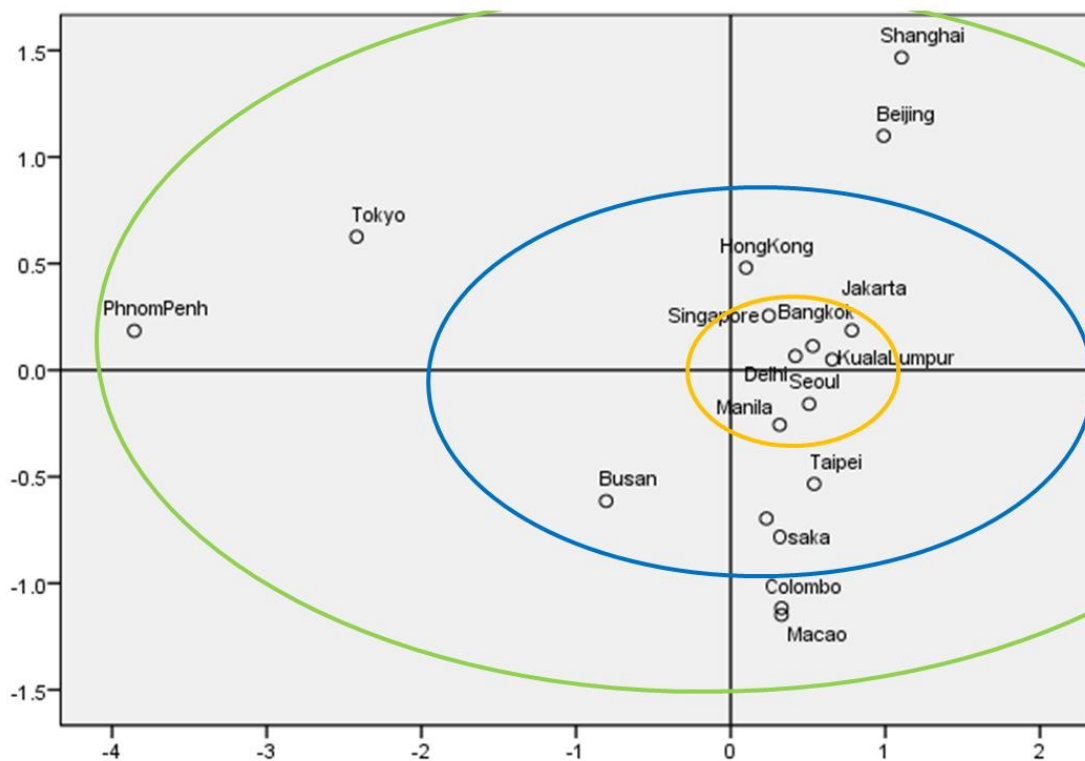


Figure 3.5 Perceptual map: A macroscopic perspective

As shown in Figure 3.5, four Asian cities Beijing, Phnom Penh, Shanghai and Tokyo are the outliers (within the green circle). Busan and Hong Kong are considered as the marginal outliers (within the blue circle), while the remaining 11 cities are the exemplars (within the orange circle). Informed by the three-rounds of MDS results, the shortlisted Asian tourism cities are basically categorized into three groups, exemplars, marginal outliers and outliers.

The initial plan of the researcher was to appoint one city in the exemplar, marginal outlier and outlier categories respectively as units of analysis. The researcher recognized that being in the network is important for conducting interviewees. Due to financial limitation and geographical proximity, the researcher attended an industry conference in Macao, one of the outlier city, in order to get in touch with potential interviewees. The attempt was considered as a failure due to very low response rate. Attempts to contact the public and private sectors via sending email invitations in the remaining outlier cities were also in vain. To be pragmatic, the researcher decided to choose one city in the marginal outlier and exemplar categories respectively for further investigation.

In the present study, exemplars and outliers are fitted in the criteria of the paradigmatic case and extreme case. As the research aim to unveil some development trends, the most appropriate yet critical groups of stakeholders are undoubtedly the power holders from the supply side. In the consideration of the difficulty in accessing the power holders, Bangkok was the choice of the paradigmatic case sampling strategy while Hong Kong was selected as an extreme case. The researcher was able to access these powerful stakeholders because of some personal links between the power holders in these two cities. The personal connection opened up the interview possibilities and streamlined the bureaucracy in conducting interviews. In conclusion, the context, Asian, as well as the two units of analysis, Bangkok and Hong Kong, were selected for further analysis based on the systematic process of strategic selection of cases.

3.4 Research Strategy: Grounded theory

Grounded theory refers to a research method that “a theory developed from successive conceptual analysis of data” (Charmaz, 2013). It can be used as one of the various strategies in one single study. Grounded theory steers researchers to go back and forth

between data collection and analysis. Each process informs and advances one another. Adopting constant comparative methods throughout the analytic, empirical investigation and writing process sharpen the emerging hypotheses and theories (Stern, 1980; Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Grounded theory is found useful in empirical scrutiny and analytic precision which fosters the creation of nuanced analyses of how the connections work in a specific context. The strategy aids researchers to explicate the participants' implicit meanings and actions, enhance the abstract level of analysis conceptualization, and advance the attentiveness to structural, temporal and situational contexts. "Good science should be retained", said Corbin and Strauss (1990). Grounded theory literally reflects such scientific canon in regards to its significance, theory-observation, compatibility, the ability to generalize, reproducibility, precision and verification.

Grounded theory derives its theoretical underpinnings from pragmatism (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Researchers may not necessary subscribe to this sociological orientation but it is important to realize the traditions on which grounded theory is built. Pragmatism concerns change. Social phenomena are dynamic and continually changing in response to prevailing conditions. Grounded theory follows the same principal that the method is to build change through a process of analysis. The method is very popular used in health and education research. Its application in the tourism literature is not common but is gaining attention. Recent works include Martin and Woodside's (2008) investigation in international tourism behaviour, as well as the study of Papathanassis and Knolle (2001) on online holiday reviews.

Set procedures in carrying out grounded theory are recommended to give the study rigor. The manner of data collection and how researchers deal with data matter. Charmaz (2013) delineated the nine actions:

1. Conduct data collection and analysis simultaneously in an iterative process
2. Analyse actions and processes rather than themes and structure
3. Use comparative methods
4. Draw on data (e.g. narratives and descriptions) in service of developing new conceptual categories

5. Develop inductive categories through systematic data analysis
6. Emphasize theory construction rather than description application of current theories
7. Engage in theoretical sampling
8. Search for variation in the studied categories or process
9. Pursue developing a category rather than covering a specific empirical topic

Grounded theorists apply this distinctive logic. Such methods and procedures are decisive in defining the properties of categories, specifying the inter-relationships, and outlining the consequences of the processes. The reviewed literature is not used to develop hypotheses. Instead, the theory emerges from the data and the literature can be used to sensitise the researcher to existing studies and theories (Weed, 2005). In this thesis, the researcher was mindful about the rigorous procedure when performing data collection and analysis. The adopted tactics are reported in the 3.5.2.1 Sampling and 3.5.2.2. Coding sections.

3.5 Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

3.5.1 Document Analysis

Document analysis is a commonly used research method in the social science discipline. The method is often employed by ethnographers because it provides rich veins for analysis (Hamersley & Atkinson, 1995). “Document must be studied as socially situated products”, noted Scott (1990, p.34). Guba and Lincoln (1981, p.34) defined document analysis as “any written material other than a record that was not prepared specifically in response to some requests from the investigator”. Guba and Lincoln (1998) also suggested a distinction between document and record. Record is “any written statement prepared by an individual or an agency for the purpose of attesting to an event or providing an accounting” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). It implies that pursuing document analysis is more than reporting the recording facts. Instead, it is a reflexive process revealing the theory underpinnings in the context.

A broad range of scholarly and grey literature concerning city tourism was reviewed to set the scene and identify elements that appear related to the issue of concern. The purpose was to familiarize the researcher with contemporary issues, situations, opportunities and challenges of city tourism in Asia and Pacific region. Scholarly literature published under the peer-reviewed domain guarantees the rigorous refereeing process and some assurance of quality (McKercher, 2008). A preliminary overview of scholarly literature review enhanced the credibility and informed the establishment of research questions. In addition, one of the core principles of the case study method stressed the importance of using multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 1994). One concern relating to time is that the issue of city tourism is so recent that commentary has yet to appear in academic literature (Prideaux & Whyte, 2013). Given the contemporary nature of issues in city tourism, as well as the long publishing time of scholarly literature, the grey literature was also taken into consideration in the present thesis due to the time element. The terminology, grey literature, was defined by Auger (1998). It was identified at the Third International Conference on Grey Literature, the terminology, grey literature, referred to "that which is produced on all levels of governmental, academics, business and industry in print and electronic formats, but which is not controlled by commercial publishers" (Hopewell, McDonald, Clarke, & Egger, 2008, p.2). The inclusion of grey literature contributes to overcoming some of the publications bias stemming from the selective availability of data. Conference abstracts, research reports, book chapters, unpublished data, dissertations, policy documents and personal correspondence are examples. Much of the discussion derived from grey literature was timely, giving the researcher useful and updated insights from a destination perspective. Table 3.7 presents the list of grey literature reviewed.

Table 3.7 List of reviewed grey literature

Report	Source
International tourist to hit 1.8 billion by 2030.	World Tourism Organization, 2011
Key indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2012	Asian Development Bank, 2012
The top ten busiest airports	Kable Intelligence Limited, 2012
Urban agglomerations 2011	United Nations, 2012
World urbanization prospects: The 2011 revision	United Nations, 2012
Current market outlook 2013-2032	Boeing Commercial Airplanes, 2013
Bangkok city review	Euromonitor, 2013
Assessment report on Hong Kong's capacity to receive tourists	Hong Kong Commerce and Economic Development Bureau, 2013
MasterCard global destination cities index	MasterCard Worldwide Insights, 2013
The challenge	United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2013
Flight movement statistics	Aeronautical Radio of Thailand Ltd., 2014
Future development	Airport Authority Hong Kong, 2014
Annual report 2012/2013	BTS Group Holdings Public Company Limited
Hong Kong Economic Impact Report	World Travel & Tourism Council, 2014
Thailand Economic Impact Report	World Travel & Tourism Council, 2014

3.5.2 In-depth Interviews

Stakeholders' perception towards tourism development is a common research topic in tourism and hospitality academic research. A handful of examples can be quoted, such as tourism impacts in rural area (e.g., Byrd, Bosley & Dronberger, 2009), social impacts of the Football World Cup (e.g., Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006), and residents' viewpoint of a particular tourism phenomenon (e.g., Siu, Lee & Leung, 2013). This type of research is accomplished by reviewing literature, conducting interviews or using a

questionnaire. For future tourism development, the in-depth interview is considered as the most appropriate way of obtaining insights. The in-depth interview is a type of interview which researchers elicit information to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013). It involves asking interviewees open-ended questions and probing wherever necessary.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998), the in-depth interview is well suited in situations where (1) the research interests and questions are clear; (2) quantitative sampling method stand-alone is unable to address the research aim; (3) the researcher is only of interest to the key people in the setting. The key research aim is to identify the key drivers that may shape the future city tourism development of Asian cities. The issues are abstract and hard to measure merely by collecting numerical forms of data. In addition, the research aim concerns high level decision making by the public and private sector. Those decision makers have to be acquainted with the industry, externalities in the macro environment, and long-term strategic planning. Given the confluence of these three principles, the in-depth interview is deemed appropriate.

The use of in-depth interview questions was the empirical qualitative data collection instrument to determine power holders' perceptions about the drivers directing the future of Asian city tourism. The instrument seeks valuable contextual insights by allowing opportunities for interviewees to elaborate their viewpoints directly and explicitly. Further, the approach enables the interviewer to clarify points by using probing questions (Gaskell, 2000). During the social interaction process, the researcher plays an active role in interpreting the verbal responses and non-verbal gesture of interviewees so as to reveal the genuine meaning rather than merely obtaining the surface meaning. The generated data may be further interpreted by the researcher, but the participant's own interpretation is more critical.

An invitation email accompanied by an interview kit (see Appendix 1), was sent to potential interviewees. In the interview kit, the biography of the researcher, background of the study, tourism and city forecasts and interview questions were listed. Ten key questions were placed in the interview kit as shown in Table 3.8. The research questions were informed by both the scholarly and grey literature review, as well as discussion and approval from a chief supervisor. A good piece of qualitative research provides rich, relevant and detailed opinions from participants (Kvale, 1995). By informing the

interviewees the questions in advance, the researcher aimed to ensure sufficient time for respondents to come up with thoughtful and high quality answers.

Table 3.8 Key questions for in-depth interviews

Key interview questions
1. Generally speaking, how do you think city tourism in Asia/ Bangkok/ Hong Kong is performing at the moment?
2. Do you think the city experience is an important one for tourists? If yes, in what way it is important?
3. In the future, what do you think will be the key types of experiences attracting people to cities, e.g. events, nature, heritage, shopping, entertainment, education, medical etc.?
4. How would you define “long term” in terms of years?
5. What are the major factors affecting Asian city/ Bangkok/ Hong Kong tourism in the next 20 years?
6. What are the main barriers to future growth?
7. What do you think cities in general should do to improve the delivery of these experiences?
8. Do you think tourism strategies should be a part of city government decision-making? If so, how do you think this can be achieved?
9. What is your role in the future of city tourism?
10. How city tourism can be used to improve the quality of life of the local population?

Considering that interviewees are power holders in the public and private sectors, the interview procedures need to be flexible. The majority of interviews were conducted on a face-to-face basis and four were conducted via Internet teleconferencing. Two interviewees responded in written format due to time limitation. During the interviews, questions were asked in an orderly sequence. Some questions were added on the spot for probing and clarification purposes. All interviews were conducted in English and audio taped with the consent of interviewees. All recordings were transcribed verbatim for manual coding. The duration of interviews lasted from 30 minutes to one and a half hours. The interviews were performed from July 2014 until data saturation was reached in December 2014.

3.5.2.1 Sampling

The sampling strategy influences on the scientific rigor of research in terms of validity and reliability (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2008). The sampling strategy began with employing selective sampling. This nonprobability sampling method aims to identify and sample populations who are likely to have sufficient knowledge and experience related to the topic of study. As recognized by sociologists, individuals are not equally good at observing, understanding and interpreting their own and others' behaviour (Jackson, 1970). Qualitative researchers acknowledge that some informants are more perceptive than others and provide more insights. Schatzman and Strauss (1973) claimed that the appointment of sampled populations and setting via selective sampling is necessary prior to data collection. The process of selective sampling is described as "tentative theoretical jumping off points from which to begin theory development" (Thompson, 1999, p.816).

The sampling process continued beyond the initial participant selection. As informed by interviewees from selective sampling, the study moved into theoretical sampling when concepts begin to emerge. Theoretical sampling happens when "the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges" (Glaser, 1978, p.36). The initial selective sampling decision for appointments with eligible interviewees was based on the relevance of the organizations in city tourism development and with relevant expertise.

Samples were then theory driven as theoretical sampling necessitated building theory from the emerging data and selecting a new sample to elaborate the theory. Once the initial data collection commenced, the researcher was led by “all directions which seem relevant and work” (Glaser, 1978, p.46). Charmaz (2000, p.519) remarked that “The aim of theoretical sampling is to refine ideas, not to increase the size of the original sample”. It implies that only key informants are permissible and the sample remains small. Some viable tactics of theoretical sampling include being open by changing interviewing styles or participants; following up on recurring patterns; and inquiring key participants in more detail information that seem central to the emerging theory (Glaser, 1978).

Following the principles of selective and theoretical sampling, the research started with contacting key informants with relevance and expertise about city tourism from the supply side perspective based on a general sociological perspective. The very initial round of interviewees was from international and regional tourism-related associations. As knowledge emerged and advised by interviewees, a second round of interview invitations was sent out to gain insights from the recommended organizations and practitioners with certain expertise who went beyond a tourism centric background. At the first stage of the research, 11 semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with key informants from the supply side of city tourism were interviews. They were from tourism-related international associations and private sectors at global or regional level.

Similar sampling procedure applied to the second stage, and the other two units of analysis. The initial interview invitations went to tourism-related government authorities and major tourism attractions based on selective sampling strategy. As new categories and sub-categories of knowledge emerged, the next round of interview invitations extended to city planning authorities and concerned stakeholders. Theoretical sampling is generally utilized as the study flows and decisions are made on recruiting participants with differing expertise to explore multiple dimensions in the area of study (Marshall, 1996). The sampling process involved continuously adding individuals until reaching theoretical saturation, meaning that the theory is fully represented by the data. Though it is hard to predict the actual sample size for theoretical saturation, typical studies using

theoretical sampling strategy have a sample sizes ranging from 10 to 60 persons (Starks & Trinidad, 2007).

In this regard, the sample size does not matter and may vary large due to limitations of time. The adequacy of the number of interviewees is not only depending on the amount of data but also the quality of data (Jeon, 2004). Altogether 28 in-depth interviews were pursued across the context and two units of analysis. Ten interviewees were from statutory bodies, 6 from public sectors and the remaining 12 from the private sector. Due to confidentiality considerations, the name, affiliated association and contact information of all interviewees were not disclosed. Only the positions of interviewees were revealed. Table 3.9 shows the interviewee code and their corresponding positions held. Grounded theory celebrates the dynamics and free flow of theory emerging throughout the data collection and analysis process (Stern, 1980). A diagram, shown in Figure 3.6, shows the contact of primary interviewees and consequently the secondary interviewees by following the emerging theories during the data collection and analysis process. For instance, during the conversation with the head of the department of tourism in Bangkok, the interviewee mentioned the important role of public transport in facilitation of the tourism function in cities. The importance of the transport component in tourism cities emerged, guiding the researcher to invite interviewees from the public transport sector for further investigation.

Table 3.9 Interviewee code and their corresponding positions (N=28)

Interviewee code	Interviewees' positions
A1	Regional Tourism Association Foundation Trustees
A2	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
A3	Urban Development Specialist
A4	Regional Director of Airports International Council
A5	Senior Officer in Regional Infrastructure Division
A6	Regional Head of International Air Transport Association
A7	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Individual Property)
A8	Head of Regional Tourism Association
A9	Travel Trade Journalist
A10	Head of Regional Tourism City Promotion
H1	Airline Entrepreneur
H2	Division Head of MICE Venue
H3	Senior Officer of City Planning
H4	Theme Park Entrepreneur
H5	Airline Entrepreneur
H6	Senior Operations Officer of Civil Aviation
H7	Head of Foreign Invest Promotion
H8	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
H9	Hospitality and Tourism Entrepreneur
H10	Head of Cruise Terminal
H11	MICE Consultant
H12	Quality Director of Retail Entrepreneur
B1	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B2	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B3	Head of Tourism Authority
B4	Division Head of Public Transport
B5	Head of Monitoring and Evaluation
B6	Head of Department of Tourism

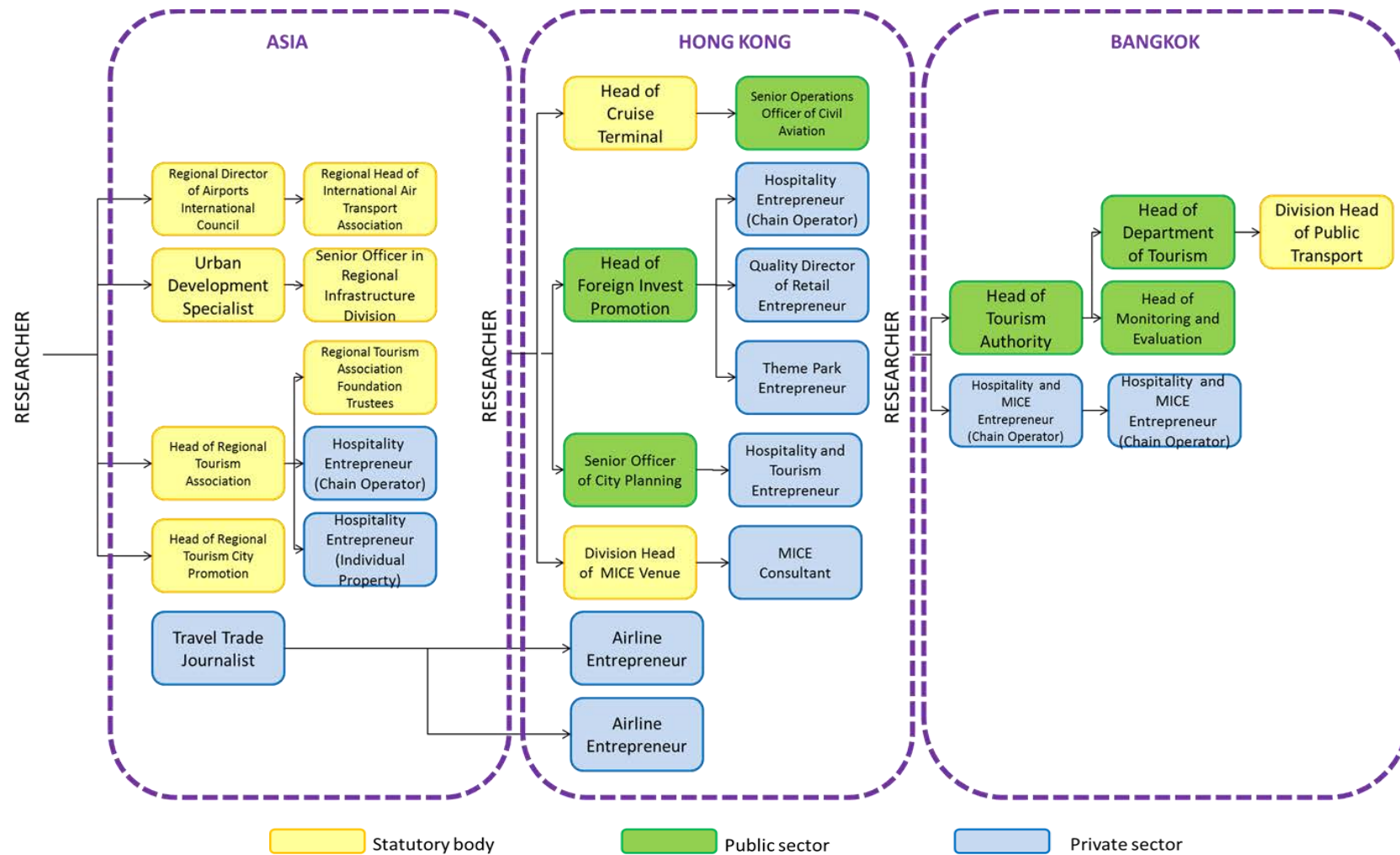


Figure 3.6 Interviewees diagram with the emerging theory

3.5.2.2 Coding

Coding is a key analytic process involving the researcher. The grounded theory method has a rigorous coding process for researchers to follow. The three distinctive coding approaches are open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Open coding is an interpretive process of breaking down the data analytically. It is the conventional way of thinking about the phenomena reflected in the data. The data is conceptually labelled during the process of comparing against the similarities and differences. Those conceptually similar data are grounded together to form categories and sub-categories. An important technique, constant comparison, should be utilized to during open coding in order to break through subjectivity of researcher. Constant comparison refers to simultaneous comparison of all observed incidents within the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The phenomena recorded and classified during the process are also compared across different categories. This process undergoes continuous refinement throughout the analysis process and continuously feeding back into the process of category coding. Constant comparison not only helps to develop categories but also enable the precision of a grounded theory. During the data analysis, constant comparison was frequently performed in identifying the major drivers. The concepts and themes mentioned by interviews showed significance under different categories. The researchers repeatedly compared the ideas and subsumed them under the most justifiable categories that best reflected the ideas of interviewees.

Axial coding is “a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories” (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p.96). It focuses on the relevancy of the categories and the context. It helps researcher to rethink systematically about the data and the interaction between categories. Selective coding is the last coding process in grounded theory methodology. It involves the selection of a core category that accounts for most of the variation of the central phenomenon of concern and the integration of other categories. The integration and refinement helps the theoretical constructions. These three coding processes were performed to systematically analyze the qualitative data collected.

3.6 Validity and Researcher's Self-Reflexivity

The validity of qualitative research has come to the fore in contemporary dialogue on research methodology. Establishing validity standards in qualitative study is challenging due to incorporating both subjectivity and rigor as well as ensuring the creativity into the scientific process (Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001). Altheide and Johnson (1994) defined validity as the truthfulness of findings. The soundness and rigor research was considered by Maxshall and Rossman (1995, p.143), 'all research must respond to canons that stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of the project can be evaluated'. The initial conceptualization of validity was directly transposed from the standards of quantitative studies based on a positivistic philosophy (LeCompte & Goetz, 1984). Nonetheless, this was found problematic as it is incompatible with the underlying tenets of qualitative research. Unlike quantitative study, the interpretation of qualitative research varies depending on entirely different epistemological and ontological assumptions (Hammersly, 1992).

Nevertheless, the way of dealing with validity is vital in qualitative research. Maxwell (2013) underlines two validity threats, researcher bias and reactivity, as particular events that could possibility lead to invalid conclusions. Researcher bias connects with the problem of subjectivity. Qualitative research is subjective to a certain extent; what is important to understand how the researcher's values and expectations affect the conclusions of the study. Another validity threat is reactivity, pointing to the influence of the researcher on the setting. A researcher is part of the world he/ she investigates. Eliminating the actual influence and perceptual lens of the researcher is impossible. Validity in qualitative research is not the result of indifference but integrity.

Some viable strategies were deployed as ways to deal with validity threats. Amongst a multitude of strategies, four were considered as appropriate for the present study, including prolonged engagement, rich data, triangulation and comparison. The following discussion illuminates the strategies in addressing validity threats and promoting self-reflexivity. Self-reflexivity is one of the most celebrated practices of qualitative research. It refers to an honest and authentic way the researchers reports their voices in relation to others (Tracy, 2010). It is an introspective process of assessing the researchers own biases and whether the researcher is well-suited to examine the chosen sites.

3.6.1 Pilot Coding

Pilot coding was employed as a mean to establish the validity of the qualitative investigation. The principal researcher and supervisors have research experience with tourism and hospitality discipline. Two individuals independently read and reread the in-depth interview transcripts for one unit of analysis before performing open, axial and selection coding. In the wake of the coding task, the two coders discussed their agreement with the categorization of the themes. Of the categories, items matched the coding proposed by the principal researcher. A high level of similarity (over 95%) was noted between the proposed categories by both the researcher and co-supervisor. The coding reliability was considered as adequacy. The principal researcher continued to code the remaining data independently.

3.6.2 Prolonged Engagement

Prolonged engagement at the investigation sites offers a more complete and holistic data than any other method (Becker & Geer, 1957). Data collected throughout the sustained presence of the researcher is more direct and less dependent on inferences; thus helps to rule out unreal associations and premature theories. Presence enables more opportunity to develop and test alternative propositions during the course of the research. In the present thesis, the two case study cities, Bangkok and Hong Kong the researcher personally has had prolonged engagement with the locations. The researcher is native Hong Konger and was born, raised and educated in this city. With 28-years living in Hong Kong, the researcher has a high level understanding and familiarity with the city. As for Bangkok, the researcher had worked in this city for six-month at the strategic intelligence centre in a regional tourism association. The working experience and the network built enable the researcher to have intensive involvement with the public and private sectors of tourism at regional level, as well as in Bangkok. Prolonged engagement with the case study cities helps the researcher to understand the operation of different issues and informs the varying perspectives from different stakeholders.

3.6.3 Rich Data

Rich data are products of detailed descriptive note taking of the specific events, offering a full picture of what is actually happening (Maxwell, 2013). For the intensive interviews, verbatim transcripts of the conversation provided a source of later treatment (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Twenty eight semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted and each interview conversation was transcribed word-by-word. The researcher then went through the five-step of thematic analysis. The process involved researcher and co-supervisor individually reading three randomly picked verbatim transcripts and identifying themes. The themes produced were then cross-checked against each other and produced the final conclusion upon mutual consent was reached. High consistency of the grouping was noted. The process was intended to ensure the capacity of the researcher to reach justifiable grounding. This set of data collected was perceived as a rich base of information developing a summary.

3.6.4 Triangulation

Triangulation means examining the same phenomenon or research question from different and independent sources (Decrop, 1999). Information from different sources is cross referenced to corroborate and illuminate research problems. Limiting personal and methodological biases which enhance a study's generalizability are another merit of triangulation. Campbell and Fiske (1959) introduced this notion as convergent validation of a multitrait-multi method matrix. Later, triangulation moved into qualitative research to ground the acceptance of qualitative approach, particularly in social science inquiry (e.g., Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979). Data and theoretical triangulation can be employed and combined for richer and more valid interpretations.

Data triangulation points to the use of wide variety of data sources in a single study (Decrop, 1999). One way to develop data triangulation involves collecting different types of materials, including both primary and secondary data. Another way is writing field notes during and immediately after primary data collection. In the present study, both primary and secondary data were collected to build the conclusion. Secondary data were of multiple types including textbooks, newspapers, trade magazines, government press releases, forecasting reports which were found in libraries, the Internet, personal archives

and organizational archives. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were the source of primary data collection. Note-taking was performed during the face-to-face conversation for recording the gestures and tones of voice of interviewees so as to reflect and remind the researcher of the importance of issues.

“Theoretical triangulation involved using multiple perspective to interpret a single set of data”, said Decrop (1999, p.160). Examining an issue from different disciplinary angles or theoretical perspectives is considered to be valuable in making comparisons and searching for alternative explanations to make sound conclusion (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In the inductive research design, interviewees from different sectors, backgrounds, disciplinary training and positions, such as city planning, airport management, non-profit associations, environment protection advocacy, banking, hospitality or tourism entrepreneurs, marketing agency, and shopping mall management were all involved in building the work. Interviewees from multiple perspectives would, arguably, perceive issues relating to city tourism from different angles, yielding different theoretical implications and contributions to the present thesis.

3.6.5 Comparison

Single setting qualitative studies or interviewing a group of interviewees with homogeneous background exhibits less contribution to the interpretability of findings (Maxwell, 2013). Explicit comparison of multicase or multisite studies is believed to improve validity in qualitative studies. Such comparisons help guard against observer biases and adds confidence to findings (Meyer, 2001). As stated in the research design, two cities located in the Asian region with different sizes were chosen for multisite comparison. In virtue of the desire of depth and pluralist perspective, interviewees from different sectors and backgrounds in individual cities were consulted. Comparison among the two carefully selected cases allows the researcher to draw on the experiences and lessons learnt in the settings to identify the crucial factors and the implications of the factors. Miles and Huberman (1994) further commented that contrasting cases contribute to specify how, where, why the phenomenon occurs in the way it does. The technique of comparison to prove validity is particularly helpful in reaching the key objective –

building a theoretical framework to evaluate the forces that may affect city tourism in the future.

3.7 Research Ethics

In compliance with the National Health and Medical Research Council “National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research” and James Cook University Human Research Ethics Committee, application for ethical clearance is mandatory for any research project involving human respondents. The application clearly stated that the thesis was funded by James Cook University Postgraduate Research Scholarship and concerns negligible risk to concerned respondents. Negligible risk in human research points to no foreseeable risk of harm or discomfort and any foreseeable risk is no more than inconvenience. Background, significance and aims of the project, role and expertise of investigators, target groups involved, data collection period, detailed methodology, recruitment procedures, procedures of obtaining informed consent from participants, data retention and storage were expounded in the application.

For the reason that the data collection was performed outside of Australia, the researcher consulted professors in respective cities, Bangkok and Hong Kong SAR, about the ethical clearance standard and requirement. The researcher was advised no further ethical clearance action have to be pursued as long as the ethics approval was granted by James Cook University. Such information was explained and proof was enclosed with the ethics clearance submission.

In September 2014, the Human Research Ethics Committee allocated ethics approval to this research with the following conditions (see Appendix 2). No departure from the approved protocols unless prior approval has been sought from the Human Research Ethics Committee. The Principal Investigator must advise the responsible Human Ethics Advisor: Periodically of the progress of the project; When the project is completed, suspended or prematurely terminated for any reason; Within 48 hours of any adverse effects on participants; of any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project. This report must detail compliance with approvals granted and any unexpected events or serious adverse effects that may have occurred during the

study. The ethics approval form with an application ID of H5655 is attached in the Appendix 2.

3.8 Methodological Limitations

Any research that investigates tourism from a supply side perspective relies on the availability of data and volunteer participation of informants. The biggest challenge encountered by the researcher was an inability to interview relevant informants from public and private sectors. Access to contact information of potential informants made it hard to reach them via email or telephone. Besides, the bureaucracy within the concerned organizations was another big obstacle. Given the senior position of potential informants, the public relations or communications department was the first contact point for directing the researcher to the relevant informants. In usual cases, the researcher was told to leave contact details, research background and interview questions; the communications department would then get back to the researcher for further liaison. This process of obtaining responses usually took months and often was in vain. Interview rescheduling and cancellation occurred frequently due to the hectic schedule of potential informants. Due to time and budget constraints, a total number of 28 interviews conducted were considered as acceptable.

Subjective interpretation is another limitation. In qualitative study subjectivity is a standard and a point of merit because it allows flexibility for researcher to refine the scope of study and comprehend the findings. Such subjectivity, however, may restrict the interpretation based on the researcher's background, experience and knowledge. Recognizing the nature of qualitative research, a section outlining research validity and self-reflexivity is presented. Articulating this point is a measure to address the proposed limitations.

Another methodological challenge occurred in one of the case study cities, Hong Kong. The data collection in the city commenced in September 2014 and ended in December 2014. The period overlapped with a large scale and prolonged protest, Umbrella Movement, when thousands of people occupied the major thoroughfares in Admiralty, Tsim Sha Tsui, Causeway Bay and MongKok. The social movement brought unprecedented tensions between citizens towards the police force, the local and Central

government. Many interviewees from the private sector were unwilling to talk and turned down my interview invitation during this politically sensitive moment. The 79-days social movement was totally unexpected according to the initial data collection plan. It resulted in an unexpected prolonged wait to confirm the interviews.

Language barriers posed another issue for pursuing the present research. The researcher is fluent in Cantonese, English and Mandarin verbally, as well as traditional Chinese, written English and simplified Chinese literally. Data collection for primary and secondary data in Hong Kong was not a problem as all information was written in Chinese and English. For the case study city of Bangkok, much information in printed and online formats was however in Thai. Some information, particularly statistical information, was frequently updated in Thai version but the most current data in English version was relatively outdated. For instance, the statistical information on the official census and statistical bureau were available merely up to 2005. Furthermore, figures on tourism performance and the city's demographic profiles of Bangkok were unavailable. Government archives merely made national-wise data available. It significantly limits the secondary data collection and background understanding. Such limitations were alleviated by primary data collection and obtaining information from regional tourism and economics bodies through their publications and reports.

Relationships matter for data collection in Bangkok. Large number of emails were sent to potential interviewees with concerned bodies and associations; but all attempts were in vain. The researcher was informed about the significance of relationships and the need to approach a specific person in the private sector through personal contact. It was fortunate that a key person helped in liaising and referring relevant informants for interviewees. During the conversation with one of the interviewees, the researcher was advised about certain tactics of showing courtesy which may increase the response rate. Such tactics include emailing an interview invitation in Thai language, emailing an English version of invitation after two weeks and follow-up phone calls after another two weeks to make an appointment. In addition, a garland should be delivered to interviewee prior to the commencement of interviewees. It is the Thai etiquette to show courtesy and respect. The tips will be useful for future research attempts in Thailand.

CHAPTER 4 FROM THE PAST TO THE PRESENT

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4.1 Overview of Chapter

Chapter 4 is designed to reveal the city and tourism development of the three units of analysis from the past to the present. The chapter sets the scene, allowing readers to become familiar with place studied. Studying the past provided a hints which allow an explanation of what is currently happening and what is likely occur. This chapter is on the cusp of the past and the present, informing readers about some historical forces shaping the present.

The three units of analysis –Asia, Bangkok, and Hong Kong are considered in turn. Section 4.2 explores the decolonization, economic take-off, population growth, urbanization and tourism of Asia, and the key drivers shaping the present tourism development. Section 4.3 and 4.4 details the brief history, urbanization, tourism performance, and tourism and key drivers shaping the present tourism development of

Bangkok and Hong Kong respectively. To be specific, this chapter is designed to answer the sub-aims 1.1 to 1.3.

Aim 1.1: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Asia

Aim 1.2: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Bangkok

Aim 1.3: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Hong Kong

Qualitative methods, document analysis and in-depth interviews, are performed in Chapter 4. Document analysis was utilized to set the scene regarding the historical development and background information. It also helped to formulate interview questions. In-depth interviews were used to gain insights from interviewees about the key drivers in the past that shaped the present tourism development. Such methods are considered as appropriate because much information about the settings is difficult to access using standard quantitative methods. The 28 powerful and significant interviewees were in senior positions and were well acquainted with tourism, hospitality, aviation or city development. They were not easily accessible so the researcher had to be flexible in eliciting information. The in-depth interview was therefore considered as the most suitable data collection method.

4.2 The Asian Region

The Asian region became well known for its rapid economic growth near the end of the twentieth century (Borthwick, 2007). The region is known for its heterogeneity, unique geography, culture, politics, and economy. Geographically, the 63 countries and territories in the region have been grouped into five sub-regions: East and North-East Asia, South-East Asia, South and South-West Asia, North and Central Asia, and the Pacific (United Nations, 2010). Figure 4.1 shows the geographic location of Asia. Due to the difference in historical background, the Pacific region is excluded in this investigation. The definition of Asia is well stated in Chapter 1.

The vast spread of the region encompasses diverse societies and cultures, including low-, middle- and high-income economies. Variation also noted in climates ranging from tropical and temperate climates, and some of the world's most arid and water-rich biomes. The highest mountains (the Himalayas) and gigantic river valleys and deltas (those of the Brahmaputra, Ganges, Indus, Irrawaddy, Mekong, Red, Yangtze and Yellow rivers) are key features. Given the huge diversity in so many characteristics, only some broad generalities are possible in providing this initial review.

This section charts the evolution of Asia from the post-World War II era to the contemporary times. In the following section, several themes and issues about that of emphasis topics to be considered are from colonization to decolonization, economic take-off, urbanization and tourism development. Such conclusions are based on the document analysis. In particular, the last part of this section delineates the major drivers in the past that shape the present tourism development of Asian cities based on the in-depth interview findings. This information is useful to have a deep understanding of the region and answer research aim 1.1.

Asia

Countries

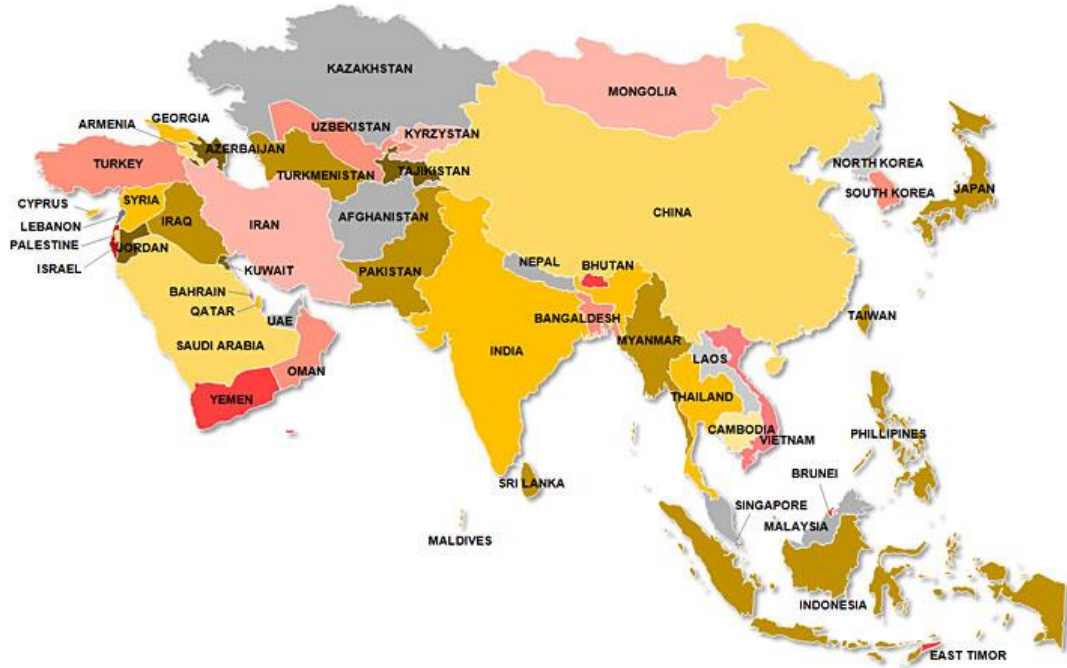


Figure 4.1 Geographic location of Asia (Adopted from 24point0, 2016)

4.2.1 From Colonization to Decolonization

European power began colonizing Africa and Asia in the early 16th century, firstly realized by the Portuguese seizing some parts along the west coast of India, as well as Sri Lanka, Ceylon and Malacca (Russell-Wood, 1998). Spain commenced the colonization in the Philippines and created a sea trade route through Mexico to the Western Pacific. In the 17th century, the decline of Portugal and Spain paved the way for England, France and the Netherlands to engage in colonization due to their economic progress driven by the industrial revolution. The British were prominent as imperial power in North America, India, Southeast Asia and South America. The colonial partitioning of Africa began with the French's conquest in the 18th century. Meanwhile the colonialist forces peaked in the era of such imperialism between 1870 and World War I. From mid to late 19th century much of the Africa and Asia were colonized by the European power (Office of the Historian, 2015). Apart from the European powers, Japan was also involved in dividing the world.

Motives of trade and commerce, African and Asian continents were reservoirs of raw materials, labor and territory for future settlement (Lang, 1975). The colonies were exploited for natural and labor resources, and even for military conscripts. In fact, the decolonization of the Asian region was a gradual growth of independence movements. The process involved nonviolent revolution or national liberation wars. Several catalysts marked this important shift and the most remarkable event was the World War II (Burns, 1970). In 1941, the President of the United States Franklin Roosevelt and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Winston Churchill signed a pivotal policy statement, the Atlantic Charter, which defined the allied goals concerning during and post-World War II. This statement supported the concept of national self-determination and contributed to decolonization. In 1945, the United Nations, an intergovernmental organization, was founded to preserve world peace which was complicated by the Cold War between the United States, the Soviet Union and respective allies. Some 750 million people, nearly a third of the world's population, lived in the territories dependent on colonial powers in 1945 (United Nations, 2015). The newly independent nations, recognized as the third-world, emerged in the 1950s and the 1960s joining the United Nations. The number of members leapt from 35 in 1946 to 127 in 1970. Common characteristics of the third-world countries were non-white populations, with developing economies and internal problems resulting from their colonial past (Office of the Historian, 2015). With the endeavor of the United Nations and advocacy of the third-world countries, the colonial era was ending. Nowadays fewer than 2 million people live under colonial rule. The wave of decolonization changed the face of the planet. The first state to be decolonized was the Philippines in 1898, and the last was East Timor in 2002.

4.2.2 The Take-off into Self-sustained Growth

The colonization process has had long-lasting influence well beyond the independence of the colonized sites. A major impact was the formulation of ideological vehicles of power. The European-style of education institutions, political ideas and governmental structures were learnt and followed by the former colonial societies. The historical legacy also fostered the concept of subjugation which shapes power relationships between the colonizer core and the colonized periphery. Colonization indeed shaped the Westernization and modernity across the globe especially for the Asia and Pacific

countries. Dirlik (1994, p.353) comment, “post-coloniality represents a response to a genuine need, the need to overcome a crisis of understanding produced by the inability of old categories to account for the world”. The third-world countries faced immense external problems concerning the political and economic inequities structured by global capitalism. An establishment of a new global order in which the legitimate rights of peoples and nations were balanced was necessary.

In the early postwar era, Asian countries faced a wide range of issues internally and externally. This period witnessed a decisive political-economic, social-institutional and cultural transformation of the region. The Asian countries prioritized economic development as a national goal, though approaches to reach the goal varied drastically. Overholt (1986, p.39) reported on the common strategies adapted by the Asia for economic development postwar.

- Stimulate a sense of nationhood, if necessary by antagonism toward the developed powers
- Clean up institutions through purging corrupt timeservers and incompetents and installing Western-trained technocrats
- Crack down on crime, political strikes and disorder
- Subdue pressure groups that cause patronage, corruption and inflation
- Come to terms with the advanced industrial countries in order to share their capital, markets and technology
- Keep military budgets small and development budgets high
- Shift to export-led growth
- Reform income distribution, such as land reform, labour-intensive industry (cheap) labour, textiles, agriculture, consumer electronics) and huge investment in education
- Co-opt the left with egalitarian reforms, the right with growth: give the masses a stake in society
- Create large, modern firms to enhance trade
- Acquire technology, capital and trading from multinational corporations and international banks/ use technocrats and nationalistic leadership to maximize benefits for the country
- Move up a ladder that starts with labour-intensive sectors

- Use authoritarian means, if necessary, to accomplish the above

Economic advancement came in waves whilst differing approaches were taken by countries. Several factors drove the economic growth – Nationalism, rich resources, economic modernization, political consensus on economic development, political stability and Confucianism.

Nationalism was often a powerful dynamic driving the buoyant economy. Fascists with nationalist sentiments nurtured under Western education were politically repressed and denied professional opportunities (Preston, 1998). Increasingly chaotic political situation made some indigenous leaders have a feeling of xenophobia and humiliation. Nationalist aspirations escalated against the colonial authority because they left no room for compromise. Carrying a strong sense of self-determination, they aimed for repelling colonials and forging new nations. At the meantime, the USA professed anti-colonialism with a hidden agenda of accessing the Asian region's material interests (Preston, 1998). In the period after the war years, the first moves towards independence and the removal of the formal colonial empires appeared. The newly emerging nations sought the withdrawal of the colonial powers and had a strong sense of restoring their own forms of central rule (Kaup, 2007). Convincing the local to be loyal and committed was essential in building capacity and effective governance structure. Grappling with the stagnating economy was one of the ways to divert people's attention away from the shortcomings and turbulences within the government, particularly for those Asian countries embroiling in domestic political conflicts (Stubbs, 2002).

Rich resources was another essential factor for the positive economic advances in the region. Economic growth in rural areas was important to provide employment opportunities for the growing labour pool and cater the increasing demand for manufacturing sector in export (Borthwick, 2007). In the oil-rich Brunei per capital income was approximately US\$20,000 by 1990, rice self-sufficiency of Indonesia and diversified agricultural sector into higher-value crops of Thailand by the mid-1980s were good examples. Besides, Asian countries also benefited from the lower tariff barriers resulting from the global trade liberalization under the aegis of the Geneva-based General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. With surplus from agriculture and manufacturing sectors, exports were encouraged through favorable tax, credit treatment and realistic foreign exchange rates (Borthwick, 2007). Economic growth in developing Asian

countries has been closely linked to growth in exports of manufactured goods which accounted for half of the total merchandise exports (World Bank, 1992). In addition, an early start on economic modernization during the prewar period contributed to the economic success. Substantial effort in developing modern industrial and rural infrastructure, acquiring technical expertise and trained talent, education institutes, electrification, and road construction were all substantial prerequisites for production and economic development.

The high priority for economic development shaped economic growth. The war time left the Asian region impoverished and shattered. Hundreds of thousands were homeless and jobless, infrastructure lay in tatters, and many lived in abject poverty. Many Asian countries reached political consensus on economic development as an overriding objective. Singapore for instance emphasized economic modernization; Taiwan and South Korea also set economic development as high priority through the means of strengthening and legitimizing the government (Borthwick, 2007). Political stability was a contributing factor. Many Asian countries were ruled by independent centrist political parties. The predictable and consistent government policy encouraged private entrepreneurs for long-term investment. Indeed, small numbers of tycoons were given rise to a monopoly or oligopoly by government in most Asian countries under structural economy policy at earlier stage (Studwell, 2007).

Confucianism is perhaps the most elusive but influential factor stimulating the economic growth among several countries in the Asian region. The newly industrialized countries hold strong Confucian values emphasizing hard work, savings, discipline, secularism, entrepreneurship and educational attainment (Borthwick, 2007). The teaching of Confucius is more oriented toward the future and the value of thrift and persistence are good indicators of this influence (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). The value of thrift is understood as the importance of saving, availability of capital for investment. Investment is a prerequisite to economic growth, and economists are also conscious of the high saving quotas in the Asian countries with leading growth (Stiglitz & Uy, 1996; Toh & Ng, 2002). Besides, the value of persistence suggests tenacity in pursuing goals, including economic goals. Such philosophical traditions do not lead to economic advances in the absence of other necessary policies and conditions such as capital formation and technological progress (Yeh & Lawrence, 1995). Confucianism is

conducive to policies formulation and guiding the modes of behaviour within the private sector and promotes economic growth (Borthwick, 2007).

The rapidly growing economies in Asia used many of the same policy instruments as other developing economies but with greater success. The World Bank dubbed eight economies, including Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia, as the East Asian miracle (World Bank, 1993). These eight economies were recognized as High Performing Asian Economies which exhibited a remarkable record of high and sustained economic growth. Table 1 tabulates the growth of real per capita income in the high income and developing countries. World Bank data (1992) on the growth of real per capita income in high income and developing countries (see Table 4.1) confirmed the East Asian lead. Leading the growth in both high income and developing countries, East Asia recorded an almost double leap from 1960 to 1990. They outperformed other low to mid income countries in the world with an annual income per capita growth rate of 5.5%. Besides, the average Gini coefficient, a well-known index of income distribution was 0.38, while the average for all other low to mid income countries was 0.49 from 1965 to 1990.

Table 4.1 Growth of real per capita income in high income and developing countries (average annual percentage change of real per capita GDP). Adapted from World Bank (1992)

	1960-1970	1970-1980	1980-1990
All developing countries	3.3	3.0	1.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.6	0.9	-0.9
East Asia	3.6	4.6	6.3
South Asia	1.4	1.1	3.1
Latin America	2.5	3.1	-0.5
Middle East and North Africa	6.0	3.1	-2.5
Eastern Europe	5.2	5.4	0.9
All high income countries	4.1	2.4	2.4
All developing countries (weighted by population)	3.9	3.7	3.7

All the contributing factors have made the economic performance of Asia outstanding. The region contains newly industrialized countries, known as the Asian Dragons (Hobson & Ko, 1994). The growth of the economy in East Asia shifted the balance of the world trade into more Asian-Pacific centric. The United States developed closer trade cooperation with the Asian-Pacific nations rather than with the traditional trading partner of the Atlantic (Scollay & Gilbert, 2001). Increasing levels of intra-regional trade between nations fostered regional interdependence. A network of non-government forums, such as the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) and Asia Economic Cooperation (APEC), was created so as to enforce mutual understanding on Pacific trade issues and seek for cooperation. The perspective of the regional economic development, APEC, established in 1989, is influential in promoting freer trade and creating dialogue between major economic powers (Asia Economic Cooperation, 2015). No contractual obligation is charted and the agreements in a consensus driven manner. Fuelled with close economic partnership, the Asian region is therefore becoming a political, economic and social entity.

4.2.3 Population and Urbanization

The population in the Asian countries was heterogeneous with wide variation. Urbanization in Asian cities proceeds differently from the patterns of the Western cities. Understanding the characteristics of Asian urbanization is therefore indispensable for understanding city development. In the process of urbanization of Asian megacities the peripheral zone of cities are pushed by urbanization beyond their original extents and spill over into surrounding rural areas. The growth in both population and urban area has been rapid over the past decades, causing rural-urban conversion of areas surrounding cities, uncontrolled development and other issues. Urbanization in Asian megacities shares similar characteristics with the Western urbanization, but also exhibits some unique features in Asian countries (Murakami, Zain, Takeuchi, Tsunekawa, & Yokota, 2005). Mixture of urban and rural land use, proceeding exceptionally fast, excessive immigration and overcrowding are often the unique Asian features (Murakami et al., 2005; Anderson, 1959; Berry, 1961).

It has been suggested that the region experienced four demographic transition stages, marking diverse patterns of population changes (Kaup 2007; Bloom & Finlay, 2009). In the first stage, high yet fluctuating birthrates appeared together with high death rates. It resulted in low population growth. All Asian countries experienced this stage in the nineteenth century and earlier on. The second stage was high birthrate and a decline in mortality. For example, East Timor and Cambodia recovered from years of turmoil and experienced a surge in population growth. The government of Brunei and Malaysia encouraged large family size, reflecting their strategy to boost population. Birthrates begin to drop at the third stage due to changing status of women in a wealthier society and government attention to family planning (Jolly & Ram, 2001; Straughan, Chan & Jones, 2009). In the final stage both birth and death rates stabilized at low levels, showing a slow population growth.

The demographic composition varied in the Asian-Pacific countries. 18%, or 737 million, of Asian-Pacific citizens were aged 15 to 24 by 2007. Accelerated economic development could be attributed to the youth bulge. Some Asian countries, such as Japan, in contrast faced the issue of ageing population. Decline in the work force and a wide range of concomitant issues appeared. Besides, the skewed sex ratio due to prenatal discrimination and sex-selective abortion becomes another significant issue (Hudson & Den Boer, 2002; Guilmoto, 2009). The proportion of male births recorded a rapid increment. The sex ratio at birth exceeds 110 male births per 100 female births in many Asian countries, and a large surplus of men was noted in the populous India and China (Guilmoto, 2009). Demographic masculinization and ageing population pose new consequences to the society and economic development to the region.

World population has been growing, from 2.6 billion in 1950 moving toward 7.2 billion in 2014 (United Nations, 2014). Population and economic activity are notably concentrated in cities. Evidence is shown in Figure 4.2 that the numbers of all sizes of cities increased tremendously from 1990 to 2014. Many small cities with urban settlements between 3000,000 to 500,000 inhabitants appeared to increase dramatically at an average annual rate of 3% during the period from 1990 to 2014. Moreover, the globe is indeed urbanizing rapidly. Less than one-third of people lived in urban settlements in 1950 while in 2014 just over half of the global dwellers lived in urban areas (United Nations, 2014). In 2007, for the first time in human history, the global

urban population exceeded the global rural population. Asian cities with an urbanization rate of 42.4% in 2010 ranked the second least-urbanised region in the world, though the region was home to half of the world’s urban population. Majority of megacities, those exceeding 10 million dwellers, are situated in Asia (United Nations, 2010). The figures literally emphasize the significant of the region in terms of population concentration and potential for economic activities.

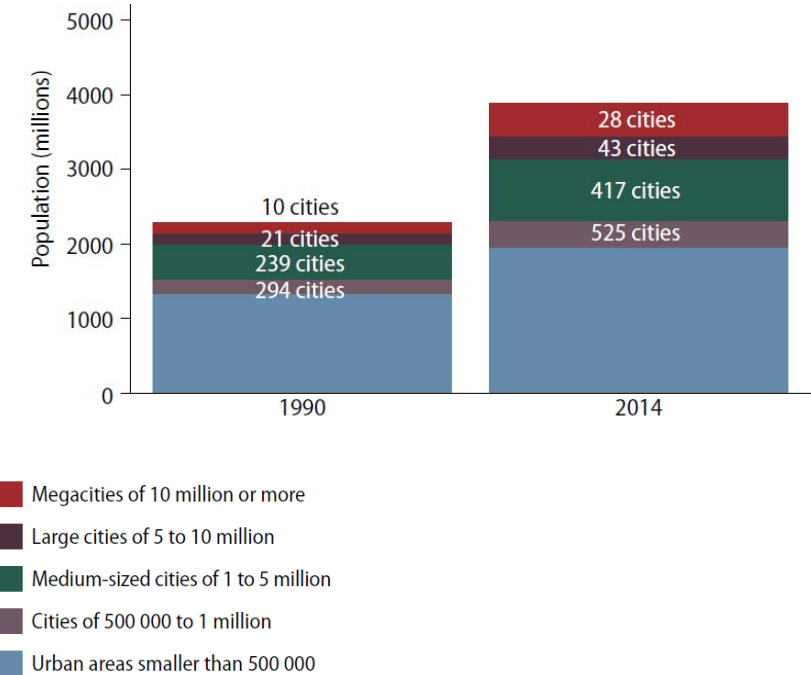


Figure 4.2 Global urban population growth by growth of cities of all sizes (United Nations, 2014).

Cities drive economic and social advancement as hubs of governance, transportation, information, communication and commerce. The World Bank (2013) heralded the eight High Performing Asian Economies in East Asia as successful story, attributing to the accumulation of human capital in highly productive investments environment. The importance of population in driving growth was highlighted. Emerging urban areas, urban corridors and city locations point to a closer tie between city growth and patterns of economic activity including tourism. The Asian-Pacific economy is highly dynamic and productive: 42.2% of urban residents contributing to 80% of the region’s gross domestic product (United Nations, 2010). Despite the economic stroked by the Asian financial crisis in 1997 and the global economic crisis in 2008, the region bounced back remarkably due to concrete domestic demand. Urbanization in the Asian region also

found to enhance productivity. The gross domestic product per head rose from US\$1,795 in 1990 to US\$2,718, a 51% leap. Building on the massive population increments and urbanization, Asian cities were transformed from being the factor of the world to international financial centres and knowledge-centric economies (Marshall, 2013).

The continuing and rapid expansion of the human environmental footprint and urbanization brings opportunities and challenges in both scope and complexity. If well planned, it improves people’s access to education, economic productivity, health care and housing. Meanwhile, it presents pressure on environment degradation, demand for housing, urban slums, congestion, pollution and food supplies. The rapid pace of urbanization generated the problem of urban density. As displayed in Table 4.2, Asia had the second lowest percentage of urban inhabitants but exhibited the highest population density. The figure is 2.6 times greater than for the world, 3.7 times of Africa, 4.2 times of Europe, 4.5 times of Latin America and the Caribbean, 8.4 times of Northern America, and 33.7 times of Oceania. High population density is due to high accessibility of transport modes, lack of service land in the urban periphery, government rules and regulations, and immigration policy (United Nations, 2010).

Table 4.2 Regional population density and percentage of urban inhabitants (United Nations, 2012)

Region	Population density (population per sq km)	Percentage Urban
World	52	53
Africa	36	40
Asia	135	46
Europe	32	73
Latin America and the Caribbean	30	80
Northern America	16	83
Oceania	4	71

Dynamic Asian cities are the main force behind the self-sustained economic growth whereas the increasing population and urbanization fuelled the growth. The pace of

economic condition and urbanization varies among all the Asian countries. Most Asian countries are still at their infant stage of urbanization. A better control on planning to alleviate the negative aspects and capitalize on the opportunities is imperative. An inclusive and forward-looking city planning benefits Asian-Pacific cities even more vibrant and resilient.

4.2.4 Tourism Performance

Asia has always been a dynamic region for tourism activities. In the last six decades, the tourism performance the Asian region has experienced rapid growth and outperformed the rest of the world. From 1950 to 2010, the region's share of international tourist arrivals and receipts recorded a 26.5% (Table 4.3) and 29.1% increment (Table 4.4) respectively. The remaining regions saw either less than 7% or even minus growth rate for both figures. For some Asian countries the tourism flows has been inbound and sustained by competitive price structures (Prideaux & Kim, 1999). Other instances alternatively have been largely outbound, for example Taiwan and Japan. The flourishing economic development in the Asian region also drove accelerating intra-regional tourism demand, due to the large amount of business travel (Pine, Chan & Leung, 1998).

Table 4.3 Regional share of international tourist arrivals, 1950-2010 (World Tourism Organization, 2000 & 2011)

Region	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
Africa	1.9	1.2	1.4	2.6	3.3	4.2	5
America	29.3	24.1	25.5	22.4	20.3	18.7	16
Asia Pacific	0.8	1.3	3.7	8.5	12.8	16.8	22
Europe	64.9	72.2	68.2	63.9	61.5	56.9	51
Middle East	0.8	0.9	1.1	2.6	2.2	3.5	6

Note: Figures are share of regions (%)

Table 4.4 Regional share of international tourist receipts, 1950-2010 (World Tourism Organization, 2000 & 2011)

Region	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010
Africa	4.8	2.9	2.8	2.4	2.1	2.2	3.4
America	52.4	36.2	26.8	23.8	25.4	28.7	19.8
Asia Pacific	0.9	2.9	6.7	10.6	17.2	18.4	27.1
Europe	42.9	56.5	61.5	59.8	53.4	48.6	44.2
Middle East	1.4	1.4	2.2	3.3	2.1	2.0	5.5

Note: Figures are share of regions (%)

Growth in both short-haul and long-haul travel is fuelled by many factors. Rapid growth in air traffic to and within Asia was a contributor (Hobson, 1994). The deregulation of the aviation industry in North America and Europe intensified competition among airline companies and opening new markets including the Asian region was a mean (Chew, 1987). The Asian region offers a varied and attractive product at exotic destinations at a reasonably competitive price. The traditional tourism destination for example Europe and America lost their world shares comparing with the fast-growing Asian region. Associated with economic cooperation, short-haul intra-regional travel activities have also been rapidly expanded. Booming population, higher disposable income, increasing emphasis on leisure needs, ease of governmental travel restrictions and improved transport networks and infrastructures were reasons driving the increment (Hobson, 1994; Hall, 1997).

Tourism plays an influential role in international relations. Promoting regional integration via tourism, which is associated with economic benefits and political agenda, can indicate linkage and be a diplomatic barometer of two countries' closeness and affinity (Richter, 1989). The host country tends to support political strategy or boost its influence in the region in return for bigger inbound tourism flows. For instance, Japanese was the single largest tourist generation source market outnumbering all European and record a 10.997 million outbound travel in 1990. The number was reached because of launching the Ten Million Program in 1987 by the Ministry of Transport, which sought to mitigate conflict with major trading partners due to large trade surplus. The Ten Million Program exemplified the way tourism activity could be shaped by political power.

Tourism, as an imperative source of foreign exchange, has been a component of economic development in the Asian region since the early 1960s (Hall, 1997). Much of the tourism development in the region was governed and planned by the government, aiming to capture the economic benefits. The Singapore government launched the Tourism 21 blueprint in 1993, reformulating its offerings and positioning itself as the tourist capital in the New Asia (Singapore Tourists Promotion Board, 1996). The Ministry of Tourism, India, proposed a tourism plan and identified 30 major leisure and business destinations in the country (Bhatt, 1999). In addition, tourism is an attractive socio-economic development tool for those regions where other economic options are scarce (Malecki, 1997). The First Long Term Development from 1969 to 1994 program launched by the Department of Tourism, Post and Telecommunication, the Indonesia government was an example (Gunawan, 1999). According to the plan, tourism was promoted especially in the less developed regions where there were few opportunities for other sectors to grow, and local communities from those areas were given maximum opportunity to participate in the tourism development program.

4.2.5 Key Drivers Shaping The Present Tourism Development

The previous discussion offers a general introduction to the tourism development in Asia. This section sheds lights on the key drivers in the past that shaped the present tourism development of Asian cities primarily based on the in-depth interview findings. Evaluation of the present Asian cities' tourism performance commences the discourse. The drivers which emerged via rigorous adoption of the grounded theory approach follow. STEEP analysis is then used to frame the drivers into the five categories: Social; technological; economic; environmental; and, political. Table 4.5 lists the code and job positions of the ten interviewees in the empirical investigation of Asian cities.

Table 4.5 Code and corresponding job positions of interviewees in Asian cities

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
A1	Regional Tourism Association Foundation Trustees
A2	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
A3	Urban Development Specialist
A4	Regional Director of Airports International Council
A5	Senior Officer in Regional Infrastructure Division
A6	Regional Head of International Air Transport Association
A7	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Individual Property)
A8	Head of Regional Tourism Association
A9	Travel Trade Journalist
A10	Head of Regional Tourism City Promotion

4.2.5.1 Evaluation of The Present Tourism Development

Interviewees expressed a uniform view on the flourishing tourism development and performance in Asian cities per se. Tourism in Asian cities has been developing rapidly and recorded unprecedented growth. Visitor arrivals and tourist receipts have demonstrated that Asia was a leading region in terms of growth rate according to official figures. It was the fastest growing region in the last decades even during the economic downturn.

Interviewee A7 suggested, “*Every figure tells the story*”.

Despite the growth, two interviewees commented that the tourism performance varied across Asian cities. The pace of economic development and the stage of tourism development were the key reasons. In the region, some countries were effectively developed countries while some were developing. The capital cities in Asia have primarily been mature destinations, for example Bangkok, Beijing, Seoul and Tokyo. Secondary cities have relatively been unknown for tourism activities. Mature tourism cities, such as Bangkok, have recorded massive international visitor arrivals. On the contrary, some cities, such as Manila, have been popular only among inter-regional segments.

Interviewees indicated that cities have always been important arenas for tourism, commercial activities and transportation. The statement suggested the significance of both leisure and business tourists. Serving those functions, Asian cities have literally been competing with each other. The level of competition depends on the comparative advantages of different cities. Hong Kong and Singapore have been typical examples of fierce competition because of their high level of similarities in terms of resources, positioning and size. They have been in keen competition as leading aviation hubs and MICE destination in the region. Albeit the flourishing tourism performance, tourism demand fluctuated in the past decade. The key factors shaping the interviewees' view of growth are delineated in the sections below.

4.2.5.2 Social Drivers

4.2.5.2.1 Unique Culture

Unique culture is seen as an important driver shaping tourism development in Asian cities. The heterogeneous cultures of nations within close geographic proximity add the exotic and erotic sensations to tourists. Interviewees contended that the culture amazes Western travellers, those who are from a totally different cultural background.

Interviewee A1 commented, "*Asia is an interesting region. Countries are so close together but when you cross the border you are in a totally different world... People speak absolutely different languages; have very different food culture and rituals*".

The statement explicates the diversity and uniqueness of culture in Asian cities. Several other interviewees echoed these thoughts, stating that culture gives cities the brand and is a magnet for tourists. The hardware, infrastructure and the latest trends can be replicated elsewhere. Culture, indeed, is a blend of time, history and the lifestyle of people living in that particular. It is impossible to be copied. Although some old traditions have been lost in the fast-changing modern world, the contemporary culture and lifestyle of cities still vary across countries and differentiate cities. Authenticity of culture, regardless of tradition or contemporary, is important to cities for tourism development.

The diversity also contributes to the range of rich and colourful choices. Since Asian countries have divergent pace of economic development, the price range and choices vary to a great extent.

Interviewee A2 reported, “*Asia has a lot to offer*”.

Several interviewees gave examples of the rich offerings ranging from food, accommodation, cultural experience, mode of transportation and attractions. From street food to Michelin rated restaurants, from adventurous local modes of transport to sophisticated modern carriers, variety of choice is evident across the region. Local delicacies usually features the local produce, ingredients and herbs, enabling novelty and local experiences to international tourists. The affordable offerings and rich diversity also explains why the region has gained popularity among young travellers and backpackers.

Asian cities are tied to that unique culture partly because of the special historical background. The majority of the Asian countries were colonies of European countries. Asian cities have incorporated the local culture, the culture of the colonial powers and formed the modified version of both cultures. For instance, the milk tea in Hong Kong is a product of the modified culture. Hong Kong was once the British colony. The reference form of the beverage originated in England and was brought to Hong Kong during the colonial era. Local people in Hong Kong modified the blend of tea leaves to suit the locals’ appetite. After the termination of the colonial era, milk tea and countless other products have remained in the city. Colonial culture and its legacy is one of the unique features of Asian cities in the eyes of many tourists.

4.2.5.2.2 Travel-for-granted Mindset

Interviewees highlighted the changing mentality that travel has become a necessity for young travellers. The cohort, broadly known as Generation Y or Post-80s, has grown up in a peaceful time of the world and enjoyed the harvest of the flourishing economy in the past decades. Fuelled with technological innovation, such as the free-flow of information on the Internet and the emergence of low cost carriers, the technology savvy young travellers are knowledgeable in terms of travel information and can often afford to travel. The cohort has demonstrated a very different travel frequency compared to their seniors.

Interviewee A8 mentioned, "*Young travellers have more travel experiences than their parents... Some of them started traveling in their early childhood*".

The popularity of travel by young cohorts was directly linked to the work of an interviewee who conducted in-house research researching their travel behaviours. Three-thousand young Asian travellers were surveyed in relation to their travel motivations, source of funding and preferred travelling activities. The survey results discussed that international travel was part of their growing up experience and a necessity in their lives. The Generation Y or the Post-80s cohort is currently in their early 30s or late 20s. Interviewees stated that they are emerging as middle and senior managers and also travelling for business purposes. They are the largest age group in many Asian countries. They often combined business and leisure travel. Interviewees observed that it was because work-life balance is their canon of living. Asia is thriving because of the emerging economy and proliferation of economic activities. While cities are places for business activities, this work-life balance mentality explains the strong demand from young travellers in cities particularly in the last two decades.

4.2.5.2.3 Human Resources

The service quality of tourism and hospitality practitioners has always been an issue, according to interviewees. Interviewees observed that the hardware of hotels in the developing countries in the region have been catching up with the developed destination. The human resources, however, have not caught up with the pace of development.

Interviewee A2 claimed, "*With sufficient capital, hotel developers can build sophisticated hotels. The problem always is getting the right people to work for you*".

The statement was supported by other interviewees. Human resources have been a longstanding problem for labour intensive sectors, including tourism and hospitality. Interviewees explained that stereotype of the practitioners' social status is one of the reasons. Asian parents conventionally perceive that working in the tourism and hospitality industry is servitude with minimal career prospects. Working in a tourism-related field is a temporary job but not a career in the long-run. The research of Pang (2010) surveyed Singapore students about career development in the hospitality sector.

Respondents reported their parents' perception of working in the industry. The mundane job nature made their parents feel somewhat ashamed and with a loss of face for the success of their children. This mindset was common among Mainland Chinese parents basically because of the One Child Policy. To stem the rapid population growth in China, the government instituted a One Child Policy in 1979. Having only one child in the family, parents have high expectations for their children and are concerned with the career prospects of their offspring. Chinese parents are thus reluctant to see their child working in the tourism and hospitality industry because of its perceived low social status. In this case, the industry is unappealing to capture talented practitioners and refine the workforce. This results in limited supply of human resources partaking in the hospitality sector.

4.2.5.3 Technological Drivers

4.2.5.3.1 Old Technology

Efficiency is important to tourism cities and cities that act as transportation hubs. As mentioned by interviewee A6, streamlining passenger processing time and the turn-around time of carriers are essential for airports to drive demand. Technology is decisive in enhancing airport efficiency. In this account, some Asian cities have been performing well, such as the international airports in Osaka, Tokyo and Seoul. On the contrary, many airports located in the Southeast Asia are still equipped with old technology. The resultant influences are system slowdowns and the creation of bottleneck. In this sense, the capacity of airports in passenger handling is limited by the technical support. Interviewees raised the linkage between the issues with destination image.

Interviewee A4 revealed, *“The airport itself is an attraction. It is the first and last point of contact for every tourist”*.

She perceived that the airport plays a key role in the entire travel experience. Airports give tourists the first and last impressions of the destinations. Satisfying encounters at the airports sugar coat the travel experience. In contrast, unpleasant encounters ruin the travel experience and exert a negative impression on destinations.

4.2.5.3.2 The Power of Social Media

A general perception of interviewees revealed that social media was as an engine boosting the tourism demand in Asia. Online photographs and reviews posting during and after travelling have long been a popular trend of tourists. Due to the far reaching characteristic, such acts are powerful in educating the social media audience about new destinations, cafes, restaurants, and attractions. Interviewee A8 expressed that social media acts as a medium for inclusive tourism.

Interviewee A8 proffered, *“I would not aware of a local neighbourhood in Bangkok with interesting café and street food stalls on a social media site. Those eateries reside in the backstage of the city which is not the traditional tourist area”*.

Social media is powerful in the sense of revealing the hidden gems in cities. Not only are the key attractions and chain restaurants promoted, but the small businesses can also enjoy the benefits. Tourists benefit from having more authentic and local experiences rather than merely visiting the major tourist attractions. The technology-savvy young travellers tap into multiple sites and apps to read up on locales, food, shopping, and activities. The user-generated content was deemed trustworthy and seen as providing useful travel tips.

The power of social media should not be neglected due to the tremendous number of social media users in Asia (Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014). Bullas (2013) researched the world's 10 largest social platforms and numbers of social media users by region. Asia Pacific was the leading region accounting for 52.7% of the social media users. European followed by 17.9% of users, 16.8% in North America, 10.1% in Latin America and 2.5% in Middle East and Africa. The statistics indicated a dominated social media landscape in the region. The promotion of tourism cities via social media sites is deemed a strategic pathway and a major influence on Asian city tourism.

4.2.5.4 Economic Drivers

4.2.5.4.1 Rising Middle Class

Interviewees mentioned that the rising middle class is the strong catalyst boosting the regional tourism demand. In 2009, 1.8 billion of the citizens on this planet were middle class (Kharas, 2010). Europe was home to 664 million of the cohort, while 525 million were in Asia and 338 million were in North America. A lesson learnt from history was the power of this segment to drive consumption. Driven by the burgeoning economy in the East and the travel-for-granted mindset, interregional travel demand within Asia has been very strong. The emerging middle class was not the super-rich segment and experienced travellers. Instead, they were those with a newfound appetite for travel and the emergence of low cost carriers fuelled their travel frequency. The low cost carrier business model has proved successful in Asia (Boeing, 2015). In the decade ahead, low cost carriers recorded a 24.5% annual growth rate in Asia comparing with 13.4% in Europe and 2.2% in North America. Approximately 20,000 weekly flights were operating throughout the region in 2015. Interviewees reported the surge of low cost carriers in the region. China, for example, experienced a large increment in the number of low cost carrier entrants during the past two years. With the emergence of low cost carriers, travel became more affordable for the rising middle class. All importantly, the low cost carriers, like their more expensive full cost counterparts, serve cities across the region. Airports are city tourism access points, rather than providers of rural and regional tourism.

4.2.5.4.2 Connectivity

Interviewees expressed a uniform opinion about the importance of infrastructure. The major reason was the strong association between infrastructure and connectivity. Connectivity is prominent in the success and growth of cities around the world. Hobson and Uysal (1993) highlighted the significant link between structural connectivity and tourism development. The level of connectivity, to certain extent, determines the tourism demand. Internally, capital cities have served as the gateway of countries. Local dwellers and tourists can commute from capital cities to majority of the secondary cities in the countries by land, sea and air. As stated by interviewees, capital cities are important

because tourists typically travel to capital cities for transiting to secondary cities. Capital cities are therefore the must-go destination. Externally, Asian countries have been well connected with other countries in the region. Asian capital cities and primary tourism cities have been relatively accessible to primary cities in long-haul destinations and in other regions. Among different modes of transportations, the significant role of airport was of concern for interviewees.

Interviewee A4 suggested, *“The capacity and efficiency of airports have been important and will continue to play a critical role in driving tourism growth. Some Asian cities faced the problem of airport capacity saturation, while some were still underutilized”*.

The airport infrastructure in Asian cities faced divergent issues due to the varying pace of economic development. Given the strong interregional tourism demand, a number of Asian countries have had master plans in place to expand the capacity of their own airports. Chennai, Bangkok and Singapore were examples mentioned by interviewees. Interviewees also remarked that coordination of the transport systems, including the road, rail and aviation systems is necessary to allow greater efficiency and enhance capacity at minimal additional cost. Cities, particularly mature tourism destinations, have been excelled in the integration of different transport modes. It has staged the successful tourism development.

4.2.5.5 Environmental Drivers

4.2.5.5.1 Richness in Biodiversity

The climate in Asian countries is extremely diverse. The southern part of Asia is warm to hot. East Asia has a temperate climate, whereas the far northern section of the continent is very cold. Because of the variation in climate, beaches, tropical rainforest, temperate mixed forest, tropical dry forests, desert, steppe, taiga, tundra can all be found in Asia (Fauna & Floral International, 2016). The availability of distinctive natural landscape intensifies the openings of Asian tourism cities.

Interviewee A2 reported, *“Asia delivered in that the continent has some of the best beaches and mountains in the world”*.

The availability and variety of natural resources provide suitable living conditions for diverse flora and fauna. The region harbors biological diversity and is home to unique species, such as the Asian elephant and orang-utan. The richness in biodiversity and landscapes offers important assets for nature-based tourism. With such advantageous conditions, resort destinations and national parks are commonly found in Asia. These resources add to the sensations of tourism cities in Asia. Tourism cities are typically equipped with efficient transportation system. Tourists can easily commute to enjoy the natural features as getaway via tourism cities.

4.2.5.6 Political Drivers

4.2.5.6.1 Priority for tourism development

The priority for tourism within the nation is a decisive factor for the growth and future of tourism cities. Interviewees expressed the concern that some Asian countries underestimated the value of tourism and aviation. Some governments in this region have contended that tourism is just one kind of commercial activity. Interviewees expressed an opposite view and suggested that tourism is much more than gaining economic benefits.

Interviewee A1 suggested, *“Tourism is more than attractions and hotels... not just about tourists coming and enjoying the sun, sand and accommodation... Many sectors benefit as tourism is a chain of the visitor economy contributing to the social, economic and cultural aspects of cities”*.

An agreement was observed among interviewees that tourism needs to be supported by a raft of policies and infrastructure. The tax system, attractions, other businesses, shopping, retails, public transport and many aspects of the society also impact the tourism development of cities in a positive and negative way. Interviewee A1 mentioned the terminology, the Visitor Economy, in relation to the chain benefits brought to numerous areas of the destinations. Strategic planning for the transportation network bringing tourists to the destinations, building infrastructure to support different mode of transport, ensuring commercial freedom, as well as balancing the needs of local are critical for sustainable tourism development. All of these concern with long-term policy planning.

Interviewee A6 echoed the viewpoint and added further commentary. Despite some Asian nations having recognized the value of tourism, the governments have limited policy in place to support the development. He stressed the important connection of tourism and aviation. The aviation industry is an important backbone of tourism cities, given that it drives demand. If the infrastructure has insufficient capacity and efficiency to support the demand, the destination becomes less competitive. This is particularly critical to city destinations. Serving as tourism destinations, many capital and primary cities in the countries are centres of commercial activities. Good infrastructure supports economic development and consequently drives business and leisure tourists. The governments' priority for tourism and supporting policy are critical. Some Asian cities that have recorded extraordinary tourism performance and become mature tourism destination are mainly due to the high priority for tourism policy and support by local government. Bangkok, Macau, Seoul, Singapore and Taipei are good examples. Indeed, a number of countries in the region still have inadequate infrastructure to support tourism and aviation. It offers a key reason for having relatively less city tourism demand.

4.2.5.6.2 Visa

Visa requirements for tourists was another issue influencing the tourism development of Asian cities. Interviewees specified that the cost, bureaucracy and wait time needed for visa application are barriers for tourists travelling to the region. Indeed, many countries in Asia still require overseas tourists to apply for a visitor visa for entry. For instance, as of June 2015, only passport holders of 16 countries passport holder were entitled visa exemption to enter Vietnam (My Vietnam Visa, 2015). The majority of overseas tourists are required to engage with the bureaucracy. In general, visa applications for overseas tourists are required for a number of Asian countries. Interviewees emphasized that it was an issue, especially for long-haul travellers. Tourists from European and American countries may visit multiple cities in various Asia nations on one single trip. In this case, they have to apply visas for multiple destinations. The effort may stop people from doing so. Interviewee A10 thus explicated visa application as the main barrier delaying the tourism growth in the region.

4.2.5.7 Summary of Drivers

Ten drivers, ranging from social, technological, economic, environmental and political, have been identified based on the in-depth interviews. Unique culture, travel-for-granted mindset and human resources are viewed as key social drivers. Technological drivers cover old technology and the power of social media, while the rising middle class and connectivity are the economic drivers. The offerings of city tourism are driven by the richness in biodiversity as an environmental drivers, as well as the priority for tourism development and visa under the political category.

4.3 Bangkok

Bangkok, the capital of Thailand since 1767, is the country's political, commercial, industrial, educational and entertainment centres. Located in the centre of Southeast Asia, Thailand has borders with several neighbouring countries. Figure 3 displays the geographic location of Bangkok. A mountainous border exists with Myanmar from the north and west, the Mekong River lies on the border between Thailand and Laos from the north and east, and the Mekong and the Dongrak Rivers mark the border of Cambodia to the east. With an area of approximately 514,000 square kilometres, Thailand is the 50th largest country around the globe (Thaiways Magazine, 2002). Thailand is in the unique position of never having been colonised, yet has a history of receiving immigrants from all over the continent. Located 15 degrees north of the equator, Bangkok has a tropical climate with a mild temperatures ranging from 19 to 38 degree Celsius (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2015). The official religion is Theravada Buddhism and roughly 95% of Thai people are religious practitioners.

The economy of Thailand is export-driven, accounting for 60% of the nation's GDP, or US\$270 billion, as of 2008 (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2015). This positions the economy of the country as the second largest in Southeast Asia, after Indonesia. Primary products for export are agricultural products including fish and rice, textiles, rubber, automobiles, jewellery and electronic appliances. The nation has 10% of its population living under the poverty line, proving that the country is relatively economically developed. Thailand is also a very well-known tourism destination. 7% of its GDP, nearly USD 16 billion, is from international tourism receipt. Bangkok, together with Pattaya,

Hua Hin, Phuket and KohSamui are popular tourism destinations featuring historical relics, national parks, wildlife sanctuaries, forests, beaches and local food. Bangkok is also known as the City of Angels, and the Venice of the East.

Bangkok is situated on a low flat plain of the Chao Phraya River extending to the Gulf of Thailand. The city also has a 4.4 kilometre stretch of coastline (Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, 2007). The elevation is 2.31 meters at Mean Sea Level. With a total area of 1,568.7 square kilometres, the city consists of an urbanized area of 700 square kilometres. As for land uses in Bangkok, 29.64% is for commercial, industrial and government use, 23.6% for agricultural, 23% for residential and housing and the remaining 23.8% is for other purposes. The city ranks 68th in size out of the country's 76 provinces but has the largest population and population density. The ethnic mix is 80% Thai while 10% are Chinese.



Figure 4.3 Geographic location of Bangkok (Mother Earth Travel, 2015)

4.3.1 Brief History

Little is known about Thailand before the 13th century, though evidence of human settlement is recorded. From 1238 is known as the Golden Era of Thai history, a period which continued for several centuries (Como Group, 2015). One hundred years ago the capital was located on the west bank of the Chao Phraya River, today part of Bangkok. After the passing of King Taksin of Thon Buri in 1782, the throne heir King Buddha Yodfa, known as Rama I, moved the capital of Thailand to the opposite side of the river in order to save it from foreign invasions and offer more space for development. The city, surrounding by three canals, the Banglamphu, Ong Ang and Chao Phraya River, was named Khlong Rop Krung, the canal round the city (Thaiways Magazine, 2002). Following the relocation of the capital, King Rama I commanded the construction of the Grand Palace, Wat Phra Kaew the royal temple, and important government offices on the east bank. These buildings remain the spiritual core of Bangkok today. The King also gave a long name to the capital as Krung Thep Mahanakhon Bowon Rattanakosin Mahinthrayutthaya Mahadilokphop Noppharat Ratchathani Burirom Udom Ratchaniwet Mahasathan Amon Phiman Awatan Sathit Sakkathatiya Witsanukam Prasit, or Krung Thep in short. It is still the longest city name on earth.

From 1782 to 1851, Bangkok remained underdeveloped and merely served as a chief part routes of the waterways for transportation. In the reign of King Rama IV, the capital was massively reconstructed and developed based on the Western models, such as building roads, digging canals, building ships and more importantly, reorganizing the Thai army and administration. The period 1868 to 1910 was one of the great reformed in the country. King Rama V brought modernization to a wide range of areas, including justice, education, public health and communication. The King also divided the nations into several monthon (administrative subdivisions), and Bangkok was one of those. Thailand in this period was deeply influenced by Europeans; for example, the building of the modern rail and road systems was assisted by European expertise and builders.

A revolution occurred in 1932 and resulted in Thailand's political system becoming a constitutional monarchy. The east bank of Bangkok as Krung Thep and the west bank of Bangkok Thon Buri were separated into two provinces. In 1971, the two provinces were merged and regarded as the Bangkok Metropolis. One year later, the Bangkok Metropolis was officially named Krung Thep which outsiders knew as Bangkok. The name Bangkok

is rooted in old term in the Thai language. Bang in Thai means village which represented the old days of the city, and Kok in Thai refers to full of wild olive groves.

In terms of significant affairs affecting contemporary Bangkok, the city suffered bombing and raids by the Japanese troops during World War I. The entire country underwent a difficult period, and the decades following civilian unrest and military rule also affect Thailand. King Bhumidol Adulyadej, who has reigned since 1946, is the longest serving monarch in the world (Como Group, 2015). As the figurehead of the country, he carries a very symbolic and significant role in the mind of Thai people. Entering the latter 20th century, Bangkok grew progressively in a wide range of areas. Telecommunications, banking services, and shopping are state-of-the-art. Bangkok is now a bustling city with a population of some 13.8 million as of 2012 for the whole Bangkok, or 8 million in its centre of the metropolitan (European Association of National Metrology Institutes, 2013). The urban population is of over 10 million, Bangkok is a case study exemplifying a megacity in this research.

4.3.2 Urbanization

Urbanization is vital in providing economic opportunity. A rapid pace of urbanization has transformed the face of Bangkok and the lives of its citizens, urban policy planners and makers. Urbanization in Thailand is dominated by the Bangkok area (World Bank, 2015a). In 2010, the urban area in Bangkok accounted for almost four-fifths of the total urban area in Thailand. During the decade between 2000 and 2010, the Bangkok urban area grew from 1,900 square kilometres to 2,100 square kilometres. This figure was larger than other Asian megacities including Seoul, Jakarta and Manila. It marked Bangkok as the fifth largest urban area in East Asia. Since 1960, the development of infrastructure including road networks, real estate, land values and the growing economy fuelled rapid urbanization and a burgeoning population (Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, 2007). Better economic opportunities stimulated the migration of people to the city from all parts of the country and even from foreign countries. Bangkok ranks 32nd among the world's largest cities in terms of population and 18th among Asian cities (World Bank, 2010).

Extensive urbanization of Bangkok derives from historical and political concerns. Since 1910, Thailand had a working ministerial bureaucracy where senior grade civil servants received fixed salaries and regulated working hours, though those civil servants were largely recruited among the princes and members of nobility (Evers, 1966). Senior grade civil servants received training at the Royal Page School and many of them were sent aboard. As for overcoming the opposition from conservative noblemen, the administration was centralized and all authority was concentrated in Bangkok. This accelerated the pace of urbanization. In 1932, Thailand experienced a revolution. A large number of officials, civil and military advocated modernized administration and they were debarred by the royal family. The restriction on mobility led to the coup and the end of the absolute monarchy. Although the senior and important positions before 1932 were held by royal nobility, recruitment for the junior ranks civil servants offered opportunities for many young men from Bangkok and other provinces to move up the social ladder. The competition for civil service positions after the revolution became more intense, especially from candidates with rural backgrounds and low family income. Seeking for better living conditions and social class advancement drove the growth of population in the city.

Bangkok, with its all important political base, offers sophisticated financial and producer services. The city became the financial hub of the Baht Zone among Thailand, Laos, Cambodia and Burma. The city also exerts power in international governance and diplomacy in the Asian region. The Thai government actively welcomed various international association hosting headquarters in Bangkok, for instance United Nations Economic and Social Commission for the Asia and the Pacific, United Nations Children's Rights & Emergency Relief Organization, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the Asian Institute of Technology, and the International Air Transport Organization. Webster (2004) highlighted that 66 international organizations and 123 countries' diplomatic community are represented in Bangkok. The United States embassy in Bangkok is its second largest in the world.

Urban development in Bangkok during the 19th and 20th century was based on outward expansion from three core nodes, the royal/ government city, Chinatown and the international quarter (Webster, 2004). The first and original node of Bangkok was the royal palace and surrounding government buildings that administered the country. This

area, named Rattankosin, was well planned in terms of street layout, monuments, buildings and parks. It is currently a protected area carrying important government, religious and royal emblems of the Kingdom. Another city node is the Chinatown springing up along the river downstream nearby Rattankosin. Large number of Chinese immigrants, contributing to the second largest ethnic group in Bangkok, moved to the city in the mid-1800s (Phongpaichit & Baker, 1995). Chinese immigrants lived in a compact community and were active in the import and export of goods to and from Bangkok's hinterland, in particularly exporting rice from the agriculturally fertile central plain. The emergence of the international quarter resulted from the reopening of the city, known as Siam in the old days, to foreign trade in 1855 under the Bowring Treaty. Although Thailand had never been colonized, the Western powers had special rights in the international quarter, such as a court to try their own citizens. The first road in Bangkok, Charoen Krung, was built in the area.

The city has the ninth largest population in East Asia (World Bank, 2015a). The number in the Bangkok Metropolitan area increased from 7.8 million people in 2000 to 9.6 million people in 2010, showing a modest annual growth rate of 2%. A point to note is that Bangkok is administratively fragmented and more than 60% of the urban area is located outside the boundaries of the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration. This thesis therefore defined Bangkok as covering all urban areas inside and outside the management of Bangkok Metropolitan Administration. In this case, the population of Bangkok would be 13.8 million as of 2012 (European Association of National Metrology Institutes, 2013). Bangkok has joined the ranks of the megacities of the Asian region. The urban population in Thailand was 27% in 1980 and reached 48% in 2014 (World Bank, 2015b). As for population density, 132.1 people per square kilometre registered based on the 2011 population figures (World Population Review, 2015).

4.3.3 Tourism Development

The appearance of tourism activity in Thailand dates from the late 1920s, even if royal sponsorship of tourism started in the late 19th century with the modernizer King Chulalongkorn (Meyer, 1988). The itinerary of the earliest weekly tour in Bangkok was sightseeing at places that foreigners could hardly access such as the National library,

universities, Grand Palace with the Temple of the Emerald Buddha, the floating market and the ruins of Ayutthaya (Seidenfaden, 1927). In the late 1950s mass tourism began under the command of Marshal Sarit Thanarat's premiership for the purpose of economic development. The growth of the service sector offered great support to the emerging tourism industry in Bangkok. Despite the absence of distinct policy for tourism development, Tourist Organization of Thailand was established in 1959. Thai Airways International was started in the same year with a joint venture from the Scandinavian Airline System (Meyer, 1988). At that period an extensive world tour by the Thai royal couple was exerting great marketing effort in promoting the kingdom abroad (Peleggi, 1996).

In the 1950s and 1960s Thailand was dependent upon and allied with the United States. The United States supported the succession of military regimes in Thailand with arms, money and diplomatic affairs, and in return, Thailand backed the United States diplomacy and collaborated in military operations (Fineman, 1997). The Americans also aided in infrastructure development especially roads. The decade of the 1960s witnessed the involvement of the USA Army in the Vietnam War, which was an important influence on the demand of Bangkok's tourism industry. As the gateway to Thailand, Bangkok was an important destination for off-duty American soldiers for rest and recuperation (Ouyyanont, 2001). These soldiers accounted for approximately 16% of total visitors with 10.8 million US dollars annual expenditure in Thailand in 1966 (Hunchangsinh, 1974). The presence of the U.S. military base in the Thailand's north-eastern provinces boosted the hotels, restaurants, nightclubs and service sectors. The soft service industries, including nightclubs, bars, massage parlours and prostitutions, were developed as products for the large spending US troops. In 1966, Bangkok had 336 night clubs, bars and massage parlours out of the 652 in the whole country. It gave Bangkok a negative reputation of being a predominantly sexually-oriented recreational destination.

In the mid-1970s, Thailand was regarded as the most safe and pleasant country to visit in Southeast Asia due to the regional climate of rising Islamic fundamentalism (Peleggi, 1996). In the midst of an economic slowdown during the second half of the decade, tourism became an essential powerhouse for earning foreign exchange. The support from the government has played important roles in the development of hotel industry in Thailand. At the infant stage of hotel development, the Thai government welcomed both

domestic and foreign investors to establish hotel businesses in the country. The determination of the government was showed on the agenda of the Second Economic and Social Development Plan from 1967 to 1971. Aiming to build hotels that met the international standards, the government offered incentives to private enterprises (Pearce & Thanksooks, 2015). Some initiatives included tax exemption on importing construction materials and equipment for building hotels and offering favourable tax regime for income derived from the revenue for the first five years for newly establish hotel businesses. A number of new five star rated hotels alongside major attractions emerged in major cities across the nation, such as Bangkok, Chiangmai and Hat Yai. It offered a solid foundation to support the growing number of international tourists.

Tourism was officially emphasized by Thailand's government in the Fourth Economic and Social Development Plan from 1977 to 1981 (Peleggi, 1996). The Tourist Organization of Thailand was upgraded to the Tourist Authority of Thailand in 1979. With considerable efforts, the country marked annual increase in tourist arrivals and the figures largely surpassed the neighbourhood countries in the region (Walton, 1993). Tourism receipts grew from 17 million in 1980 to 110 million in 1990, attributing to the increment in air connectivity with destinations and airfare reductions (Bowen, 2000). More important, the airline deregulation and urban policy on urban megaprojects industry building new city spaces with a combination of office, retail, hotel, conference centre and residential land uses in the Bangkok urban area, confirmed the city as the regional air transportation hub. Many travellers chose Thailand, especially Bangkok, as an en route stopover. Moving into the 1980s, celebrating the cultural heritage became the iconic tourism promotion of the country and its capital. The country's monuments and historic ruins had been extensively restored. A major shift in tourism policy was also marked in the Sixth Economic and Social Development Plan from 1987 to 1991. The budget allocation for both tourism short and long-term plan development was directly given to Tourist Authority of Thailand. Richter (1989) suggested that the act of positioning the country as a cultural tourism destination was predominantly to mitigate the image of sex tourism.

In the last twenty years, Bangkok has been a popular tourism destination for regional and international visitors. The economic contribution of the tourism sector to Thailand is significant. The country relies on tourism to provide 7% of its GDP (Tourism Authority

of Thailand, 2015); while the direct contribution of Travel & Tourism to Thailand's GDP was THB1,074 billion (9.0% of total GDP) in 2013 (World Travel Tourism Council, 2015). No city-wise data is available on the official website of National Statistical Office of Thailand. As for Bangkok, the city made up 48% of Thailand's GDP in 2011 (Euromonitor, 2013). Bangkok was the leading destination city by international visitor arrivals in the second quarter of 2013, with 15.98 million visitors in 2013 (Wong, 2013). While surpassing the 2012 leader (London) by a slim margin, Bangkok demonstrated growth rates of better than 18 percent in 2011 and 2012, with a further 9.8 percent growth in 2013. The city is ranked fourth in cross-border spending, with 14.3 billion dollars projected for 2013, after New York, London and Paris.

In terms of tourist accommodation, a total of 2496 hotels and guesthouses were available in the whole Kingdom and Bangkok accounted for 14.2% (The National Statistic Office, 2006). Of the 177,178 guest rooms, 30.4% was in Bangkok. Although the city was accused of an oversupply of five-star hotels, the growing outbound tourism from emerging markets such as China and India will support the growth of middle and upper scale hotels (Chinmaneevong, 2015). In the perspective of Bangkok's tourism products, culture and heritage remains a mainstay – The Grand Palace, Wat Arun, Wat Pho and Wat Phra Kaew are the most reputed historical gems. Thailand also advertised and reclaimed itself as an amazing shopping paradise and Bangkok is at the heart of this claim. The city accommodates shoestring shoppers to big spenders with massive shopping malls. According to the global shopper index, Bangkok ranked the 7th place among 25 Asian cities and was “the champion” in the area of affordability (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2012). Health tourism, ranging from massage and spa, yoga, dental service, plastic surgery, and medical services, are reputable businesses in Bangkok (Connell, 2007). Increasing number of international travellers, particularly from the oil-rich Middle East countries and well developed Western countries, have come to Bangkok for affordable and readily available services (Cohen, 2008).

4.3.4 Key Drivers Shaping The Present Tourism Development

Section 4.3.1 to 4.3.3 presented the document analysis of the city and tourism development of Bangkok. This section is designed to reveal the reasons propelling

Bangkok's current tourism development. The presentation is based on the viewpoints of the six powerful and significant interviewees from both the private and public sectors of Bangkok. Some of the interviewees' perspectives are supplemented by specific academic studies. An evaluation of the present tourism development is initially discussed. The key drivers that shaped the present face of Bangkok are then considered. The drivers emerged by following the rigorous procedures of the grounded theory approach. The STEEP analysis was then adopted to frame the drivers in order to be consistent with the Asian cities case. Table 4.6 showed the code and job positions of the six interviewees in the investigation of the Bangkok case.

Table 4.6 Code and corresponding job positions of the Bangkok case interviewees

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
B1	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B2	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B3	Head of Tourism Authority
B4	Division Head of Public Transport
B5	Head of Monitoring and Evaluation
B6	Head of Department of Tourism

4.3.4.1 Evaluation of The Present Tourism Development

All six powerful and significant interviewees were satisfied with the tourism performance and development of Bangkok over the past years. Bangkok was seen as a mature destination welcoming international tourists, and it was among the leading visited tourism cities in the world. Visitor arrivals and tourist's receipts were the most prominent compared with other cities in the region. According to Interviewee B3, the capital city was the first point of entry for approximately three-fifths of visitors to Thailand. The figure reinforced the critical yet significant role of Bangkok. Interviewees further commented on the source markets. As stated by Interviewee B1, the European countries and Japan were the major source markets to Bangkok despite a slight drop of share in recent years. The huge influx of Mainland Chinese provided a strong base for demand, coupled with some emerging markets such as Russia and India.

Several interviewees addressed the fact that the tourism performance was not always optimal. In the last five years, the political disputes and the global financial crisis affected the tourism industry negatively. Political disputes within the country were a serious problem that delayed the plans for tourism development and promotion. Further elaboration of this theme will appear in Section 4.3.4.5.2 Political Instability. Some interviewees, on the contrary, adopted a take-it-for-granted mindset that international tourists would come back anyway. The reason was the normal fluctuations in the cycles of any business and the unique offerings of Bangkok as a tourism city. They had confidence with the resilience of the tourism system and the bounce back of visitors within a short period of time.

Interviewees had divergent opinions on the current positioning of this tourism city. The public sector interviewees mentioned tourists coming to Bangkok for its modern facilities, its natural treasures and the wide variety of entertainment. It was noted that many tourists came to Bangkok just because of the entertainment. The interviewees from the private sector however doubted the forms of entertainment offered in Bangkok.

Interviewee B2 suggested, “*The Tourism Authority of Thailand has branded Bangkok a family destination, but I disagreed. I would create air quotes for the kind of entertainment offered to tourists*”.

The current entertainment offerings, for instance nightlife, pubs, sex tourism and lady boy shows, were seen as inconsistent with the family-market positioning. One interviewee also commented that such offerings have associated Bangkok with a negative and risky reputation as a tourism destination. Generally speaking, interviewees reached consent on the promising tourism development and performance. They signified the tireless efforts made by the public and private sectors over the last decade to enhance the city’s appeal. The following section reviews the key drivers that contributed to the success.

4.3.4.2 Social Drivers

4.3.4.2.1 Unique Thai Culture

The Thai culture was the paramount driver that made Bangkok an appealing destination, according to the interviewees. In the aftermath of the colonial era, most countries in Asia were made up of multiethnic populations and arguably have no great sense of culture. Thailand was the only Southeast Asian country which escaped direct colonial rule. The Thai culture has endured throughout the nation and is seen as effectively attracting an international audience. Reviewing the six interview transcripts, the word Thai culture frequently occurred when asking about the unique selling point of Bangkok. Given that the vast majority of Thais are devout Buddhists, interviewees suggested that the canons of Buddhism have shaped the Thai way of life and ideology.

Interviewee B6 observed, *“Thai people are our valuable asset. They show genuine smiles on their faces everywhere, even the taxi drivers and food vendors. Thai people believe in Buddhism. That’s why we smile with our sincere heart. This is why we bring people to Thailand”*.

Interviewees B4 echoed this stance, suggesting *“Before working in Bangkok, I visited the city at least once a year for a vacation. It is the Thai culture, or the Siam culture, which has attracted people from overseas. The smiles of Thai people make me feel relaxed”*.

To summarize the description of the Thai culture from interviewees, it is a blend of the friendly, genial, hospitable and sincere personalities of Thai people. Thai people enact and reflect such values in their warm smiling and being responsive when serving the tourists. Locals tend to be open-minded, a style that accommodated everyone equitably. Interviewees pointed out that the tolerance was for everyone meaning the majority and minority. Not just the mass tourists but also the gay, lesbian, transgender and bisexual community. Discrimination was not seen as an issue in Bangkok. In fact, the acceptance of diversity was viewed as a pronounced strength.

Value-for-money was also frequently associated with the Thai culture when interviewees were asked about the uniqueness of Bangkok as a tourism city. Value, an intangible quality, was seen as very good in terms of the level of hospitality and the experience in style received. Value for money was important to Thai tourism especially during the bad

times of the global economic challenges to Thai tourism. One clear statement of this issue was as follows:

Interviewee B2 declared, *“After the economic downturn, people’s mentality changed significantly in terms of spending. They adopted a more value-for-money driven attitude. Bangkok ticks the box on value. We deliver on the quality for the value. What you get for what you spend is perceived favourably”*.

The Thai culture was also seen as exerting a great influence on the service style in every encounter between tourists and locals. Not only the tourism and hospitality industry practitioners, but also the locals were open-minded and welcomed the tourists. The stay in Bangkok gave the tourists a sense of being welcomed, even a feeling like home. Thai culture was repeatedly viewed as the key unique selling point and was indeed the main reason given for tourists’ repeat visitation.

4.3.4.2.2 Human Resources

The human resources of Thailand, particularly pointing to language proficiency, was an issue mentioned by interviewees. As noted previously, Thailand was the only Southeast Asian nations which avoided direct colonial rule. From a tourism city perspective, a merit of this independence was the preservation of the very authentic Thai culture and lifestyle. The flip side was however the relatively poor standard of language skills among the industry practitioners. There was never any immediate pressure from an external power for Thais to master other languages.

Interviewee B6 reported, *“Only a small percentage of Thai people can speak English. They just use their body language to communicate with tourists”*.

Several interviewees echoed this point of view, indicating the problem that parts of the city were not ready to receive international tourists. Miscommunication can lead to inferior service quality and the inability to deliver the best of Bangkok was viewed as a resultant problem. The limitations in the language skill were limitations for a tourism city targeting more quality international tourists in the long-run. Interviewee B6 further commented on the willingness of the Thai workforce to acquire the language skills.

Despite the poor standard of the English language, she stressed that attempts were made and supported by smiles as an internationally recognized language that demonstrated warm hospitality.

Another issue with the Thai workforce was the problem of illegal tour guides. Interviewee B3 pointed out the problem of illegal guides as a weakness of Bangkok's tourism. Entering Bangkok with a tourist visa, the illegal guides bring tour groups from overseas tour companies at reduced prices which are lower than those of the legal guides (The Nation, 2015). Seventy percent of the arrested illegal guides were reported to be Chinese. They claimed to be more resourceful than the local Thai guides in prompting tourists to consume. As native Chinese speakers, they have an advantage over the Thai guides in this respect. Some Chinese illegal guides formed business networks to share benefits with foreign-owned tourism operators. The problem noted by interviewees was that they exploited Thai attractions and resources by allowing tourists to damage the natural resources. Lacking insights into Thai culture and traditions, they also delivered incorrect information to tourists. Such problems were seen as damaging the reputation of Bangkok as an international tourism destination.

4.3.4.2.3 Perceived Safety

Perceived safety was a concern to international tourists, as signified by the interviewees. Those representing the public sector, interviewee B3, B5 and B6, mentioned their worries about the tourist scams.

Interviewee B6 complained, *“Grand Palace is the signature attraction of Bangkok. That area also features many famous historical relics and shrines of our country. Right at the entrance of the Grand Palace there are illegal guides and taxi drivers fooling tourists about the closure of the Palace and taking the tourists to lesser known but beautiful attractions. The scammers then charge them a hefty fee”*.

Interviewees B3 and B5 echoed the stance, saying the frequency of tourist scams blemished the image of Bangkok. An interviewee from the private sector also condemned the tourist scammers.

Interviewee B5 indicated, *“Grand Palace is our icon here. Some people travelled for a long way to get here and they were robbed for experience. We are not doing our best. These are weaknesses in our structure for so long”*.

Academic research also has some insights about the perceived safety of Bangkok. The city has long had an international reputation for sex tourism and night-time entertainment. The feature was associated with the criminogenic label concerning tourist scams and crime against tourists (Ryan & Kinder, 1996). Pearce (2011) conducted interviews and summarized the scams mentioned on travel blogs. The findings identified three categories of scams, namely tourist services deception, general retail deception and social contact deception. Commonly encountered scams included taxi drivers not using meters properly by adding extra or false amounts to bills, price discrimination to tourists, offering cheap drinks in bars but then charging for the “free” show. The tourist scams problem in Bangkok drew the attention of the Australian government who recommend exercising a high degree of caution of the citizens travelling to Thailand (Australian Government, 2016). The authority warned tourist about the potential exposure to scams, especially food and drink spiking in the popular backpacker destination, such as Khao San Road in Bangkok and other the night-time entertainment zones. It is these kinds of reputational effects that worried the interviewees.

Apart from the tourist scam issues, interviewees also expressed their worries about the perceived safety problem for tourists. Generally speaking, Bangkok can be viewed as a very safe tourist destination. Foreign tourists however sometimes stereotyped destinations in Southeast Asia as dangerous. Coupled with the tourist scams, the destination image of Bangkok can decline. The city tourism promotion bureau, Tourism Authority of Thailand Bangkok’s office, has proactively promoted the city to the world as a safe destination. Stationing tourist police at major attractions was means to monitor and offer help to tourists when needed. Several interviewees stated that the perception of safety was difficulty to change despite the efforts.

4.3.4.3 Economic Drivers

4.3.4.3.1 Rising Middle Class

Undoubtedly, the term “rising middle class” is a catch phrase. All six powerful and significant interviewees regarded it as a potent powerhouse of tourism demand. As a natural consequence of the blooming economy in Asia, an emerging cohort is identifiable across several Asian countries. Bangkok has benefited from the wave of middle class Asian tourists due to its proximity to various source originating countries, the availability of tourism infrastructure, and the perception that it offers value-for-money.

Interviewee B1 explained, “*Bangkok has always been the first overseas destination for tourists from the Asia emerging economies... Many of these middle class tourists are from cities. They would love to travel to a place with a similar lifestyle*”.

Academic research has documented the relationship and correlational links between travel and liminality. Travel can be an adventure being in distant, foreign and exotic places. These experiences can be a stark contrast with everyday life of the tourists. Bloom and Goodnow (2013) described travel as a form of liminality in which there is both a time and space of withdrawal from normal modes of social action. Liminal travel experiences may provide tourists with freedom in cultural, environmental and emotional senses. The liminal experience however varied across personal traits and home cultures (Brooker & Joppe, 2013; Bui, Wilkins, & Lee, 2014). The research finding of Bui et al. (2014) have highlighted the impact of home cultures on liminality. Along the same vein and regarding destination choice, familiarity can be seen as an important attribute for Asian tourists (e.g., Singh, Schapper, & Jack, 2014; Lee & King, 2015). It is for example attractive for urban inhabitants to visit tourism cities because of similar lifestyles.

The interviewees commented that travelling to Bangkok as the first overseas tourism city was partly due to awareness of the Thai capital. Primary cities in the region were well received by international tourists due to the proactive marketing effort and high publicity. As mentioned by interviewee B5, the active usage of social media platforms to the major source markets made Bangkok a visible destination. The Tourism Authority of Thailand has launched a social media campaign on Facebook to target international audiences. The association also registered microblog accounts on Weibo, the popular social media in China. Cities like Bangkok which used these tools were therefore among the initial travel

destinations. Coupled with other drivers such as the Thai culture, connectivity and its priority for tourism development, interviewees suggested that Bangkok was perceived as a popular tourism city from the middle class intra-regional source markets.

4.3.4.3.2 Connectivity

All interviewees identified geographic location as a key factor contributing to the economy of Thailand. Located in the heart of Southeast Asia and the Greater Mekong River region, Thailand has enjoyed peerless transport connections. The country shares borders with Burma, Laos, Cambodia and Malaysia. Thai locational advantage works well for overland itineraries. As the capital of Thailand, Bangkok serves as a gateway within the country and the Asian region. As stated by Bhattacharyay, Kawai & Nag (2012, p.225), a gateway is “a multimodal entry or exit point through which goods and international passengers move beyond local and regional markets. Its intermodal function is to articulate the regulation of movements of people and goods through gateways”. The domestic air services and land transport connected the capital city with other secondary cities, including popular tourist cities in the rest of the country, as well as other Asian cities. It is widely regarded as a viable communications and logistics hub to support business operations across Southeast Asia.

Interviewee B2 indicated “*The country relies on gateway Bangkok a lot*”.

Other interviewees echoed the viewpoint. The high connectivity has fuelled Bangkok’s role as a place for national and international trade. It has also enabled the city to be the domestic centre of arts and education. According to interviewee B1, better working and education opportunities were offered in the capital due to the concentration of large scale national and international companies. Reputable and major universities, such as Chulalongkorn University, Mahidol University and Thammasat University, in the country were located in Bangkok. The Bangkok Art and Culture Centre, the National Gallery, as well as many public and private art galleries and museums, could be found in the capital city. Interviewees reported these feature in facilities in discussing the capital and communication roles of Bangkok.

The strategic geographical location was a major reason making Bangkok the concentration of many regional headquarters of international organizations.

Interviewee B6 stated, *“My duty is to ensure the tourism policy in Bangkok in accordance to the international standards. To achieve that, my staff and I attend various international tourism conferences. The regional conferences always take place in Bangkok”*.

This stance reveals the high connectivity and concentration of regional headquarters in Bangkok. As of 2007, around 60 inter-governmental organizations established headquarters in Bangkok (Crocombe, 2007). An interviewee also reported that it was core to the central government strategy to have Bangkok play an active role in international relations. The Secretariat of the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, the Asia-Pacific regional offices of the Food and Agricultural Organization, the International Civil Aviation Organization, the International Labour Organization, the International Organization for Migration, The Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance Asia-Pacific Regional Office, the International Telecommunication Union, the UN High Commission for Refugees, and the UN Children's Fund, and the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) are just a handful of examples. As reported in the Travel Weekly (1998), PATA's decision about the relocation of its headquarters to Bangkok was mainly because of its centrality. Even though Hong Kong, Indonesia, Macau, Malaysia, Philippines and Singapore were on the list, Bangkok stood out given the consideration of its centrally location within the region stretching from South Asia to North America. Such conditions made Bangkok a popular destination for MICE activities. Conferences and meetings, ranging from small to large scale, have proliferated due to the presence of so many major organizations.

4.3.4.4 Environmental Driver

4.3.4.4.1 Pollution

Garbage handling and water pollution are critical environmental issues in Bangkok. Several interviewees commented that the issue was at a critical point. The streets, pedestrian precincts, the canals, the famous Chao Phraya River and the tourist areas are

sometimes choked with garbage. This notable problem was a substantial concern for the interviewees. Interviewee B3 admitted a dirty Bangkok was a challenge for the growth of tourism. Another interviewee agreed this stance.

Interviewee B5 commented, *“We have room for improvement about the waste collection, recycling and separation problem”*.

The large amount of garbage generated in the city is a special issue. Bangkok society produces a higher ratio of garbage per head than other capitals in Asia (Kitjakosol, 2013). Bangkok itself accounted for 22% of trash daily relative to all of Thailand, including the daily usage of 8.1 million plastic bags (Panyalimpanun, 2013). The amount of trash has increased, from 3.6 million tons in 2012 to 4.4 million tons in 2013. Interviewees pointed out another problem about the trash collection. Bangkok Metropolitan Administration was responsible for the city’s management of garbage. It had been criticized about the inefficient way of collecting rubbish by using 2000 large garbage trucks and dozens of boats. Interviewees observed that the collection process was not environmental friendly and produced lots of carbon dioxide.

In addition, interviewee B5 observed the problem of garbage recycling and separation. Forty percent of the collected trash could be recycled but only 18% ended up recycling. Bangkok Metropolitan Administration was also ineffective in implementing the trash separation. Over half of the Bangkok’s municipal solid waste was compostable organic waste but only 5% of households practised composting. The remaining waste was disposed in landfill. These problems reached a critical level and were more than trash handling. The boats that travel on the Chao Phraya River use salvaged diesel truck engines and directly emit exhaust into the waterways (Janofsky, 2012). The riverside buildings directly pump waste into the river. These pollutants have caused serious water contamination problems.

4.3.4.5 Political Drivers

4.3.4.5.1 Priority for Tourism Development

The tremendous tourism performance of Bangkok was largely propelled by the government support and proactive marketing effort.

B3 signified that the success was “the tireless efforts made by Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) and the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA) as well as the public and private sectors over the last 10 years to enhance the city’s appeal for tourists”.

Established in 1960, TAT exerted efforts to promote Thailand as tourism destination domestically and internationally. Apart from the headquarters, TAT also set up 35 regional offices throughout the country to be in charge of the city-wise tourism marketing. The authority also had over 15 offices in other countries. As the capital of Thailand, Bangkok was on the top priority for the promotion.

Interviewee B6 reported, “*The primary focus of the government is Bangkok, where most of the budget goes to the capital. Bangkok is the image of Thailand and the landmark of tourism. It is the first visited city in Thailand for many international tourists*”.

Interviewee B3 reported approximately 60% of the tourists entered Thailand through Bangkok. The capital city was therefore obtained most of the resources in tourism promotion. In accordance with the national agenda, the TAT Bangkok office was free hand in implementing their tourism marketing campaigns. The authority researched the outlook for the key source markets and proportionally allocated budgets for individual markets. In addition, the BMA had a tourism sub-division in charge of the tourism development policy and budget. The division was independent from all other authorities and was financially supported by the Ministry of Tourism.

Interviewee B6, working at the Ministry of Tourism, stressed the special status of Bangkok as the capital city and the importance of tourism. The role of the Ministry of Tourism is tourism policy formulation. One of the key agendas was sustainable tourism development. To ensure a sustainable growth, the authority aimed to be in line with international standards.

Interviewee B6 commented, *“We actively and regularly send representatives to regional and international conferences. Our representatives compared notes with the participated delegates and translated international best practice into action in Thailand”*.

Apart for the public sector, predominately the private sector also exerted efforts to boost the success of Bangkok as tourism city. Interviewees gave examples of a few influential tourism bodies that represented the collective voices of the private sector, namely the Thai Hotels Association, Council of Industry and Tourism Industry Council. As informed by Interviewee B6, the Tourism Industry Council was one of the largest tourism associations in Bangkok. Subsidized by the government, the council took care of the intelligence and research of the hospitality, transportation, tourism, souvenir shops and hotels. It represented a collective voice of the industry and served as a communicator to the public sector of Bangkok. Nevertheless, interviewee B1 argued that some associations had a louder voice than the others.

Interviewee B1 noted, *“Unfortunately, the voice of the hotelier is not taken into serious consideration. In Bangkok, most of the major hotels are managed by Western companies. The city administration and the tourism authority tend to listen to those businessmen who are heavily weighted in the Thai society”*.

This claim was reinforced in terms of the stronger power of the local tycoons in influencing the priorities for tourism decision. Generally speaking, all interviewees agreed the devotion of the public and private sectors did make a difference to the city tourism’s development and promotion.

4.3.4.5.2 Political Instability

Thailand had been disrupted by political upheavals since 2001. The interviewees from the public sector admitted that the political unrest diluted the focus and resources for the tourism development of Bangkok in recent years. Interviewee B5 explained that the political situation was due to the political interests of different parties. One party would react against the policy advocated by another, resulting in stagnation for tourism plans. It was a resultant problem of the longstanding contest between the Thaksin Shinawatra supporters and the conservative opposition (Sorri, 2015). The latest escalation occurred

in 2014, with massive numbers of Bangkok citizens occupying the main roads in demonstrations. Corruption allegation against the former premier was the target of the protesters' concerns. The clashes between the two sides resulted in a military coup led by the current Prime Minister, General Prayut Chan-ocha. Supported by the King of Thailand, the General imposed martial law nationwide. The purpose was to stop the continuous violence by allowing the army to maintain the social order and restore peace. The imposition of martial law dented the image of Bangkok as a tourism city. The incident drew worldwide media attention.

Interviewee B1 indicated, *“Worldwide broadcast press showed pictures of armed soldiers on the streets of Bangkok. It is legitimate that media likes to show extravagant pictures to wow the audience. Indeed I did not see any soldiers when commuting from home to workplace. I feel Bangkok is a very safe city”*.

International tourists however were not the insiders and would fear coming to Bangkok. B4 echoed the viewpoint and explained the perceived safety issue. Conventional travel insurance was abandoned due to political risk. Tourists were therefore on their own in terms of liabilities in visiting this politically unstable destination. A mutual consent was reached among interviewees that the political unrest in Bangkok was unhealthy to the image, regardless of tireless marketing effort.

Interviewee B1 proposed, *“My concern is how long does it take for tourists to come back. Every time there is a political event, it hurts the image. Bangkok cannot continue to afford to be dented by this image”*.

Interviewee B1 expressed worries over the impact of the unstable political situation for tourism development. He explained that the perceived risk scared international tourists. Interviewee B4 agreed with this viewpoint. He stressed that the harm caused by political instability, such as martial law, was not covered by the tourist insurance. This was the key reason stopping people from visiting Bangkok.

4.3.4.5.3 Infrastructure

Interviewees contended that Bangkok as a mature tourism destination was equipped with sophisticated city infrastructure and amenities. The electricity and water supply were stable and sufficient. The telecommunications was liberalized in the 2000s, allocating all commercial spectrum licenses via auction. As of December 2015, Thailand has 110 million mobile subscribers, in which 40 million were mobile internet users (Bangkok Post, 2015). The exact data for mobile use, particularly smartphone penetration, in Bangkok was unavailable. Nevertheless, the smartphone market of Bangkok was ranked the second largest among ASEAN region, despite the belated arrival of the 3G technology (Forbes, 2014). Interviewees claimed that the infrastructure in Bangkok in general outperformed other ASEAN tourism cities.

Interviewee B1 suggested, *“We have a relatively good international airport and relatively united immigration system. We have a well-developed tourism infrastructure in the country. Cambodia and Vietnam did not spend years and years on infrastructure as Thailand have done. For instance, Myanmar is a beautiful country but the infrastructure is poor and boring. Not only the problem of basic infrastructure but also no supply of good hotel rooms”*.

As for the transport infrastructure, interviewees shared their views on the airport and the public transport. The information on the city’s connectivity was noted in Section 4.3.4.3.2 Connectivity. Opting for the two-airport strategy, Bangkok enjoyed being a hub that created connectivity and drove demand to the country.

Interviewee B4 reported, *“The free flow of people, information and goods are important for a tourism city. It is thanks to the two-airport strategy in Bangkok”*.

Bangkok currently has a domestic airport and an international airport respectively, connecting the city with other primary and secondary cities within and beyond the country. Don Mueang Airport, the domestic airport, primarily handles domestic flights and small amount of international flights, mainly budget carriers. In 2015, the airport was the world’s busiest low-cost carrier terminal (Centre for Aviation, 2015). The amount of flights handled even exceeded the purposely-built low cost carrier terminal in Kuala Lumpur. According to interviewees, this strategy was conceived as an effective use of resources by directing the air traffic and streamlining ground operating capacity. Hubs

provided local passengers with a wider network scope at higher frequency than simply based-on local origin-destination demand alone (Burghouwt, 2013). It generates connectivity for passengers travelling to and from destinations.

The Bangkok Mass Transit System (BTS), also known as the Skytrain, was praised highly by all interviewees. To local citizens, it offered an alternative to ground transportation and reduced the traffic congestion problems. Bangkok has been suffering from the longstanding traffic jams problem. The problem was further intensified since the launch of the first-car buyer incentive program in 2012 (Maierbrugger, 2013). The government intended to offer incentive for the Thai people switching from motorbikes to cars to boost the domestic car sales. The scheme however had a side effect of much denser traffic congestion. Meanwhile, Thai people posited an aspiration that owning cars reflected high social status. The city, having a physical capacity of coping with less than two million cars, has ended up with five million vehicles (BBC News, 2012a).

The BTS benefits tourists in many ways. This was agreed by all six interviewees. BTS services were available in multi-language, aiding independent travellers who were not literate in the Thai language. The BTS routes connected major tourist attractions and large scale shopping malls in Bangkok. The service was reliable and operated 7/24 in any weather condition. Interviewee B4, the BTS operator, reported that the BTS was the only public transportation that offered regular service when the city suffered from severe flooding in the past years. The three BTS stations located in the Siam area, the most famous tourist central business district in Bangkok, were linked up with Skybridge. The Skybridge is a pedestrian passage above ground.

Interviewee B2 expressed, *“The logistics of Bangkok is the flip side. We built hotels in the Siam area because within 15 minutes walking distance you can have 4500 rooms. You never have to touch the ground because there is Skybridge”*.

This was the strategy of the hospitality property that interviewee B2 worked for in order to mitigate the logistics problem brought to their businesses. He further explained that the traffic congestion problem was a concern to business travellers. Punctuality and level of ease of moving around the city were critical issues associated with the logistic problems. Although adventurous travellers might opt for a Tuktuk, auto rickshaw, experience to skip the traffic, it was not a viable solution for gaining business travellers’

confidence. It also hinders international organizations from coming to Bangkok for MICE activities. The Skybridge, concentration of hotel accommodations and MICE venue in the Siam region mitigated the problem to certain extent.

In respect to tourism infrastructure, wide variety was the buzzword for accommodation, dining and attractions. Bangkok's rich Thai cultural heritage sites. The Grand Palace, a large number of temples, shrines and museums are the signatures. The diversity also exists in hostels and luxurious brand hotels, from street food to fine dining, from traditional heritage sites to pop arts, from staged entertainment to nightlife. Such amenities were offered in a wide price range as well.

Interviewee B2 explicated, *“When you get here, you got a real melting pot of experiences, from culture, food, people and to the madness on the street. All the stuff that you don't have at home but you want on a vacation experience. Maybe you don't want to live here but you do want to come here”*.

Interviewees remarked that the tourism city fitted for every tourist with whatever budgets. Another interviewee further pointed out that every individual sought a good deal with good quality in terms of the value of the tourism infrastructure provided. It drove Bangkok's popularity among international tourists.

4.3.4.6 Summary of Key Drivers

Nine key drivers have been revealed. The social drivers include unique culture, human resources and perceived safety. The rising middle class and connectivity are the economic drivers, while pollution is seen as a key environmental driver. Priority for tourism development, political instability and infrastructure are identified as the political drivers. No technological driver is revealed in the case of Bangkok.

4.4 Hong Kong

Hong Kong is a Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China assuming sovereignty under the One Country Two Systems principle (GovHK, 2015). Under the constitutional document, the Basic Law, this principle will remain effective

for 50 years from 1997 to 2047. Residing on the southeast coast of China at the Pearl River Estuary, Hong Kong primarily consists of three main territories, the Hong Kong Island, Kowloon Peninsula and the New Territories. Figure 6 showcases the geographic location of Hong Kong. It covers a total area of 1,104 square kilometres with a quarter of the developed land. As for land use as of 2014, 66.5% was woodland, shrubland, grassland or wetland, 6.9% was residential, 6.1% was agriculture, 5.1% was transportation, 4.8% was other urban or built-up land, 2.7% was water bodies, 2.3% were industrial, institutional, and open space respectively, 0.6% was barren land and the remaining 0.4% was commercial (Planning Department, 2015).

The city's climate is sub-tropical, ranging from below 10 degrees Celsius in winter and over 31 degrees Celsius in summer with an average annual rainfall of 2,847.3mm. The official languages of Hong Kong are Chinese and English, and English is widely used in both public and private sectors given its massive use in all parts of the globe and Hong Kong's special historical background. As one of the world's leading international financial hubs, Hong Kong is a modern and vibrant cosmopolitan centre with a capitalist service economy. The city's strategic location with the proximity to Mainland China as hinterland and the central location in East Asia further fuel economic development. In 2013, the GDP of Hong Kong was HK\$2,125.4 billion, equivalent to US\$273.2 billion (Census and Statistics Department, 2014). Financial services, trading and logistics, tourism, and producer and professional services are the four key industries in the Hong Kong economy. These four key industries contributed to HK\$1,212.5 billion, or US\$155.8, representing 57% of the overall GDP.



Figure 4.4 Geographic location of Hong Kong (Central Intelligence Agency, 2015)

4.4.1 Brief History

Hong Kong has supported human life since the late Stone Age. Relics have been uncovered at almost 100 archaeological sites including a burial ground and three hoards (Lonely Planet, 2015). Early human settlement predated 700BC. Initially the site was a fishing community and China absorbed Hong Kong in 50BC (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2015). As it is known today, Hong Kong was born when the China's Qing Dynasty government was defeated in the First Opium War in 1842 and ceded Hong Kong Island to Britain. Later Kowloon, the New Territories and 235 outlying islands were also leased to Britain for 99 years. Hong Kong, went by the Cantonese name fragrant harbor, is named after the scent from sandalwood incense factories wafting along the harbor (Lonely Planet, 2015). Since its earliest days as a British Crown colony, Hong Kong has been established as an outpost for trading with China. New immigrants from China and Europe were attracted to stay in Hong Kong because of the free port status, though Hong Kong was still a small floating community.

In the early colonial era, Hong Kong Chinese were an inferior class. Racially based discriminatory legislation existed and the Chinese community had no political

representation in the government and having no permission in acquiring houses in reserved areas (Chan, 1997). Few Hong Kong Chinese elites whom were trusted and relied by the British governors became mediators between the government and local community. Subsequently the social position of Hong Kong Chinese was gradually raised. A significant example was the seventeenth British governor, Cecil Clementi, who introduced the first ethnic Chinese into the Executive Council as unofficial members. Governor Geoffrey Northcote declared Hong Kong as a neutral zone in order to safeguard Hong Kong as a Freeport. Since the early 20th century, Hong Kong gradually experienced a modest growth and developed a substantial community due to many vital establishments of gas and electrical power companies, hospitals, schools with western-style education, banks and a decent transport network including ferries, trams, the Kowloon-Canton Railway, the Peak Tram and the Kai Tak Airport. The full span of British rule was imposed in Hong Kong ranging from British-style common law legal system, the political and institutional system, the rule of law, and bilingual (Chinese and English) codification to the civil service system (Chan, 1997). The development and the enforcement of British Law further boosted the city's advancement and development, as well as separating Hong Kong from the political turmoil associated with the falling of Qing dynasty in China (Lim, 2002).

During World War II, the battle of Hong Kong ended with the British surrendering control of Hong Kong to Japan. The Japanese occupation of Hong Kong was a dark age for locals who suffered from starvation, rationing, hyper-inflation from forced exchange of currency from Hong Kong dollars to Japanese military banknotes, mass executions, and forced deportation as slave labours. At the end of war, British resumed control of the colony on 30 August 1945. A vast wave of Mainland Chinese refugees came to Hong Kong due to the Chinese Civil War. Foreign firms relocated their offices from China to Hong Kong given the unstable political situation in the country. The arrival of new immigrants provided a labour force for light manufacturing, for example buttons, artificial flowers, plastics, footwear and textile, which revived the economy. Amidst the struggle of flu in 1968 and chaos induced by the China's Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976, the economy of Hong Kong experienced a rapid upswing from the 1960s to the 1990s boosted largely by the massive exports resulting from the output of manufacturing industry. 'Made in Hong Kong' goods are still exported worldwide (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2015). Economic structural transition was seen in 1980s when Hong Kong

developed a service-based economy. Since then, the city has been a leading centre for finance, management, information technology, business consultation and other professional services in the Asian region and even worldwide. The city's capitalist service economy is characterized by low taxation and free trade.

Following the Sino-British Joint Declaration signed in 1984, the sovereignty of Hong Kong from British rule was symbolised by a handover to the People's Republic of China on 1 July 1997 (Cheung, 2014). It marked the end of Hong Kong's 156 years of British governance as the last British colony. Switching into a special administrative region, Hong Kong was guaranteed the One Country Two Systems constitutional principle with a high degree of autonomy including retaining its capitalist system, an independent judiciary, the rule of law, its freedom of speech and free trade. There are exceptions of foreign and defence affairs revert to Beijing control (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2015). Under the constitutional document, the Basic Law, this principle will remain effective for 50 years from 1997 to 2047.

4.4.2 Urbanization

Hong Kong has experienced massive population growth since the early 20th century. The total population grew 15.5 fold in the hundred years from 456,700 in 1911 to 7,071,600 in 2011 (see Figure 7). The population growth had a dual basis with high rates of natural increase and cumulative immigration from China. The rate of natural increase has averaged 25.9 per thousand per annum over the two decades since 1947, though slowing down afterwards (Dwyer, 1971). Of greater importance than the natural increase was the immigration from Mainland China where many immigrants fled from the country's political turbulence and warfare (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2015). A 37% increment was noted from 1911 to 1921, 1 34.3% from 1921 to 1931, and a 90.4% from 1921 to 1931 (Fan, 1974). As the communists gained ground in the civil war in China, more migrants fled to Hong Kong and generated another pronounced growth period during the decade from the 1951 to 1961 with a total population of over 3 million. A decisive restriction on Chinese refugee was then exercised by both Hong Kong and Chinese governments, but for unknown reasons the Chinese government relaxed control for one week in May 1962 causing a refugee invasion (Dwyer, 1971). The local authority

arrested illegal immigrants and returned approximately 60,000 illegal entries to Mainland China. Throughout the last 50 years Hong Kong has seen a slower absolute population growth despite a large population base (Census and Statistics Department, 2012). As of 2014 year-end, the city was home to 7,264,100 people with a 0.6% growth rate from 2013.

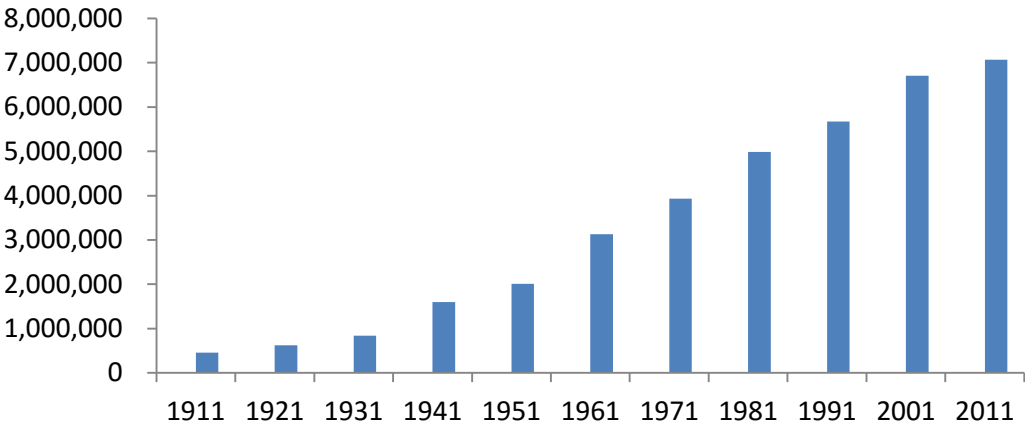


Figure 4.5 Hong Kong Population from 1911 to 2011 (Fan, 1974; Census and Statistics Department, 2013).

Hong Kong experienced a legendary transition from a small fishing village to an international financial hub. In the post-World War II era, the British colonial government pursued laissez faire policies and stressed positive non-interventionism as a guiding light in economic policy (Dwyer, 1971). The policy achieved remarkable success and raised Hong Kong to its world class economic hub status (Chan, 1997). Low and simple taxation structure encouraged foreign investment and the establishment of many company headquarters in Hong Kong as their Asian base. Industrialization in the 1950s was the core basis for urbanization. The great influx of immigrants brought scarcity of land, squatter problems, and their inability to afford transport. Starting from 1960s, the colonial government adopted an active new town policy to solve the squatter resettlement by land reclamation and developing new towns combining with housing, commercial and industrial land use. Public housing has been built from 1973 onwards to accommodate an increasing urban population. A comprehensive transport system was created with the

Mass Transit Railway and the Kowloon-Canton Railway both in 1979 serving as a backbone for the new towns (Hong Kong Government, 2007). Such moves have significantly contributed to Hong Kong's sustainable urbanization in a compact city. As one of the most densely populated places in the world, the land population density stood at 6,690 persons per square kilometre as at mid-2014 (Census and Statistics Department, 2015). The urban population in Hong Kong was 91% in 1980 and reached 100% from 1990 (World Bank, 2015b).

4.4.3 Tourism Development

The tourism industry has become an imperative component of the economy of Hong Kong since shifting to a service economy in the late 1980s. From the 1950s, the Hong Kong government proactively advocated tourism development (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2008). The master plan for airport development was approved in 1954. Along with the construction of a 2529 meter long runway, Kai Tak Airport officially took up the role of the Hong Kong International Airport in 1958 (Civil Aviation Department, 2004). Several statutory bodies were formed, including the Hong Kong Tourist Association, Hong Kong Association of Travel Agents and the Hong Kong Hotels Association. Overseas representative offices were set up in New York, London, Japan and Paris in the 1960s. In 1963, the opening of three hotels, the Hongkong Hilton, Mandarin and President, boosted the available hotel rooms by 76% to 5,907. Ocean Terminal opened for commercial cruise service in 1966. In the late 1960s, tourism receipts broke HK\$1 billion and Japanese tourists were the biggest source market accounting for 41.2%. Thematic promotional campaigns were conducted to boost Hong Kong's global presence, such as staging the Miss Universe Pageant, hosting Rugby Sevens, and branding Hong Kong as the Pearl of the Orient.

Tourism offerings were further strengthened in the 1970s. Ocean Park, a major theme park, was opened in 1977. In 1979, the Mass Transit Railway opened. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University set up the Department of Institutional Management and Catering Studies as the first formal hospitality higher institution providing professional training to practitioners in the same year. In the 1980s, more prominent yet localized attractions were developed, such as the Cheung Chau Bun Festival and the Lan Kwai Fong,

entertainment and dining district. The establishment of Hong Kong Dragon Airlines, The China Ferry Terminal and the Hong Kong Convention and Exhibition Centre also joined the bid to attract more tourists. The city was the most internationally visited city destination in Asia attracting 6.9 million tourists in 1992 (Hobson & Ko, 1994). The figure was ten times greater than the previous decade. Hong Kong welcomed its 10 millionth visitor of the year in 1995, with the Taiwanese and Japanese as the major source markets. In 1998, the Hong Kong International Airport at Chek Lap Kok opened and provided a world-class facility to support tourism growth. The Tourism Commission was established in 1999 to coordinate the government's various tourism development efforts and to provide policy support for the development of tourism in Hong Kong. The SARS outbreak in 2003 damaged the tourism industry and Hong Kong introduced the Individual Visit Scheme leading to a sharp increase of Mainland Chinese tourists. Since then, Mainland Chinese tourists have become the main source market for the Hong Kong tourism industry. In recent decades, several additional and major components of the city's tourism infrastructures have opened; for example the Hong Kong Disneyland, Ngong Ping 360, Asia World Expo, and the Kai Tak Cruise Terminal. The city also became the first duty-free wine port among major economies in the world starting from 2008 (Tourism Commission, 2015).

The tourism performance of Hong Kong has been remarkable. By 2014, Hong Kong had 236 hotels offering 71,887 rooms (Tourism Commission, 2015). Visitor arrivals reached 60.8 million with a 90% average hotel occupancy rate and HK\$1,473 as the average achieved hotel room rate. Overnight visitor per capita spending was HK\$7,960 and the average length of stay of overnight visitors was 3.3 nights. Mainland China continued to be the largest visitor source market with 77.7% of the total arrivals, while the United States remained the largest long-haul visitor source market. In 2012, the Hong Kong International Airport handled 56.5 million passengers, 4.03 million tons of cargo and 352,000 flight movements (Airport Authority Hong Kong, 2014). As a global financial hub, Hong Kong was also a popular MICE destination. In the first half of 2014, over 895,000 overnight MICE visitors were recorded. According to the global shopper index, Hong Kong ranked in top place among 25 Asian cities and was the leader in the area of shops available (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2012).

4.4.4 Key Drivers Shaping The Present Tourism Development

Section 4.4.1 to 4.4.4 presents the historical development of Hong Kong as a tourism city. Twelve prominent interviewees with key positions in the tourism world of Hong Kong expressed their views on the present tourism development of the city. They also suggested the plausible key drivers in the past that have shaped the face of the present. Table 4.7 shows the code and job positions of the six interviewees in the investigation of the Hong Kong case.

Table 4.7 Code and corresponding job positions of the Hong Kong case interviewees

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
H1	Airline Entrepreneur
H2	Division Head of MICE Venue
H3	Senior Officer of City Planning
H4	Theme Park Entrepreneur
H5	Airline Entrepreneur
H6	Senior Operations Officer of Civil Aviation
H7	Head of Foreign Invest Promotion
H8	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
H9	Hospitality and Tourism Entrepreneur
H10	Head of Cruise Terminal
H11	MICE Consultant
H12	Quality Director of Retail Entrepreneurs

4.4.4.1 Current Evaluation of The Present Tourism Development

The 12 powerful and significant interviewees expressed a unified view of the present tourism development in Hong Kong. For the demand perspective, Hong Kong has always been a popular tourism city that attracted both short-haul and long-haul tourists. Due to the strong focus on the financial role in the globe, Hong Kong has adopted a multi-pronged strategy that features both business and leisure tourists. Leisure tourists on an average stay for three days. Some interviewees commented that business tourists represented a higher yield source market. They usually stay behind for leisure purposes, or brought their families for repeat visits. In 2003, the pandemic of Severe Acute

Respiratory Syndrome hit the tourism industry because tourists feared travelling. Effective as of July 2003, the Chinese Central government and Hong Kong government jointly launched an Individual Visit Scheme, allowing residents of designated Mainland cities to visit Hong Kong as independent travellers without joining group tours. Since then, a surge of Mainland Chinese tourists has formed a very solid base as the source market for the tourism industry in Hong Kong. Earlier in the decade, Mainland Chinese tourists visited Hong Kong only on all-inclusive package tours. An increasing number of independent tourists has been seen in recent years. Shopping has been the major focus of Mainland Chinese tourists, ranging from shopping for high-end products to daily commuters from Shenzhen, a nearby Chinese city, for grocery shopping. Rather, sightseeing has come in second place as the tourists' main activity. Interviewees, in general, posited a take-it-for-granted mindset in attracting Mainland Chinese tourists.

Interviewee H9 expressed, "*Mainlanders will come anyway*".

He further commented that Mainland tourists will continue to visit Hong Kong regardless of limited marketing efforts. Additional Mainland cities have been opened up for the scheme. Accounting for 70% of the overall visitor arrivals, Mainland Chinese tourists have been the largest segment to Hong Kong since 2010.

From the supply side, interviewees were proud of the good quality tourism and hospitality infrastructure. Efficiency was the buzzword, ranging from the airport, the customs, all forms of public transport and the services of industry practitioner. As a compact city, Hong Kong has had a number of award-winning world-class attractions, such as the Ocean Park, the Hong Kong Disneyland and the Big Buddha. The city has been well-received as a gourmet paradise where tourists could taste local and international cuisine at all price ranges. Shopping was another key activity for tourists. Attributed to the tax-free policy, Hong Kong has been known as a shopping paradise with many international brands having establishments in the city. In comparison, interviewees reported the high tariff of hotel accommodation compared to other Asian cities. Such costs have been inevitable due to high land cost in the city. In short, interviewees reported satisfactory over the tourism development in Hong Kong. The tourism performance and development were seen optimistically, albeit with some fluctuation driven by key events and upheavals. They further explained the key drivers

that shaped the face of the present tourism development of Hong Kong. In common with the previous section, STEEP analysis was adopted to frame the drivers.

4.4.4.2 Social Drivers

4.4.4.2.1 Unique Culture

In many ways, the city has kept the footprints of the British legacy. The ideology, lifestyles and ways of living of the Hong Kong locals have been shaped by the British culture, or the bi-culture of the British and Hong Kong influence. While Hong Kong citizens have Chinese nationality, interviewees perceived that locals are distinct from the Mainland Chinese in many ways.

Interviewee H11 remarked, *“Hong Kong is part of China but not so China”*.

One of the readily apparent differences is the official language. The official language of Hong Kong is English and Chinese. Every street sign, poster, billboard, menu and building have bilingual signage. Foreign tourists, especially with an English speaking background, find a sense of easy familiarity when traveling in the city. The colonial history has also left many marks. The Western holidays, the high tea culture, and horse racing have become an integral part of the Hong Kong routines. Easter and Christmas are official public holidays in Hong Kong but not in Mainland China. The younger generation in China is aware of these Western holidays from media or the Internet, but they have not had first-hand experiences. Because of the close proximity and similar cultural background, the Mainlanders travel to Hong Kong to experience the Western festivals. The distinction gives Hong Kong a unique identity.

Interviewee H4 stated, *“There is no such thing as Halloween in China. It gives us opportunity to hold Halloween events and haunted houses in our theme park. The arrivals tell us that the Chinese visitors like it very much”*.

The East Meets West culture has fascinated international visitors. The bi-culture products, such as the Hong Kong style milk tea and egg tarts, were safeguarded as the UNESCO’s catalogue of intangible cultural heritage (Fong, 2014). These products have been popular among international visitors. The colonial legacy has also seen reflected in the

architecture of historical buildings and monuments. Some buildings were deliberately demolished or remade for other usages. Several interviewees complained that the conservation of historical buildings was on the wane.

Interviewee H12 indicated, *“Once demolished, they are gone forever”*.

The loss of the colonial buildings repeats, an irreversible loss of an asset. Several interviewees pointed to the problem of demolishing colony relics instead of attempting heritage preservation. The celebration and appreciation of the colonial styles would have been a selling point for tourism. This conservation is, however, not well developed in contemporary Hong Kong.

4.4.4.2.2 Human Resources

The human resources for the tourism and hospitality industry have been an issue. Interviewees emphasized the lack of qualified frontline practitioners. With the perception of long working hours, low status and unstable salary, the rank-and-file jobs in the tourism and hospitality industry have not been popular for the current workforce. The Post-80s and Post-90s, the cohorts who were born in from 1980 to 1999, were raised in the flourishing economy of Hong Kong. A typical family in Hong Kong was a small family with one to two children who were raised in a wealthy and protective environment. Interviewees explained that the nature of the service industry with irregular working hour was not preferred by the young cohorts. Alternatively, the operational level jobs, such as steward attendants, housekeepers and waiters, have been taken up by less educated locals or the new immigrants. They have neither not received proper hospitality education nor had the bilingual language skill. An interviewee said that some properties could not hire qualified staff even paying double the salary. The lacking of qualified staff has been an issue.

This situation has not merely applied to junior positions but is applicable at the middle to high level managerial level. The white collar jobs have been desirable for the young generations.

Interviewee H7 reported, “*Young people in Hong Kong like wearing fancy business attire and sitting in an air-conditioned office. They don’t like physically tough job*”.

Since Hong Kong has been positioning itself as a financial hub, business management has always been a focus among the young generation. Hong Kong has several highly reputable universities, colleges and vocational training schools in business management, human resources management, marketing, and tourism and hospitality management. The graduates have high aspirations and are interested in performing the managerial roles.

4.4.4.3 Economic Drivers

4.4.4.3.1 Rising Middle Class

The growing number of the middle class has offered a very strong and solid base for the tourism industry in Hong Kong. In recent times, the majority of tourists have come from Mainland China. Interviewees mentioned that the city has directly benefited from the soaring economy in the country. Due to the proximity and homogenous culture, Hong Kong has always been the first outbound travel destination of Mainlanders.

Interviewee H12 denoted, “*Mainland tourists come to Hong Kong for shopping and leisure travel is a secondary motivation*”.

Shopping is an important activity for Chinese tourists. Hong Kong has been known as a shopping paradise, attributing to the free import tax and the wide collection and distribution of the international brands. The price of the luxury brands product was marked up due to the import tax, consumption tax and value-added tax in Mainland China. The Mainlanders could enjoy a lower price when buying the same products. The depreciation of Hong Kong dollar in the recent five years, comparing to renminbi, the Mainland Chinese currency, has provided an advantageous condition. Mainlanders have enjoyed good deals when shopping in Hong Kong. In addition, a wider range of exclusive products is offered in Hong Kong but not in China due to the more discerning consumers in the city. Another key reason was the quality assurance. The city has a quality tourism services scheme in place that gives out accreditation to quality retail shops, restaurants or accommodation merchants. Interviewees proposed that it is particularly important for

the Chinese tourists, as China has struggled to uphold the food safety standards and tackle the counterfeit problems. Consumers believe the products in Hong Kong are more likely to be genuine because of the strict regulations and the legal responsibility to meet standards.

4.4.4.3.2 Connectivity

The strategic geographic location of Hong Kong is an inherent comparative advantage. Interviewees believed that it underpins the city's position of being a transportation hub. According to Bhattacharyay et al., (2012, p.225), a hub is "*an articulation point offering intra-modal connections that permit transfers and transshipments, for example seaport, river port, airport, rail terminal, road depot or teleport*". The role of a hub is a significant for business. Major airports are hubs for network carriers and serve a large local market (Burghouwt, 2013). The complementarity between these two functions is perceived as a prerequisite for hub operations.

Hong Kong is located in the heart of Asia, with easy access to the region's high-growth cities and countries. In 2015, there were over 100 airlines offering flights to approximately 180 destinations around the world. About one thousand daily flights connected Hong Kong with the rest of the world. Half of the world population could be reached within five hours flight time. With an award-winning international airport, Hong Kong had tremendous aviation infrastructure to connect the world. It is commonly agreed that the city has equipped with sophisticated and advanced aviation infrastructure. The population base of Hong Kong is, however, an issue.

Interviewee H6 reported, "*The population base of Hong Kong was too small to sustain the survival of large scale airline companies. In common with the Singapore situation, the small population was unable to make economic sense to airline companies. Cathay Pacific Airways, for instance, is a Hong Kong based full service airline. The Hong Kong locals accounted for half of their business share, while another half was foreign passengers.*"

The constrained population size posed a challenge to the utilization and financial sustainability of aviation infrastructure. With the strategic location, Hong Kong has

advantage and makes economic sense in developing the position of a transportation hub that transfers passengers to their intended destinations.

4.4.4.3.3 Proliferation of Commercial Activities

Hong Kong has adopted a multi-pronged strategy that has attracted both business and leisure tourists, according to the interviewees from the public sector. The city is a major international financial centre characterized by high degree of financial resources and transparent regulations that meets the international standards. Reputed to be the world's freest economy, the city has had the highest concentration of banking institutions in the world (Credit Suisse, 2016). Seventy-one of the largest 100 international banks have had operations in the city. The mature and active foreign exchange market has seen stimulated by the absence of exchange controls and favourable time zone location enabling 24 hours a day operation dealing with overseas centres. Given the special relation with China, Hong Kong has also served as a gateway to tap into the Chinese marketplace. Coupled with the strong emphasis on the rule of law and fair market, there has been no restrictions on capital flows, and with simple tax system, financial stability, good infrastructure and connectivity, Hong Kong has become known for ease of doing business. Such advantageous conditions fuelled the proliferation of commercial activities for considerable numbers of business travellers. Interviewees revealed that all these conditions are essential to domestic and foreign investors.

The MICE industry has been an important sector boosting the city's tourism development. According to interviewee H11, Hong Kong has a strong pool of talent that is one of the stimuli for the MICE industry development. The city welcomes MICE development due to the high yield nature.

Interviewee H11 suggested, *“Medical, scientific, financial and legal industries are really interested in coming to Hong Kong because we have a very good and active community”*.

The statement demonstrates the strong networks in the city. Despite the small population, the city has had a number of active and key opinion leaders in these industries. It contributes to bring in delegates for conferences and events. She stressed the potential of Hong Kong holding conferences for professional services and the advantageous

conditions for luring business travellers. Furthermore, business trade shows occupied most of the timeslots year round. International jewellery show, art exhibition, electronics show, computer and communications fair, watch and clock fair, as well as anime, comics and games were examples driving voluminous attendance, locally and internationally. The long history of Hong Kong holding these large scale trade shows and the suitability of convention venue for holding trade shows were decisive for the MICE industry growth.

4.4.4.4 Political Drivers

4.4.4.4.1 Priority for Tourism Development

The Hong Kong government has been actively pursuing economic development in order to hold onto the competitive advantage of the city. All interviewees reiterated the importance of tourism planning. The four major pillars of the city's economy are government recognized. They are the tourism industry, financial services, trading and logistics. Tourism has therefore always been a focus of the city's development. Established in 2001, the Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB) has proactively promoted Hong Kong as an international city and a world-class tourist destination. The think globally, work locally was the marketing mindset manifest in the HKTB international promotional efforts.

By consulting with various tourism stakeholders, the HKTB has submitted a work plan every two years to the Secretary for Commerce and Economic Development for approval. The passage of approval was subject to the Legislative Council's approval. The work plan offered an overview of the previous year's tourism performance, outlook and work plans for the next two years. The marketing budget for the 2013-2014 was HK\$337.87 million (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2014). Resource allocation for different markets was adjusted depending on the markets' latest economic and political situations. Some initiatives involved having a feature story in the LG's worldwide promotional video in South Korea, a title-sponsored with Visa in celebrity summer shopping promotion to the Southeast Asia markets, a campaign with travel retailer Flight Centre in Australia and participation in consumer events showcasing Hong Kong culinary flair in the United States. Interviewees reported on and appreciated the continuous effort of the public sector to strengthen the tourism significance of Hong Kong.

4.4.4.4.2 Political Instability

Political unrest topped the list of concerns by the interviewees. Since the transfer of sovereignty over Hong Kong from the United Kingdom to China in 1997, the relationship between Hong Kong and China has been complex. Strong tensions have existed starting from the late 2000s. A number of factors and incidents contributed to the tensions. Some examples included the divergent interpretation of the One Country Two Systems constitutional principles, abolishing quotas on Mainland visitors to Hong Kong, inappropriate behaviours of Mainland tourists in Hong Kong, parallel trading issues, the issue anchor babies which non-local parents giving birth of their babies in Hong Kong, and racial abuse of the Hong Kong football team (Lau, 2015; Steinmetz, 2015; The Economist, 2015). These incidents led to sporadic protests and conflicts amid local and Mainlanders. The Hong Kong locals called the Mainlanders locusts, as they clogged up the roads in the city, raised real estate prices, monopolized birthing wards in hospitals and bought out necessities. BBC News (2012b) described that it was a battle for resources because Hong Kong had the best healthcare and education in the country due to the British colonial legacy.

Interviewees were aware of the increasing discontent between locals and Mainland tourists. Tensions escalated over China's increasing interference and the tremendous influx of Mainland tourists (Loi & Pearce, 2015). The difference in education, cultural and political backgrounds, and lifestyle of local and Mainlanders has led to the cultural conflicts. This has further resulted in rising sentiment of hostility to Mainlanders, resentment at a perceived trend towards assimilation, and intervention from the central government. In 2014, the umbrella movement, a large scale and prolonged protest against the central government's decision on the city's chief executive selection and the demand for free and fair elections, stirred the pot. Tens of thousands citizens participated and occupied territories of Hong Kong for 79 consecutive days. This incident was interpreted in different ways, variously known as a movement, unrest, or revolution. Regardless of the interpretation, it could stunt the tourism development to certain extent. Despite good will, several interviewees expressed worries over the tourism and economic development. Entrepreneurs reported the drop of sales. Foreigner investors and organizations postponed or cancelled their plans of starting up business or holding conferences in Hong Kong. Interviewees further emphasized that these were short-term concern as investors

still reported having confidence about the rule of law in Hong Kong in the long-run. A few interviewees warned that the reoccurrence of such large scale protests in the future is not healthy for the advancement of Hong Kong in general. After all the incidents, Mainlanders expressed anger towards Hong Kong citizens and some suggested boycotting Hong Kong as holiday destination. Interviewees recognized that these claims were by a small proportion of enraged netizens. Figures revealed that it was not the case and Hong Kong has retained its popularity for Mainland tourists.

4.4.4.4.3 Infrastructure

Interviewees had a high regard for the superb infrastructure of Hong Kong. The city has been very advanced in city planning both in the region and across the globe. Infrastructure development is a prerequisite for the positive livelihood of residents and creates demand, resulting economic benefits. It has been the focus of the government since 1945, and has underpinned Hong Kong's role as a global centre of commerce and trade (Miller, 2000). In stressing infrastructure development, the purpose was to meet the needs of the city and revive a stagnant economy. The city has sophisticated and stable electricity and water supply, and advanced telecommunications development. Different forms of public transport, such as trams, buses and the mass railway transit, connect the city well. In the 2007 policy address, the Chief Executive targeted ten major infrastructure projects to further fuel the mobility within and beyond the city, as well as improving the living environment. The development of infrastructure is the cornerstone of the city and the economy development.

The Hong Kong International Airport was among the busiest airport in the world and was well regarded for by its efficiency and service. It was paramount to the role of Hong Kong's position as the aviation hub. Several interviewees appreciated the high efficiency of the software and hardware contributing to the success.

Interviewee H6 annotated, "*Efficiency is so important for our transportation hub and does affect the profit of airlines*".

To reach the efficiency, interviewees remarked that it requires seamless coordination of the hardware, software and the operation systems. The hardware refers to the layouts and

the availability of facilities, while the counter services, custom clearance process and security checks are examples of the software. The operation system, including the technology adopted for flights, passenger, baggage and cargo handling, and the flow of operations are also of concern. The Hong Kong International Airport is advanced in all three aspects. Interviewee H6 further emphasized the important of fast turn-around times and capacity in dealing with delay in a timely manner. It is particularly important to flying to those airports with a curfew that have additional charges for delay arrival.

The city has had one of the most sophisticated and successful telecommunications markets in the world (Information Services Department, 2015). In 2013, the gross output of the telecommunications sector was HK\$78 billion. The local fixed carrier services were fully liberalized. It meant no limitation on the number of licenses issues, no deadline for applications, and no specific requirement on network rollout or investment. As of September 2015, the total number of mobile service subscribers was 16.63 million. The figure represented one of the highest penetration rates in the world at about 227.9%. Operators had been actively rolling out Wi-Fi networks. As of November 2015, there were 39,796 public Wi-Fi hotspots in the city and free Wi-Fi services available in 486 government premises. Local residents and tourists could enjoy the high-speed roaming services through the availability of code division multiple access network, wideband code-division multiple access network, global system for mobile communications network, and the latest long term evolution technology. Interviewees commented that the wired city has been well received by tourists and investors.

As for tourism infrastructure, interviewees expressed slightly different views. Several interviewees appreciated the availability of world class and unique attractions, such as Ocean Park, the Disneyland, Ladies' market, the Peak and the Avenue of Stars. Surveys conducted by a number of organizations showed tourists' high level of satisfaction. One interviewee disagreed, saying that Hong Kong was indeed lacking natural resources and scenic beauty. The advantage of Hong Kong was the reliability and variety of products, and the efficiency of practitioners, rather than the attractions. In regards to accommodation for tourists, interviewees reached consent about the availability of a diverse price range. The price, generally speaking, was higher than other Asian cities due to the high land cost in Hong Kong. Furthermore, the wide diversity of choice was also applicable to restaurants and shopping activities. From the authentic local eatery, Cha

Chaan Teng, to international dining places offering local delicacy to Michelin-starred cuisine, Hong Kong was seen by those interested in accommodating all tastes at all price levels.

4.4.4.4 Visa-Free Entry

The visa-free entry to Hong Kong is another merit leading to the strong tourism demand as mentioned by interviewees. Nationals of the 163 countries could enter Hong Kong visa-free as of February 2016 (Immigration Department, 2016). The periods of stay varied from seven to 180 days, depending on nationality. Visa-free access was paramount to tourism flows across borders and increases in inbound tourism demand. Interviewees signified that visa-free is a competitive advantage compared with other Asian tourism cities. As practitioners in the MICE industry, interviewees H2 and H11 echoed that the requirement on visa delays shapes their clients' decisions on conference destination selection. The visa hassle-free visa is one of the selling points to attract international clients for holding MICE activities in Hong Kong.

The visa-free entry however did not apply to Mainland tourists and international tourists accessing China from Hong Kong. Under the One Country Two Systems policy, international tourists had to obtain a visa when passing through the immigration checkpoint in Hong Kong to China. As for control purpose, Mainland Chinese are required to obtain a two-way permit from the Chinese Ministry of Public Security before their visits to Hong Kong. Meanwhile, Hong Kong citizens need to apply for a home return permit to enter Mainland China instead of using the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region passport. Interviewees perceived that the visa-free policy is a comparative advantage of Hong Kong over the Mainland Chinese cities.

4.4.4.5 Summary of Key Drivers

There are nine key drivers that shaped the city tourism of Hong Kong. There are no technological and environmental drivers identified. Unique culture and human resources were viewed as the social drivers. The economic drivers included the rising middle class,

connectivity, proliferation of commercial activities. Priority for tourism development, political instability, infrastructure and visa were the political driving forces.

4.5 Closing Remarks

Historical development, coupled with the STEEP drivers, shaped the face of the present city tourism development in Asia. Table 4.8 presents the summary of the major forces. These positive and negative drivers led to the growth and the fluctuating demand of the case study sites. The emphasis in this summary is on the commonalities among the drivers rather than highlighting differences across these cases. Instead, it is more important to reveal the common patterns that have driven the current city tourism in Asian. The findings is seen as reaching data saturation as limited dimensions have been suggested by constrained number of interviewees (please see Appendix 3 for details).

Table 4.8 Summary of the key drivers in the past that shaped the present tourism development

	Asian cities	Bangkok	Hong Kong
Social Drivers			
Unique culture	●	●	●
Human resources	●	●	●
Travel-for-granted mindset	●		
Perceived safety		●	
Technological Drivers			
Old technology	●		
The Power of social media	●		
Economic Drivers			
Rising middle class	●	●	●
Connectivity	●	●	●
Proliferation of commercial activities			●
Environmental Drivers			
Richness in biodiversity	●		
Pollution		●	
Political Drivers			
Priority for tourism development	●	●	●
Political instability		●	●
Infrastructure		●	●
Visa	●		●

The drivers were identified via the collective intellectual brainpower of 28 powerful decision makers and leaders from the public and private sectors, as well as through the document analysis. In summary, the political and social drivers were the two leading forces that have shaped the present face of Asian tourism cities. The political drivers determined the positioning and corresponding actions to stimulate the tourism demand. The tactics from the supply side were in accordance with the vision of city tourism development, giving priorities on tourism development, building sophisticated infrastructure and designated visa policy. These were the backbones of the Asian tourism city. The political instability hindered the growth of tourism cities in short-run, leading to the fluctuation in demand. As for the social drivers, they were more related to the demand perspective. The unique culture was conceived as the drawcard, expressed by all interviewees. Coupled with tourists' perceptions about safe destinations and the growing

middle class awareness of the necessity of travel, promising demand for Asian tourism cities was created.

Economic drivers offered advantageous conditions to support the growth of the tourism cities. Tourism cities had to clarify the types of targeted tourists, either business tourists, leisure tourists or both. It made a difference in designing the offerings. Technological drivers exerted varying impact on tourism cities, given the very diverse level of development across Asian tourism cities. The old technology was only applicable to some tourism cities at infant development stage. The role of social media contributed to educate audience of secondary tourism cities. Its power and impact were, however, hardly measureable. For the environmental drivers, interviewees agreed that decision makers paid lip service to environmental issues. Such drivers were claimed to be concerns but always gave way to financial benefits.

Time-Space theory, one of the two conceptual schemes in this study, is adopted to make sense of the identified drivers. Chapter 2 Section 2.3.1 Time-Space Theory presented an introduction to the theory. An urban theorist Castells (1996) noted, any form of spatial entity is not free from time. It is vital in the production of space, the territorial structure of exploitation and domination, and the reproduction of the system as a whole (Lefebvre, 1974; Deer, 1988). In simple words, time determines the use-value of space. The coexistence of temporality and spatiality formulates and emerges the opening of a locale. In the case of cities, the historical past, national policies and social conditions weave the present constitution (Friedmann, 1986). The historical past is modified by endogenous conditions, such as geographical location. The national policies command the operation of city as an entire system, aiming to protect the national economic subsystem and surpass outside competition. The social conditions exert substantial influence on the urban process and structure. Meanwhile, city is viewed as an economic space within the country and is integrated with the world capitalist system. Some lines of thought suggested that economic forces in cities are decisive in all aspects (Friedmann, 1986; Sassen, 2002).

In this thesis, the identified drivers support the claim of the time-space theory to a certain extent. The political and social drivers are seen as the most influential drivers which have shaped the present tourism scene of Asian cities. The historical past and institution of Asian cities, including the colonial background and geographic locations in the region,

impose varying stimulus to the tourism function. From the perspective of tourism cities, the national policies on the priority for tourism development, construction of infrastructure and visa policy manifest the strength of the tourism role within the entire system. The social conditions within and beyond cities also colour the offering of Asian cities. Inspired by the analytical commentary of the 28 interviewees, a clear classification of cities into core and peripheral tourism cities is suggested prior to considering the findings with time-space theory. Such a classification is the basis for understanding the spatial articulation of tourism cities. Core tourism cities refer to cities that have carried an important tourism function, implying thriving conditions in the historical past, national policies and social conditions for tourism development. By way of contrast, peripheral tourism cities are those cities with limiting criterion in the historical past, national policies and social conditions for tourism pursuits.

In the case of Asian tourism cities in general, the present tourism scene of core and peripheral tourism cities show apparent difference in the pace of tourism development. The core tourism cities are basically the mature and highly visible tourism destinations for both domestic and international markets. Regarding the historical past, the Asian core tourism cities have historically been the centre of commercial activities and transportation. These cities have enjoyed the histories of economic advantage, partly because of the geographic locations alongside the coastlines or strategic sites of the country. The dispersal of economic activities enable the fast pace of urbanization and the accumulation of population. Such a dynamic fosters the centrality in many ways, including resources, technology, professional and specialized service workers, and operation of the capitalist market. The unique colonial background of some Asian tourism cities further fuelled their value for tourism. Consequently, tourism development has been on the agenda of the national policy. It has resulted in the well-planned inbound and outbound logistics, tourism amenities and advantageous policies. Time-space theory proponents suggested the decisive power of economic drivers. Despite the fact that political and social drivers are seen as the most influential among the five key drivers, the claim is arguably valid that economic benefit is the hidden agenda of all actions in the contemporary capitalist economies. As for the peripheral tourism cities, they are at a relatively less favourable position in the triple criterion of the historical past, national policies and social conditions. According to the well informed interviewees, some peripheral tourism cities have started to recognize the merits of tourism while some are

still laid back in performing the tourism function. Strategic planning is necessary in the transformation of peripheral tourism cities into core tourism cities. The direction of development depends on the cities' existing visions for the future.

Bangkok has benefited from the historical past, national policies and social conditions as a core tourism city. The city carries political significance, enabling the centralization of power and resources. Interviewees reported the national policies for resources and funding that necessitate for city and tourism development. With no direct influence from a Western imperial power, the unique Thai lifestyle and social constitution created values for tourism opportunities. In addition, Thailand is located in the centre of the Southeast Asian region. This contributes to the formation of geographical centrality that connects other cities in a growing variety of cross-border networks. These endogenous conditions, coupled with the technological and environmental driving forces, have strengthened the success of Bangkok as a core tourism city.

Akin to Bangkok, Hong Kong has harvested the beneficial conditions of its historical past, policies and social conditions. The city however is different from the Asian cities and Bangkok cases. With less strength deriving from the social drivers, both the economic and political drivers are the two prominent forces which have shaped the present state of city tourism. Due to the early structural sophistication in the colonial era, advanced economy, early development of tourism, unique relationship with China and other advantageous conditions, Hong Kong has gone beyond the national and regional networks, and become connected to the global circuits. As an early entrant to globalization, the city is one of the major financial hubs in the world. Business networks are thus crucial in connecting the city with the globe, boosting the agglomeration of business travellers. These key variables contribute to the spatial concentration of the central business functions and the proliferation of economic activities. This core tourism city illustrates the dynamic of geographic concentration and the temporal trajectory of development.

The scan of the past informs the present situation, and gives hints about the future. As for a prosperous yet sustainable growth, it is extremely imperative to understand the forces driving the future. The next chapter, from the present to the future, will shed light on some plausible directions.

CHAPTER 5 FROM THE PRESENT TO THE FUTURE

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5.1 Overview of Chapter

To know the future, we have to understand the past. Chapter 4 narrated the past drivers shaping the present city tourism development in Asian cities in general, Bangkok and Hong Kong. In this chapter, the timeline is extended further into the future. Chapter 5 is a precognition of the future, presenting the key drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development. To be specific, this chapter is designed to address sub-aims 1.4 to 1.6:

Aim 1.4: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Asia

Aim 1.5: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Bangkok

Aim 1.6: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Hong Kong

The discussion in this chapter is primarily based on the in-depth interviews with the powerful and significant stakeholders. Document analysis was utilized to illustrate the results as supplementary information. The sequence of presenting the findings commences with Asian cities in general, then deals with Bangkok and Hong Kong. In each case, the discourse of the city tourism outlook is presented as a collective view from the interviewees. The key drivers that will shape the future city tourism development follow. With the premise of building a sustainable future for tourism cities, the key drivers steering the future are framed into the quadruple bottom line of sustainability as introduced in Chapter 2 Section 2.3.2. The ways the drivers materialize the social, economic, environmental and governance components of sustainability are revealed. The work also is as an adapted approach of the future wheel research technique mentioned in Chapter 1 Section 1.7.4. A theoretical discourse on making sense of the identified drivers and the sustainability theory concludes the chapter.

5.2 The Asian Cities

This section is designed to achieve the research aim 1.4 revealing the key drivers that may shape the future city tourism of Asia. The section commences with the forecasts on the city's tourism and development derived from various official authorities. The information was attached to the interview kit (see Appendix 1) prior to the in-depth interviews. The purpose was to allow the interviewees to consider with the foreseeable future of Asian cities. The city tourism outlook on the basis of the ten interviewee's collective views is then presented. Table 5.1 lists the code and job positions of the ten interviewees in the empirical investigation of Asian cities. Their narratives of the key drivers according to the categories of the quadruple bottom line of sustainability conclude the section.

Table 5.1 Code and corresponding job positions of interviewees in Asian cities

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
A1	Regional Tourism Association Foundation Trustees
A2	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
A3	Urban Development Specialist
A4	Regional Director of Airports International Council
A5	Senior Officer in Regional Infrastructure Division
A6	Regional Head of International Air Transport Association
A7	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Individual Property)
A8	Head of Regional Tourism Association
A9	Travel Trade Journalist
A10	Head of Regional Tourism City Promotion

5.2.1 Forecasts for The Cities and Tourism

The forecasting reports on city and tourism of the region have provided the view that the centre of the world is moving east. According to the United Nations (2012), Asia will urbanize at the incremented rate of 1.1% per annum. The figure represents the highest rate of urbanization among all regions from 2011 to 2030. The same report also predicted that half of the population in the region will live in urban settlements. Eight out of the top ten of the worlds' most densely populated large cities are in South Asia (Asian Development Bank, 2012). By 2020, over half of the global middle class will be from Asia (Yeoman, 2012). By 2032, the Asia Pacific region's share of world GDP will be 36% (Boeing commercial airplanes, 2013). Pollution in urban settings will become an issue. Urban air pollution in Asia, which contributes to half a million deaths a year, is higher than in other regions (Asian Development Bank, 2012).

The tourism performance of Asia is also anticipated to be prosperous. Annual international tourist arrivals are expected to hit 1.8 billion in 2030 (UNWTO, 2011). The Asia Pacific region is forecasted to record above-the-average growth rate at over 5%, comparing to the world average of 4.1%. The pace of growth in the mature regions, such as Europe and Americas, will slow down, while the Asia Pacific region will accelerate. From 2013-2032, nearly half of the world's air traffic growth will be driven by travel to,

from, or within the Asia Pacific region (Boeing commercial airplanes, 2013). The number of airplanes in the Asia Pacific fleet will nearly triple, from 5,090 airplanes in 2012 to 14,750 airplanes in 2032.

5.2.2 City Tourism Outlook

The ten prominent people interviewed were confident about the splendid future prospects of Asian tourism cities. In the next two decades, Asian tourism cities are going to harvest from the major drivers discussed in Chapter 4. Despite some negative drivers will subtly create turbulences to the tourism industry, the future of Asian tourism cities is promising. As stated by interviewees, every sector has periodic but irregular fluctuations in performance. It is therefore normal for the tourism industry to experience the ripples. Official forecast reports revealed that Asia is the fastest growing region in terms of economic performance and tourism demand. High levels of connectivity fuel cities with the capacity to drive demand. Coupled with the emerging secondary destinations and government advocacy, an increasing number of Asian tourism cities will become or grow as popular destination.

Locating customers is essential for any form of business, including tourism. The voluminous population in China exerts a huge potential for intra-regional travel. Asian cities are expected to be the first few destinations for the Mainland Chinese tourists' overseas trips. The fast pace of China's economy rewards the Chinese with more disposable money for travel.

Interviewee A2 suggested, "*We had the first wave of Chinese tourists travelling around the region. They became experienced travellers and went further to other continents for sight-seeing. China is so big that the second, third and even more waves of Chinese have not explored the world. It is a great potential*".

The multiple waves of Chinese tourists will offer a solid base for inbound tourism of Asian cities. Some emerging nations, such as India and Vietnam, are also growing in important to tourism. Such citizens are enjoying the harvest from their nation's blooming economy and the affordability of budget airlines.

The interviewees expressed general viewpoints regarding the direction for tourism development. Generally speaking, Asian tourism cities have potential in promoting heritage tourism, as well as strengthening shopping and entertainment precincts. Asian countries have very rich and unique culture embedded in the architecture, food, lifestyle, customs, rituals, and even the forms of greeting. Other interviewees stressed the importance of shopping and entertainment. It is because traveling is a fun experience and tourists are often indulging themselves. Shopping and entertainment are thus two very potent elements in the era of the experience economy. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the experience economy is a perspective given attention in scholarly as well as the grey literature.

Asian tourism cities also have rooms for developing medical tourism, natural tourism and as MICE destinations, depending on the competitive advantages and availability of local resources. Medical tourism has potential due to the lower charges compared with the Western countries. Interviewees consider nature based tourism as special interest tourism, playing a role for motivating repeat visitation. Furthermore, a plentiful supply of international associations setting up headquarters in Asian cities is conducive in boosting the MICE industry in the region. Among these three types of tourism, interviewees posited the significance of the MICE sector in the region. An important remark often made was the role of tourism within the master plan for city development. Tourism is not a standalone component of the economy. The city tourism plan has to be compatible with other functions of the city. The priority for tourism therefore varies across Asian tourism cities.

5.2.3 Key Drivers Shaping the Future City Tourism Development

With the premise of building a sustainable future, a conceptual scheme, the quadruple bottom line of sustainability, will be employed to category the drivers. The four bottom lines are social, economic, environmental and governance concerns supporting sustainability.

5.2.3.1 Drivers in Achieving Social Sustainability

5.2.3.1.1 Nationalism

Nationalism is an issue affecting tourism development particularly in Asia. The following discourse centres on the diplomatic disputes and cultural identity. An interviewee commented that the diplomatic disputes happening in the region trigger nationalism, and affects the selection of destinations.

Interviewee A10 reported, *“The sea dispute between Japan and China has occurred on and off. The visit to the Yasukuni Shrine sets off disputation from the neighbouring countries, such as China and South Korea. It may stop people in the concerned countries travelling to Japan”*.

Some interviewees however disagreed with this stance. In their views, the diplomatic disputes among countries may exert a short-term impact on tourism. Small amount of patriotic citizens may refuse to visit the involved countries. In a macro sense, countries are indeed pragmatic when comes to mutual economic benefits. Tourism, as one important source of generating foreign exchange, would remain as a priority between the countries. In reality, a handful of examples reflected that the tourism ties between the countries of concern were thriving despite the frosty diplomacy.

Another concern was that of cultural identity, which is also a key component of nationalism. The literature supports the close relationship between nationalism and tourism. Nationalism is the conscious efforts of the rulers to make a multicultural population homogeneous and forming a single nation out of the diversity (Pretes, 2003). A nation can be seen as an imagined community (Anderson, 1991). The community is imagined because the members have never been in direct contact with one another. They are in the minds of each other and hold the image of their communion. The creation of the imagined community requires disseminating a feeling of common identity. The definition of a nation proposed by Guibernau (1999, p.13-14) is “a human group conscious of forming a community, sharing a common culture, attached to a clearly demarcated territory, having a common past, have a common project for the future, and claiming the right to rule itself”. Kennedy’s (2015, p.16) version of nationalism is to “seek an arrangement in which the status of the nation is politically and/or culturally

enhanced”. Across these definitions, the common identity and binding culture are the key word.

Nativism describes a sentiment against immigrants (Higham, 2002). Immigrants are undesirable if their loyalties and primary interests are not in accordance with the incumbent citizens. Reviews on nativism agreed that nativism and nationalism are closely knitted concepts (e.g., Katerberg, 1995; Varsanyi, 2011). Nativism is a form of defensive nationalism. It is devolution of power and resources to local communities where cultural identity is very important. This thesis does not examine the role of nativism on political ideology. Instead, the focus in the present thesis is about the relationship of nationalism and tourism. Nationalism demonstrates how cultural production promotes a central value system (Spillman, 1997). To promote nationalism, three key hegemonic institutions, namely censuses, maps, and museums, are used to achieve the aim. Censuses refers to the definition of the population by distinguishing who are the insiders and outsiders. Maps delimit the territory of the nation. Museums are the tangible forms of showcasing the historical evidence of a country’s existence and defining the characteristics of nationhood.

Tourism is conducive to the creation of national identity and culture. Tourism sites feature promotion and records, censuses, maps and museums, while a wider inclusion of heritage attractions, contain a discourse on nationalism. It allows the rulers to project the values of national identity. During their visits, tourists become actors in constructing an imagined community. In fact, the interviewees emphasized the significance of recognizing nationalism in terms of reinforcing the cultural identity with the city destination. Some Asian cities attempted to project a modernized image by assimilating with the Westernized cultures. But arguably, overemphasizing the latest market trends from Western cultures lose the local charm. Interviewees noted that tourists would not make their trips if they could find similar offerings somewhere else.

Interviewee A1 suggested, “*For example, Saigon with high-end brand names stores. Why do I have to go there? I can buy the same stuff in Canton Road, Hong Kong. Keep the authentic cultures is the drawcard to the cities. Tourists want to know where they are*”.

The assertion of cultural distinctiveness is the recommended strategy. Pursuing the identity components of nativism and authenticity are viable paths for tourism success.

To achieve the aim, the enhancement of the city inhabitants' cultural identity is potent because they are the primary stakeholders of the destination.

5.2.3.1.2 Workforce

Building and harnessing the talents of a quality workforce are two of the critical prerequisites for Asian cities positioning. This longstanding driver was identified as one of the key drivers in the past that shaped in the present in Chapter 4 Section 4.2.5.2.3 Manpower. All interviewees agreed that it will continue to be an important driver steering the future of Asian tourism cities. According to interviewees, the problems of this workforce driver are two-fold: the succession gap and the career path. A succession gap occurs because of the respective shortcomings of junior and senior staff.

Interviewee A9 indicated, *“The senior staff has experience but lacks educational attainment, while the younger generation are well educated but lacking in experience”*.

The younger generations, who are mostly performing the rank and file or the middle level management duties, are well educated but are lacking experience. Within the world of hospitality, showing empathy and understanding the psychology of customers is ulterior transactions between the interactions of frontline staff and customers (Boella & Goss-Turner, 2012). During the service encounters, experienced staff is likely to know how to build up a defence of rituals that balance the interests of both the companies and customers. Such customer handling technique is building up by experiences. Inexperienced staff with less social contacts or in the absence of rituals would easily lead to one or the other being hurt. Interviewees implied that the service and customer management technique was essential to protect the interests of both parties.

Additionally, the senior cohorts have extensive experience but formal education attainments are scarce. The rise of hospitality studies in economics has heightened the role of labour as a key competitive resource (Littlejohn & Watson, 2004). Facing the rapidly changing social, economic and political contexts, the acquisition of generic business skills, sector specific skills, new opportunities offered by information technology, and management skills with a sustainable yet long-term focus are substantial. Learning has a place continuously throughout careers, rather than merely at pre-entry and at

discreet points during the working life. Interviewees observed that some senior staff are lacking managerial skills and are ineffective in communicating with their junior counterparts and unaware of market trends.

Interviewees pointed to the great opportunity for the next generation to develop their career in the tourism and hospitality industry. The career aspiration is however another issue stopping new comers to the industry. In some mature tourism cities, a plentiful supply of international brands or chain hotels is available. Interviewee A9 deemed that it was a motivating factor to attract the new comer. The younger generation would perceive more prospects, such as a sophisticated management structure, better offer and exchange opportunities by working in those brand name establishments. In contrast, some Asian tourism cities are lacking foreign investment in the tourism and hospitality sector. The new comers, especially the young generation, may not see the appeal of the sector. Instead, they may devote themselves to the commercial sector with higher personal rewards.

5.2.3.2 Drivers in Achieving Economic Sustainability

5.2.3.2.1 ASEAN Economic Community

The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) will be one of the significant drivers of the Asian tourism cities, as claimed by the interviewees. ASEAN stands for the Association of Southeast Asian nations, comprising 10 Southeast Asian nations (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2015). They are Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. Established in 1967, ASEAN has been an integral part of the 10 nations' social-political and economic transformation. The AEC, a milestone for regional economic integration, was officially launched in late 2015. Two main reasons foster the emergence of AEC (Asian Development Bank, 2014). First, much global economic activity is moving toward Asia. All 10 nations seek to share in the success of the new change. Second, lessons learnt from the two giant economics of China and India boost the opportunities for other nations. The economic superpowers have shown that economic size bestows tremendous advantages in accelerating growth and development. If the ASEAN nations become one economy, it could be the fourth largest by 2050 based on their forecasts.

As stated in the AEC Blueprint 2025 (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2015, p.3), the main aim of the integration is “to facilitate the seamless movement of goods, services, investment, capital, and skilled labour within ASEAN in order to enhance ASEAN’s trade and production networks, as well as to establish a more unified market for its firms and consumers”. There are multiple strategic initiatives planned from 2016 to 2025 under the five key elements stated in the aim. Some initiatives with high yet direct relevancy to the tourism cities are the facilitation of movement of skilled labour and business visitors, as well as the enhanced connectivity and sectoral cooperation. Some strategic measures include: to reduce documentation requirements to facilitate the mobility of professionals and skilled labour in the region; and to enhance economic connectivity in terms of land-air-maritime transport, telecommunication and energy.

With multilateral agreement on the open sky policy, considerable potential for aviation and economic development will be available for Asian cities. Coupled with the relaxation of tourist visas and working visas among the ASEAN countries, there will be significant impacts for the tourism industry on the demand and supply perspectives. Interviewees looked forward to the huge potentials offered by AEC.

Interviewee A9 expressed, “*AEC is copying the EU way of cooperation. I doubt whether AEC would be conducive because there are so many technical and structural issues yet to be settled. But I think it is a good start*”.

Considerable commonality existed among interviewees concerning the potential of the region. They also expressed worries over the actual implementation in reality. Since one of the goals is the equitable growth, the development divide between the more and less economically advanced nations is a major challenge. A huge divergence in people’s incomes and quality of life was noted within and across the countries. With over 600 million people in the ASEAN countries, many of them were living on less than US\$2 a day (Asian Development Bank Institute, 2014). The income disparity risks the inclusive and equitable development where citizens face unequal opportunities. In addition, the ASEAN cooperation missed a December 2015 deadline due to the critical requirements of economic integration (Asian Development Bank Institute, 2014). Some examples causing the delay were the alteration of domestic laws and some constitutional changes. Further negotiation on the legal aspect is required. The impact of AEC remains uncertain due to the practical challenges.

5.2.3.2.2 Infrastructure

When asked about the key drivers that will shape the future, all interviewees stressed the importance of the availability and capacity of infrastructure. As the fastest growing region for both economic and tourism development, Asian tourism cities will face unprecedented and fierce competition. The key to success will be the availability of infrastructure to support the growth. A handful of leading Asian cities are undertaking and infrastructure development or have plans to do so.

Interviewee A7 remarked, *“Private sector follows the infrastructure. Where the infrastructure is? The whole demand will come to that place. The investment on infrastructure is to get more investment”*.

This stance points to the distinctive and influential role of the public sector in tourism cities. According to interviewees, the success cannot be taken for granted. Being competitive requires sophisticated planning and long-term vision. The public sector has a role in revealing the future needs and invests in infrastructure. A point to note is that construction of infrastructure is a capital intensive project with long lead time. The immobile nature of infrastructure is also a concern. An interviewee mentioned airports as an example.

Interviewee A4 emphasized, *“It is a 15 to 20 years window for the airports. The whole master plan what the government need to develop has to be at least 20 years out. We cannot move an airport. We have to operate it whether we are making money or not. Unlike running an airline, you can simply stop flying the unprofitable route”*.

The availability of infrastructure is a prerequisite in drawing domestic and foreign investment from the private sectors. The investment in infrastructure may or may not pay off in the future, given the unknown demand and turbulence in future. It is indeed the cornerstone for economic and tourism growth. As for tourism cities, the more accessible the city is the more potential of becoming a hub. The points of entry, as well as the capacity, are the essence.

Interviewee A3 proposed, *“Under the AEC agreement, the 10 ASEAN nations are no longer governed by IATA agreement. They are now governed by the ASEAN agreement which open up cities to have all the traffic among all ASEAN countries without any*

limitation. No limit on capacity, no limit on aircraft. The only limitation would be the constraints on the capacity of airport”.

In the case of the AEC, the 10 nations will achieve inter-modal interconnectivity. Concerted effort will be made to develop the countries land transport trade corridors. It is clear that the tourism cities with available infrastructure and sophisticated capacity will be competitive in the region. While the return on investment in using of taxpayers’ money on infrastructure is commendable, the concern of the public sector should also go to the liveability of urban citizens. More comments will be made in the next section 5.2.2.3.1. Liveability.

5.2.3.3 Drivers in Achieving Environmental Sustainability

5.2.3.3.1 Liveability

The pace of urbanization varies across Asian cities, according to interviewees. For some emerging cities, a well-managed city planning for the amenities and basic infrastructure requires more attention. Proper waste management, drainage management, safety, fresh water access and public transport are some examples. For the developed cities, citizens are aware of environmental protection and the impact of their behaviours on the environment. Interviewees’ viewpoints concerning the people’s livelihood is interpreted with the generic notion of liveability.

Okulicz-Kozaryn (2013, p.433) defined liveability as “quality of life, standard of living or general well-being of a population in some area such as a city”. Given the increasing awareness of work-life balance, this concept became a buzzword for academia and industry practitioners. McCann (2007) examined the state strategy of urban liveability in order to enhance competitiveness. Jones and Douglass (2008) discussed the full aspects of urban liveability with cases studies. The industry commentaries, such as The Economist, Forbes and Mercer, launched indexes for measuring liveability. The Mercer indicators were deemed the most credible, given that the benchmark of other associations was developed based on the Mercer (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2013). In compensating employee relocation, the Mercer conducts an annual evaluation on the quality of living across 440 cities across the globe (Mercer, 2014). The aim is to provide an objective city-

to-city comparison for benchmarking. The survey is based on 39 factors in 10 categories including:

- Political and social environment, such as political stability, crime and law enforcement
- Economic environment, for example currency exchange regulations and banking services
- Socio-cultural environment, for instance media availability and censorship, and limitations on personal freedom
- Medical and health considerations, for example medical supplies and services, infectious diseases, sewage, waste disposal and air pollution
- Schools and education, including standards and availability of international schools
- Public services and transportation, such as electricity, water, public transportation, and traffic congestion
- Recreation, for example restaurants, theatres, cinemas, sports and leisure
- Consumer goods, such as availability of food/daily consumption items, and cars
- Housing, for instance rental housing, household appliances, furniture, and maintenance services
- Natural environment, for example climate and record of natural disasters

Liveability does matter mainly because of two reasons. First, a liveable city appeals to good workers and businesses (The Economist, 2011). The pool of talent and commercial activities are essential for city development. The second reason is a more subjective factor, life satisfaction. City inhabitants enjoy the better employment opportunities, as well as not suffering from the down side of living in undesirable cities. The pollution, congestion, small housing, crowded commutes and noise are merely handful of examples describing the costs of living in cities (Florida, 2008; Bishop & Cushing, 2009). Individuals still choose to live in cities because the perceived benefit outweighs the cost. Life is not just about career prospect. The relationship prospects to develop, creativity, innovation and infrastructure are more substantial in cities. The subjective wellbeing which makes city dwellers happy is the basis for liveability. Interviewees therefore recommended building liveable cities as a positive contributor to the future of Asian city tourism.

5.2.3.3.2 Pollution

The ongoing urban economic and population increment has caused environmental problems. This issue was repeatedly discussed by interviewees. A range of grey and scholarly literature supported their stance. One of the leading indicators of city pollution is the air pollution (Zheng & Kahn, 2013). World Health Organization (2014) measured the air quality of 1600 cities during the period of 2008 to 2013. Only 12% of the city dwellers were living in locations with satisfactory outdoor air quality. In the case of half of the examined cities, the levels of particles exceeded the organization's air quality benchmark. A number of factors are contributing to the air pollution, such as reliance on fossil fuels, dependence on private transport, inefficient use of energy in buildings, and the use of biomass for cooking and heating. In tourism cities, the lack of off-road coach parking facilities results in prolonged queueing by vehicles at tourist attraction, and coupled with inefficient public transport systems, lack of parking facilities, and congested road design create more air pollution (Jim, 2000). According to the World Health Organization report, the fast-growing, less developed and densely populated cities, such as those in China, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, often exceed the critical for human safety. City inhabitants were exposed to health risks, such as respiratory, heart disease and lung cancer.

Some Asian tourism cities even have of the highest level of air pollution in the world (Morelle, 2014). Beijing, the capital of China, can be enveloped with thick haze, while the pollutants in Delhi, the capital of India, regularly soared above the suggested threshold. Interviewees expressed worries over the pollution issues.

Interviewee A7 stressed, *“Think about the air quality. How would people go to Beijing without a clear sky? I love to go to Beijing. It is an incredible ancient city having so much history and cultural. There are amazing things happening in Beijing. But I just can't breathe”*.

This quote highlights the significance of the impact of environmental issues on tourism decisions. Interviewee A7 is a hospitality entrepreneur. He considered setting up the head office in Beijing but eventually he removed the city from his consideration list. The determining reason was the hazardous air quality in Beijing. He further commented that

he would have been irresponsible if exposing himself and his employees in health risk. In this example, air quality is found to be a paramount determinant of inviting investors.

5.2.3.4 Drivers in Achieving Governance Sustainability

5.2.3.4.1 Against Corruption

Policy making for tourism cities induces the concerted knowledge, power relations, resources and coordination among numerous stakeholders. These elements characterize governance. In achieving a sustainable future, interviewees remarked directly on good governance. The notion means “*authoritatively allocating resources and exercising control and co-ordination*” (Rhodes, 1996, p.653). The United Nations defined what good governance as ensuring that a country’s institutions and processes are transparent, free of corruption and accountable to the people (United Nations, 2009). Equity, participation pluralism, transparency, accountability and the rule of law, in an effective, efficient and enduring manner, are the enduring canons of good governance. Asian cities however are not always excellent of good governance examples. Several interviewees raised the problem of corruption among the Asian countries and cities.

Interviewee A1 stated, “*The challenge is about good governance and transparency. I mean migrating corruption. Asian cities are good places for tourism, but people do things the ways they like*”.

Transparency International, a Berlin-based association, launched the corruption perception index for countries and territories based on perceptions of the level of corruption of their public sector. The scale is from 0 to 100, the higher scores the less corrupt of the public sector. According to the finding (Transparency International, 2015), Asia Pacific scored 43 which was the same as the world average. 64% of the countries in the region, however, scored below 50 out of 100, indicating that the corruption issue was commonplace. The report also warned against the growing corruption in the growing economies, despite many national government public declarations and commitments. More effort seems to be boosted in this domain.

Tourism has especially demonstrated its huge potential to generate foreign earning. This income is susceptible to a high level of public sector corruption (Saha & Wap, 2015). Some line of inquires suggest that corruption may increase tourism demand (e.g., Leff, 1964; Huntington, 1968). For example, the speed money may enable tourists to streamline the bureaucratic delays in getting visas. Officials who are allowed to levy bribes may work harder. This stance is generally opposed by scholars. Corrupting officials may cause administrative delays due to the desire to attract more bribes. A corrupt system creates a burden of inefficiency, which has negative impacts on the tourism industry. The majority of empirical studies have reported that perceived corruption is negatively related to tourism demand (e.g., Duffy, 2000; Henderson, 2003). Expressed succinctly, less corrupt countries have high tourism demand. Asian tourism cities acquire valuable resources with multiple tourism opportunities. Good governance exerts a huge impact on economic and tourism development (Asian Development Bank Institute, 2014). The lack of good institutions hinder high and sustained levels of foreign investment. It also leads to more inequitable development for the low-status stakeholders. Taking a stance against corruption, as well as promoting transparent rules, should contribute to a sustainable yet healthy development in long-run. One of the initiatives of the AEC in their blueprint is good governance. It explicitly points to greater transparency when there is engagement of the private sector with the public sector.

The governance in the urban context has its own dynamics. Valverde (2012) indicated that the challenge for today's city governance is diversity. With their diverse economic and tourism problems, cities are outlets for better employment opportunities and living conditions. As a consequence, they attract people to relocate from other areas within the country or even from other countries. Some Asian tourism cities, for instance Bangkok and Macau, have a large community of expatriates. The presence of expatriates poses question of who are the insiders and the outsiders in terms of sharing the resources. Furthermore, gentrification has become a common global urban phenomenon. Gentrification is a natural outgrowth of increasing professional employment in cities. The phenomenon however reconfigures the spatial distribution of the poor and middle-class, and may worsen the income disparity (Powell, 2002). In the specific context of tourism cities, the issues of diversity in ethnicity, social classes and income disparity invite a rethink of equity. These issues also direct attention to the governance in terms of offering an equitable and inclusive environment. Equity is about the creation of an

enabling environment that allow equal chances for different stakeholders to participate in the production (Shields, 2014). The idea is a significant principle to consider for policy planning and formulation. A number of interviewees stressed the significance of good governance of the tourism city, given that it is the steering mechanism for the public and private sectors to move forward.

5.2.3.5 Summary

The senior and well-informed interviewees expressed their viewpoints about the major drivers that may shape the future of Asian tourism cities. Seven drivers under the four sustainable bottom lines were identified (as shown in Figure 5.1). Under the social sustainability bottom line, two key drivers are nationalism and workforce. The ASEAN Economic Community and infrastructure are framed under the economic sustainability bottom line. In terms of the environmental sustainability bottom line, liveability and pollution will have their roles. Working against corruption is the driver steering the governance sustainability bottom line.



Figure 5.1 The quadruple wheels driving the future of Asian tourism cities

5.3 Bangkok

This section is designed to achieve the research aim 1.5 revealing the key drivers that may shape the future city tourism of Bangkok. The forecasts for the city's tourism and development which are derived from various official authorities begin the section. The information was attached to the interview kit (see Appendix 1) prior to the in-depth interviews. The purpose was to allow the interviewees to familiarize themselves with the foreseeable future of Bangkok. Akin to the discourse in the previous section, the six interviewee's collective views about the outlook for the city tourism is presented. Table 5.2 presents their interviewee code and job positions. The key drivers are framed within the quadruple bottom line of sustainability.

Table 5.2 Code and corresponding job positions of the Bangkok case interviewees

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
B1	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B2	Hospitality and MICE Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
B3	Head of Tourism Authority
B4	Division Head of Public Transport
B5	Head of Monitoring and Evaluation
B6	Head of Department of Tourism

5.3.1 Forecasts for The City and Tourism

Forecasting helps to making predictions of the future based on the past and present analysis of trends. A number of officials and international associations forecasted the futures of Bangkok in the areas of city urbanization and tourism development. In brief, the figures show an optimistic and prosper futures of Bangkok.

As for infrastructure development, the Thai government has made the expansion of public transportation infrastructure a top priority on the national agenda (BTS Group Holdings Pubic Company Limited, 2014). The latest Mass Rapid Transit Master Plan in the Bangkok Metropolitan Region (or M-MAP, 2010 - 2029) outlines an aggressive plan to develop rail mass transit into a more mature network. The network will be expanded

six-fold from 79.5 km in 2013 to 508 km by 2029. In 2012, Bangkok Suvarnabhumi International Airport ranked ninth among the world's busiest airport (Lo, 2012). An expansion project was completed in March 2016. The number of flights serviced at Bangkok Suvarnabhumi International Airport was 295,712 in 2013, a 12.07% drop (336,603) from 2012 (Aeronautical Radio of Thailand Ltd., 2014).

Urban population growth is expected in the near future. The population of Bangkok will jump from 8.4 million to 11.2 million in 2025 (United Nations, 2012). The city will be ranked 35th in terms of urban agglomerations in 2025. Tourism performance will likely be robust and strong. The direct contribution of the travel and tourism industry to GDP was THB1,074 billion, or 9% of total GDP, in 2013. The figure is forecasted to rise by 6.7% per annum from 2014 to 2024. The World Travel and Tourism Council (2014a) expected the direct contribution of the industry to Bangkok's GDP to be THB2,046.7 billion, or 10.4% of total GDP, in 2024.

5.3.2 City Tourism Outlook

The six senior interviewees from the private and public sectors of Bangkok hold strong confidence about the tourism prospect. As the capital city, Bangkok will be an important tourism city to both international and domestic tourists. Some of them admitted that the political struggling affected the tourism industry throughout the past five years. They were not worried, however, due to the extraordinary offerings of this capital city. The government advocacy and tourism promotion, the private sectors' investment in tourism projects, and expansion of infrastructure are believed to further stimulate the tourism demand.

When asked about the direction of Bangkok's tourism future, the city was believed to have advantageous conditions to brand itself as a city for heritage tourism, shopping amenities, MICE, medical tourism, and wellness tourism. Undoubtedly, Bangkok has a concentration of the state-of-the-art heritage sites, historical buildings, and museums. The iconic attraction, the Grand Palace, and the numerous royal temples and shrines are all in the capital city. Shopping precincts, favoured by groups of some international tourists, are another opportunity for Bangkok. Major shopping malls in the city have been built along the rail line or beside the tourism attractions. These malls feature thematic

and innovative designs, and provide a sense of novelty through their chic images. For instance, a shopping mall Terminal 21 has adopted airport themes. Another example was the Siam Centre embracing multimedia innovations with the interior decoration and functionality of the mall. In 2013, the Siam Paragon shopping mall, a massive and major shopping complex in Bangkok became one of the top two shopping locations identified on Instagram (Instagram, 2014). A number of shopping complexes are in the pipeline, such as the Icon Siam in 2017, i-City in 2018 and the Aeon Mall in 2018. All these projects are mega-malls requiring considerable investment. Furthermore, the concentration of regional headquarters, as mentioned in Section 4.3.4.3.2 Connectivity, will continuously make Bangkok a popular MICE destination.

The capital city has been performing well in medical tourism. Interviewees reported the value-for-money, professionalism and high quality services of medical tourism in Bangkok. One of the two famous private hospitals in town, the Bumrungrad International Hospital, treated over 520,000 international patients per annum (Bumrungrad International Hospital, 2016). The figure represented over half of the patients treated in the year.

Interviewee B1 suggested, *“Tourists combine a holiday with medical check-up in Bangkok. We have got huge business from the Middle East countries, especially the Emirates”*.

According to B1, the civil servants in the Middle East countries were entitled to health care coverage in overseas countries. Bangkok was the popular medical tourism destination and will continue to benefit from solid demand from these countries. All other interviewees echoed the theme of a prosperous future for medical tourism, despite the concern of the rising costs and the loss of the niche procedures for some source markets. Interviewee B6 proposed the potential for developing health and wellness tourism.

Interviewee B6 described, *“Bangkok is popular for medical tourism. But we have to think carefully. We are popular among the Middle East countries. The European prefers going to India for medical services while the Chinese mainly come for dental services. I think we should promote health and wellness tourism instead. Health and wellness tourism covers spa, massage, herbal massage and plastic surgery”*.

In terms of the source market, tourists from the ASEAN countries will generate significant tourist numbers to Bangkok due to the relaxation of travel visa among ASEAN citizens. The Mainland Chinese and other emerging markets, such as Russia, will continue to support Bangkok as well. Some private sector businesses, especially the small-medium enterprises, were not ready to welcome tourists from these sources markets. Interviewees expressed that the sector did not know the preferences and needs of some of these emerging tourists.

5.3.3 Key Drivers Shaping the Future City Tourism Development

The six interviewees representing the public and private sectors' voices offered several insights about the key driving forces changing the future city tourism development.

5.3.3.1 Drivers in Achieving Social Sustainability

5.3.3.1.1 Thainess

The first driver for success which came to the mind of the interviewees was Thainess. It was the tourism essence that the Thai people, private and public sector were proud of, according to the interviewees. Culture is inherently an abstract quality and is manifest in the way of life, rules for behaviour and cultural products (Naghizadeh & Shahzadeh, 2013). Not only materializing in the arts and architecture, culture also embeds the institutions of everyday behaviour. Additionally, culture reflects institutions in material terms.

Interviewee B6 underscored, "*Culture is our most outstanding product of Bangkok*".

The government also recognized the subtle role of showcasing the Thai culture. According to interviewee B3, the upcoming promotion is going to focus on the country's culture and heritage. The new Thai boxing stadium and the new Thai textile museum featuring Thai silk will be the signature features. The lifestyle of Thais is indeed an intangible reflection of the Thai culture. Part of the job duty of Interviewee B6 was to ensure the tourism policy formed by the Department of Tourism, the Bangkok's office, was aligned with international standards. The UNSECO assigned her and her team a

project about the conversion of Thai culture into a tourism product. Thai lifestyle is an intangible reflection of the Thai culture. It is not a staged culture that is simply performed for tourists. The beauty of Thai lifestyle is the contemporary way Thai people behave in including Thai etiquette, such as the way they greet one another and the ritual of hosting guests. These behaviours are distinctive. The Thai lifestyle is believed to make a difference to Bangkok in the future.

Interviewee B6 described, *“Lotus can mean hello, sorry and thank you in our culture. The garland is indeed not just for decoration. It is used to worship our Buddha. When a younger fellow meet the senior person, he or she has to close the palms, lift it up to the nose, and say hello in a soft tone of voice”*.

Compared to other ASEAN countries, the Thai lifestyle is more delicate and gentle. She argued that the strategy of attracting tourists is different to culture would not work in the future. Sophisticated international tourists would like to be informed and experience the Thai cultural insights and lifestyle. It was suggested that the public and private sectors somehow were not aware of the significant role or the way to incorporate the Thai lifestyle into their offerings. Training the manpower and launching licenses for the tour guides were also the duties of her department. When designing the training curricula, she stressed the importance of reinforcing the Thai cultural identity and educating how the practitioner to showcase the Thai lifestyle to tourists. This emphasis is needed, it is suggested because the Thai culture and lifestyle will be the drawcard for repeat visitation.

5.3.3.1.2 Workforce

The Thai culture is well-known for its warm hospitality and friendliness. With the multilateral trade agreement among the ASEAN Economic Community, interviewees generally believed many workers from the neighbouring countries would join Bangkok’s tourism workforce. A plausible reason for the immigration of works was seeking better living conditions and employment opportunities, given that Bangkok was a relatively developed and mature tourism city. Interviewee B6 reflected on the worries of the native workers. The local frontline practitioners have expressed concerns over their language limitations. Due to the colonial background, the immigrant worker from the remaining ASEAN countries had better English literacy compared to the Thai.

Interviewee B6 explained, “*Only a small percentage of the Thai tourism workers, like the street vendors and retails, can speak English. They use body language*”.

The workers worried about the potentials of losing their jobs. Interviewee B6 further commented that the newly arrived workers may possess better English speaking skills but are lacking insights into the Thai culture. The native workforce therefore still has their comparative advantage. Other interviewees expressed another concern about the loss of Thai hospitality. Interviewee B2 worried that the loss of Thai quality frontline staff due to mobility generated by the working visas now available to those from neighbouring countries. The capacity of the hotels in Bangkok to continuously deliver the Thai hospitality is becoming a challenge.

Interviewee B1 emphasized, “*International tourists keep coming to Bangkok because of the Thai hospitality. They cannot tell whether the staff is from Thailand or other ASEAN countries. They just expect the same style and level of service. But the new immigrants do not know the Thai style*”.

The changes in the ethnic and cultural background of frontline workers may dilute the Thai style service standard and cause disappointment. Despite of the impact on the labour supply, interviewee B1 perceived that it may not be bad for the overall labour market. The relaxation of business visas may foster a solid supply of labour with better English skills for Bangkok. The viewpoint indeed pointed to the needs for language training for Thais to accommodate the future growth.

5.3.3.2 Drivers in Achieving Economic Sustainability

5.3.3.2.1 ASEAN Economic Community (AEC)

The discussion in the Section 5.2.2.2.1 ASEAN Economic Community revealed that it will play an important role steering the economic and tourism future of the 10 ASEAN countries. Thailand as one of the 10 nations will of course be influenced by the AEC. When asked about the impact of AEC, interviewees from the public and private sectors exerted divergent reaction. The private sectors inclined to see AEC the competition among the 10 territories. On the contrary, the members of the public sector perceived

AEC as one destination and stressed the opportunities for cooperation among the 10 ASEAN countries.

Interviewees from Bangkok's tourism and hospitality private sector, in general, conceived the multilateral economic cooperation among the ASEAN countries as competition.

Interviewee B2 considered, *“As we are going into the AEC, the game would become even more critical. We have to make sure that we deliver just like other major cities in our competition sets, such as Kuala Lumpur and Singapore, less so Jakarta”*.

Interviewee B2 explained the more the opening-up of the neighbourhood countries, the more fierce the competition. Some cities were competing strongly and had more effective mechanisms than Bangkok. The capital city has competitive advantages, but so do other Asian cities. The opening up of other countries, such as the relaxation of visas, indeed has eliminated the conventional barriers for international tourists. Bangkok is expected to lose part of its share. The worry of interviewee B1 centred on the workforce issue that had already been mentioned in the previous section. In contrast, the interviewees from the public sector welcomed the economic integration with the Asia neighbours.

Interviewee B6 noted, *“The real goal of AEC is to strengthen the tourism cooperation in our region. If tourists come to Cambodia, people there will recommend them coming to Thailand. We will do the same”*.

She emphasized the aim of AEC in bringing along long-haul tourists to ASEAN countries as one destination. The unity of the 10 countries should be the focus. Interviewee B3 and B5 were in line with her stance.

Interviewee B3 reported, *“The AEC will lead to a major influx of tourists, business travellers and convention delegates from our neighbours. Many new businesses are being stabled to tap the opportunities of this new market”*.

Interviewee B5 evaluated the opportunities brought by AEC and expressed empathy about the worries among the private sector. She noted the homogenous tourism offerings of all tourism cities. The sector should be free from anxiety, she suggested, due to the

possession of its competitive advantage, the Thai hospitality in the land of smiles. It was the reason for Bangkok being a popular tourism city with repeat visitation. In short, the common opinion of all interviewees was the uncertainty. The aforementioned impacts were based on their assumptions. The actual implementation and effectiveness of the multilateral cooperation remains in doubt.

5.3.3.2.2 Mobility in city

It was admitted by all six interviewees that, Bangkok has been suffering from traffic congestion. The problem has been described in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4.5.3 Infrastructure. The problem hinders the effective flow of information and people. The movement between the two airports, between the central business district and sub-urban areas are issues suppressing the economic possibilities of the capital city.

Interviewee B4 stated, *“In the aspect of city tourism, the first thing comes to my mind was the traffic between the domestic and international airports”*.

According to interviewee B4, the current logistics connecting the two airports was only the ground transport and the railway was unavailable. The authorities provide a shuttle bus for transit tourists but he had seen caught up in traffic during peak hours. He revealed the plan of the Skytrain Company to extend the railway by adding a new route to connect the two airports. It would resolve the congestion problem in long-run. Additionally, the movement from the international airport to the city centre was also of concern to interviewee B4. The city centre and the international airport were connected by railway. The design of the cabinets and the station were not well suited for carrying luggage. He urged the importance of understanding the railway users and developing specific actions to cater to their needs. A sense of urgency in this issue is required due to the increasing number of tourists. He also mentioned the plan of the railway route expansion to more suburban areas in order to enhance the fluidity of movement within the tourism city.

5.3.3.3 Drivers in Achieving Environmental Sustainability

5.3.3.3.1 Liveability

For sustainable tourism city development, interviewees stressed the significance of making Bangkok liveable. They generally saw local residents as the primary city users and thought that the needs of locals should be prioritized.

Interviewee B3 suggested, *“It is more important to first improve the quality of life for the local people that in turn will lead to an improved quality of experience for visitors. Both go hand in hand”*.

According to interviewee B3, Bangkok was home to millions of urban dwellers including 717,000 expatriates as of 2010. The city was popular for international tourists as well. Interviewee 5 admitted that local people were affecting the foreign tourists using the facilities, especially during the rush hour. No foreseeable plan was launched by government to address the issue. She further expressed her worries over the problem becoming more critical when coupled with the increasing number of tourists.

Interviewee B5 proffered, *“We heard the voice of the local citizens complaining about the congested space on public infrastructure. The BTS is always packed with tourists, the ground transport is full of tour coaches”*.

Interviewee B1 developed the same stance. He argued that the quality of life and standard of living for Bangkok dwellers should be recognized and improved. He observed how well New Zealand was performing in promoting responsible behaviour for local and tourists.

Interviewee B1 revealed, *“If New Zealand is about responsible tourism, Bangkok is indeed about irresponsible tourism. Bangkok is a dirty city. No government initiatives exist to recycle and keep Bangkok a green city. The only green initiatives are advocated by private organizations”*.

Several interviewees pointed to the excessive use of plastic water bottles by the locals and tourists. According to interviewees, making Bangkok liveable was not the agenda of the city government but also required the cooperation of the industry to embrace green initiatives. As described in Chapter 4 Section 4.3.4.4.1 Pollution, the central point of liveability goes to the waste management issues. Interviewee B3 admitted that the

promising growth in tourist number may intensify the problems. He revealed the government's determination to work on education, regulatory controls and proper enforcement mechanisms. The clean-up of the city's legendary canal system will also be on the agenda.

5.3.3.4 Drivers in Achieving Governance Sustainability

5.3.3.4.1 Against Corruption

Corruption has been a credibility crisis in Thailand, as commented by interviewees. According to the benchmark values provided by the corruption perception index in 2014 (Transparency International, 2015), Thailand was scored 38, which was below the world average and the regional average of 43. In overall ranking, Thailand was ranked 85 out of 175 countries or territories.

Anti-corruption has always been the country's priority, as stated by interviewees from the public sector. The Thai government however was accused of using such declarations as a smokescreen to go after its political opponents prior to the election (Macan-Markar, 2004). Mr Thaksin Shinawatra, the first elected Prime Minister of Thailand, ruled the country for five years. In 2006, he was ousted due to corruption and abuses of power. Two years later, he was sentenced to two years imprisonment over a corrupt land deal (MacKinnon, 2008). He was found to violate the conflict of interest in helping his wife in buying land from a state agency at a reduced price. Since then he has been in self-imposed exile in order to escape from the jail sentence. It was a typical example of the corruption by policy. The corruption by corruption term refers to the collusion among politicians, state bureaucrats and private business. As reported by Fernquest (2010), the police, parliament and government construction projects were especially corrupt. Corruption by policy has often involved big projects and tremendous amount of graft. It was estimated to be 25 billion Thai baht a year. Interviewee B5 described corruption by policy as a rampant problem in the Thai public sector. The new government established in 2014 may change the situation.

Interviewee B5 emphasized, "*Corruption is the problem all over Thailand, not just Bangkok. Under the martial law, the new government is very tight on the rules*".

The government is keen on gaining public confidence, earning credibility and complying with international obligations (The National Anti-Corruption Commission of Thailand, 2015). According to Interviewee B5, the country has had anti-corruption regulation in place but with weak enforcement. The upper class benefited while the poor suffered. She further expressed a view that corruption was part of the culture and it was not easy to change the mindset. Interviewee B1 echoed this view.

Interviewee B1 reported, “*Bangkok cannot afford to be dented by this image*”.

New destinations within and beyond the country are emerging. Although the locals felt safe about Bangkok, the sensation of the coup photos in the press soured and shocked the overseas tourists. The situation is unhealthy for the city to grow in the long-run.

5.3.3.5 Summary

The six interviewees in Bangkok expressed their viewpoints on the major drivers that may shape the future of the tourism city. As displayed in Figure 5.2, six drivers were revealed. Under the social sustainability bottom line, the two drivers were Thai lifestyle and workforce. ASEAN Economic Community and mobility within the city were framed under the economic sustainability bottom line. Liveability was put under the environmental sustainable driver while against corruption was the driver for achieving governance sustainability.



Figure 5.2 The quadruple wheels driving the future of Bangkok

5.4 Hong Kong

This section is designed to achieve the research aim 1.6 revealing the key drives that may shape the future city tourism of Hong Kong. A discussion of the forecasts on Hong Kong’s city tourism derived from various official authorities is considered first. Prior to the in-depth interviews, the interviewees were informed about the forecasting figures. This material set the scene for the conversation about the foreseeable future of Hong Kong. The remaining sections are the city tourism outlook and the key drivers that may shape the future of Hong Kong as a tourism city. The discourse in both sections is primarily formed on the basis of the 12 interviewees’ insights. Table 5.3 reports their respective interviewee code and job positions. Akin to the previous case, the key drivers are framed into the quadruple bottom line of sustainability.

Table 5.3 Code and corresponding job positions of the Hong Kong case interviewees

Code of interviewees	Position of interviewees
H1	Airline Entrepreneur
H2	Division Head of MICE Venue
H3	Senior Officer of City Planning
H4	Theme Park Entrepreneur
H5	Airline Entrepreneur
H6	Senior Operations Officer of Civil Aviation
H7	Head of Foreign Invest Promotion
H8	Hospitality Entrepreneur (Chain Operator)
H9	Hospitality and Tourism Entrepreneur
H10	Head of Cruise Terminal
H11	MICE Consultant
H12	Quality Director of Retail Entrepreneur

5.4.1 Forecasts for The City and Tourism

In the foreseeable future, Hong Kong remains a highly dense compact city. The population of Hong Kong will jump from 7.1 million in 2011 to 8.2 in 2025 (United Nations, 2012). The city will be ranked 50th in terms of urban agglomerations in 2025.

The direct contribution of the travel and tourism industry to GDP was HK\$190.8 billion, or 8.9% of total GDP, in 2012. The figure is forecasted to rise by 3.3% per annum from 2014 to 2024. The World Travel and Tourism Council (2014b) expected the direct contribution of the industry to Hong Kong's GDP will be HK\$275.5 billion, or 9.1% of total GDP, in 2024. The total visitor arrivals were 48.6 million in 2012, a 39.3% increase since 2008 (Commerce and Economic Development Bureau, 2013). It is projected that visitor arrivals in 2017 would exceed 70 million, increasing to 100 million by 2023. As at end June 2013, 99 hotel projects involving around 16,000 rooms were approved and should be completed by 2017. The estimated number of hotel rooms in 2017 will be around 84,000.

The tourism offering will be further developed and became more sophisticated. To enhance the overall appeal and receiving capacity of Hong Kong, several development

plans are in progress. For example: HK2.29 billion was assigned to the Ocean Park to facilitate its early commencement of the Tai Shue Wan Development Project. The Mass Transit Railway South Island Line (East) in 2015 will help alleviate the congestion problems in the roads. The Hong Kong International Airport plans to build the third runway, aiming to meet the demand of 620,000 flight movements per year until 2030.

5.4.2 City Tourism Outlook

The 12 prominent interviewees from the private and public sectors of Hong Kong expressed strong confidence about the tourism prospect. They shared common insights on the future tourism development directions. All of them stressed that Hong Kong will carry on its role of being a paramount city as an international financial hub and tourism city. Due to these two major functions, both leisure and business tourists will be very essential to buttress the success of Hong Kong. They also suggested specific types of tourism for further emphasis, including shopping, dining, MICE and entertainment. Among the four aspects, shopping and MICE were mentioned the most because they were the anchor.

Interviewee H4 considered, *“Hong Kong will always be a tourism icon. I dare to say that shopping will probably dominate the tourism scene that people want to come to Hong Kong to shop. I mean Hong Kong is one big shopping mall. Wherever you go, you can shop”*.

Interviewee H4 elaborated on his statement, describing that the glitz added undeniable sparkle to this modern city. Interviewee H11 echoed this perspective, saying that the city always had something interesting and modern to show. Featuring the highly accessible geographic location and some advantageous conditions for doing business, Hong Kong is the centre of innovation which captures the latest global trends in a highly efficient manner, ranging from fashion, technology, gourmet charms and entertainment. The free import tax policy allows a competitive price for consumer goods, despite the fact that shopping is now available in so many other locations around the world. Apart from shopping, the city also has strong potential for the wine and dine. The reason was also the advantageous policy.

Interviewee H3 reported, *“Since 2008, the Hong Kong government abolished the wine duty. My colleagues and I assisted so many foreign companies to set up their wine business in Hong Kong. The variety and origins of wine are huge. It helps to set Hong Kong as a regional wine hub”*.

Interviewee H7 stressed further the advantageous policy of promoting Hong Kong for wine and food. The free import tax and relaxing policy on importing agriculture and aquaculture produce allowed improved access to ingredients from around the world. The relaxing of these restrictions is conducive for acquiring the native ingredients and the most authentic taste of international cuisine. The diversity of companies and population was another reason. Hong Kong was an international city which has attracted a pool of expatriates working in the city. The availability of international gourmet options is therefore not surprising. These were the reasons of the city’s reputation as the Gourmet Paradise.

The MICE sector was seen as another significant area for growth. The majority of the interviewees stressed the importance of business functions in Hong Kong. According to interviewee H2, the high connectivity, infrastructure, pool of talent, the large amount of English spoken, the free trade policy and proliferation of commercial activities were outstanding compared to most of the cities in Asia. Citizens from over 170 countries could freely enter Hong Kong without a visa. These conditions have fuelled Hong Kong as a popular MICE destination and should carry on with this direction. Interviewee 11, an event organizer, agreed with this stance but commented on the current limitation. The city has tended to hold tradeshows rather than conferences. Although fewer delegates, various professional industry, such as medical, scientific, financial, and legal, have been keen to have conferences in Hong Kong due to the good infrastructure and strong networks. In summary, interviewees generally expressed the view of the MICE industry as having strong capacity to grow.

Meanwhile, several interviewees called for the long-term focus on high-end tourists. Hong Kong was a compact city with limited resources for sight-seeing. The constraints on capacity, such as airport, hotel and transportation also imposed a ceiling on the number of people which can be accommodated. Focusing on the number of arrivals was not wise for the city. As stated by interviewee H8, Mainland Chinese tourists, the

dominating source market to Hong Kong, came for shopping and were less concerned about accommodation.

Interviewee H8 explicated, *“As long as somewhere is clean and secure for the stay. The accommodation for them is from bottom up and you really see people coming at a different level”*.

Interviewee 12 repeated interviewee H8’s viewpoint. As described by interviewee H12, Mainland tourists were and will have more frequent visits but the stay will be short in duration given the easing of travel restrictions. Quality tourists with higher yield, such as MICE delegates, should therefore be the focus.

Another important direction for the future development is entertainment, according to the interviewees. The government is exerting considerable effort in this direction.

Interviewee H3 indicated, *“To further promote Hong Kong as an events capital of Asia, the government has set up the Mega Events Fund to support the staging of mega arts, sports and entertainment events in Hong Kong”*.

Interviewee H3 gave several examples of the 24 large scale events sponsored by the fund since its establishment in 2009, such as the dragon boat races and international golf tournaments. These events attracted 2.4 million participants which included some 590,000 tourists. It is clear about the government’s intention to brand Hong Kong a destination with various entertainment and happenings year round. Such direction will induce more visits and revisits.

The segmentation of international tourists was also mentioned by interviewees. In the new two decades, interviewee pointed to the tidal wave of Mainland Chinese tourists. Currently around 70% of the visitor arrivals was from Mainland China. The number is anticipated to remain at the similar level. Interviewee 12 attributed the growth to the increasing channels to commute between China and Hong Kong, such as the upcoming Hong Kong–Zhuhai–Macau Bridge and the high speed train. Interviewee 10 explained that the cruise terminal will play a role in capturing the growing demand of the Mainland Chinese. Hong Kong may act as the home port to depart for short-haul or long-haul destinations, and be the port of call for stop-overs. This new form of travel will appeal to Hong Kong locals and Mainland tourists. Furthermore, some emerging markets,

especially Russia, will take up some market share. The home port concept is attributed to the city's intention to capitalize on the growing economy and increasing flight capacity between Hong Kong and these markets.

Despite the strong wave of interest from the Chinese market, interviewees advised that "putting all eggs in one basket" was not healthy for the tourism industry of Hong Kong in the long-run. The city should take a smarter approach in market diversification. Interviewee H3 claimed that the government has been active in upholding Hong Kong's image as Asia's World City and a world-class travel destination. The tourism authority has launched a promotion in 20 key source markets, including five new markets, around the globe. In addition, the local community has continued to express irritation over the massive numbers of incoming Mainland tourists.

Interviewee H9 observed the phenomenon of the inappropriate behaviours of some Mainland Chinese tourists, the limited spending on the hotels and massive consumption of daily commodities instead of high-end shopping.

Interviewee H9 stated, *"There is no point in depending on the Chinese tourists. As a destination, we can educate the tourists to improve their behaviour and spending power. Hong Kong should diversify the markets meanwhile"*.

Several interviewees expressed similar opinions. Interviewee H4 reported that Hong Kong should not solely rely on the Chinese market despite of their enormous spending power. Interviewee 12 commented that Mainland tourists shopped in Hong Kong because of the reliability of product. They may lose interests in visiting Hong Kong once the product quality in China is improved. He warned that the city should not be complacent about guaranteed arrivals from China. Generally speaking, capitalizing on the growth in China, as well as revitalizing the convention source markets and enhancing efforts to grow the emerging markets should be the way to go for achieving the sustainable tourism future.

5.4.3 Key Drivers Shaping the Future City Tourism Development

The 12 key interviewees provided several insights about the key driving forces changing the future face of the Hong Kong city tourism development. The conceptual scheme, quadruple bottom line of sustainability, will be employed to category the drivers. The four bottom lines are social, economic, environmental and governance sustainability respectively.

5.4.3.1 Drivers in Achieving Social Sustainability

5.4.3.1.1 The Nativism

During the conversations, many interviewees acknowledged the voice of the local people against tourism development in Hong Kong. They observed the phenomenon of discontent and suggested it might be because of cultural difference, competition of resources between locals and tourists, tourism-associated disruptions and protests. Some locals strongly called for the nativism and priority over tourists. The emphasis have pointed to the largest source market to Hong Kong, that of the Mainland Chinese tourists. Some sporadic incidents, such as the misbehaviour of some Chinese tourists, have stirred up the controversy. Scholarly literature has also documented that some Chinese travellers' behaviours have not been compatible with the growing economy and international status of China (Tse & Hobson, 2008).

Interviewees justified that the anger of locals was partly attributed to the dissatisfaction arising from sentiments about Chinese sovereignty. Some local blamed the Mainland Chinese tourists as parallel traders. Nevertheless, interviewees pointed to the pressing urgency to gain the support of local people. Such sentiments have reached the irritation and antagonism stages suggested in the Doxey's irridex introduced in Chapter 2 Section 2.2.1. Some locals had misgivings towards tourism development and perceived tourists as the core cause of disruptions. According to interviewee 9, Hong Kong had very established and mature economy structure. The society was relatively affluent due to the proliferation of commercial opportunities. Tourism was seemingly not helpful in improving the quality of life of the local citizens, especially for those who were not directly involved in tourism. Alternatively, the industry created issues that negatively

affected their livelihoods. The discontent was understandable. He suggested the inclusion and promotion of the local enterprises to the international tourists.

Interviewee H9 reported, *“Hong Kong is not lacking in local enterprises, ranging from small and medium to large organizations. They should be part of the tourism stakeholders enjoying the benefits brought by tourism. The problem is how to engage them”*.

As stated by interviewee 4, the domestic market was always of importance. Tourism and hospitality enterprises should balance the needs of locals and tourists. Although local stakeholder has been deemed as important, the population is inherently small and has limited growth rate comparing to the billion plus population in China. The overemphasis on either side was financially and socially unhealthy for the city. Interviewee 10 mentioned that locals benefited from the improving tourism infrastructure as well, such as the newly built cruise terminal. It offered a new mode of transport for locals, implying that not just the tourists were benefited. In summary, interviewees addressed the significance of engaging the city’s inhabitants as citizens were the primary users for the sake of achieving social sustainability.

5.4.3.1.2 Workforce

The tourism and hospitality industry is labour intensive. The efforts of a well-trained and sufficient workforce are all important in delivering quality service. Interviewees delivered a clear message about the significance of the workforce and the problem they faced. Generally speaking, interviewees pointed out that people in tourism and hospitality in Hong Kong were generally well educated, hardworking, adaptive and highly efficient. The two universities offer undergraduate and postgraduate tourism and hospitality programs, and other tertiary education institutions, generate a good pool of talents. The reputation of the two world-class universities also attracted overseas exchange students, enhancing the internationalism of the labour supply. Interviewees agreed that the skill set of the workforce in Hong Kong was satisfactory and better than many other Asian cities. This city was not lacking quality managerial practitioners. Several interviewees working in the private sectors shared their positive thoughts on this topic.

Interviewee H4 reported, *“Hardware is easy. All you need to do is have money. Our biggest concern is to have adequate, well-trained and motivated staff to provide service with a smile. It is because software driver the hardware and the entire mechanism”*.

The statement highlighted the influential asset, labour, of the tourism and hospitality industry. The city has, however, faced difficulty in having junior staff with lower skill level, such as tour guides, waiters/ waitresses, housekeepers and steward attendants. Interviewee 7 explained the better salary packages offered by alternative industries in Hong Kong. Most of the young people in Hong Kong raised in financially secure environment were unlikely to work in the hospitality industry unless they had a special passion for the sector.

Interviewee H7 commented, *“Young people prefer working in an office with air-conditioning and dislike hard work. It is easy to get double of the salary if working in the fashion boutique, selling luxury handbags, banking and financial sectors rather than working as the rank and file staff in the hospitality industry”*.

Other industries that offered better salary packages and more comfortable working environment were more appealing to young people. He added that the foreign labour policy in Hong Kong was only applicable to professionals, meaning those with bachelor degree and considerable managerial work experience. Hiring foreign workers to supplement the frontline labour shortage was thus not appropriate. Interviewee 8 disagreed with this stance. He argued that the career prospect mattered most.

Interviewee H8 reported, *“If your brand is strong enough, if you engage with your associates strong enough, if you make the career attractive and appealing enough, you can still attract people to work for you”*.

He added that the young people and new comers were concerned more with personal growth and career development. Those organizations that genuinely cared about the succession of their staff will still be able to obtain quality staff.

Some interviewees raised another issue about the current workforce lacking language skills and knowledge about the emerging markets. Interviewee 9 indicated that MICE sector would be the future focus of Hong Kong due to higher yield. Foreign language literacy will become an increasingly important skill for the future workforce to provide

professional services for the MICE sector. In addition, he also shared insights about the future composition of source market.

Interviewee H9 mentioned, *“Hong Kong is the hub of international business. We can see the office lady in Japan, middle age couple from Southeast Asia and individuals from Europe and Russia coming in near future. They are from higher income brackets and show appreciation to the modern culture and heritage of Hong Kong”*.

Despite the fact that majority of the arriving tourists were from China, interviewee 9 stressed that Hong Kong had to take a smarter approach to clearly segment and capture those with higher spending power and professional background. Along the same vein, some overseas backpackers visited Hong Kong now will return in ten years' time, possibly, as chief executive officers bringing MICE business. The public and private sectors should take a proactive approach in investigating the needs of the high-yield segments and better prepare their workforces in this respect.

5.4.3.2 Drivers in Achieving Economic Sustainability

5.4.3.2.1 Cost

Hong Kong is reputable for its ease of doing business. The cost of living and development is however a limitation to potential investment and development. Several interviewees commented on the challenge to the future prospects of the hotel and MICE sector development. According to interviewees, the growing number of tourist arrivals is anticipated, implying the pressing demand on hotel supply. There is a huge potential for hotel development at varying price ranges and brands. Given that Hong Kong is a small city, the problem would be finding a site for property development. At the current hotel scene, hotel properties were not only in the traditional tourist areas but also sprawled into suburban neighbourhoods. The harbor front, the premium location for hotel development, is short of space to develop or redevelop. It poses a question of finding new locations within such a small city.

Interviewee H8 contended, *“The future development is bright. It is tough from the hoteliers’ point of view. The key brands all want to be here. There is a key global market but there is a challenge to find space”*.

He further elaborated that the proximity of Hong Kong to China offered an advantageous condition stemming from the huge yet solid demand base. Many among the billion plus people in China will be keen to travel and Hong Kong will be their first “international” holiday destination. Hong Kong can therefore capture the blooming economy of China. Arguably, the millennials visiting Hong Kong for leisure purpose will return as business travellers few years later when they join the workforce. Other interviewees expressed the same opinions, saying that today’s leisure travellers will become future business travellers. The demand will be very solid primarily because of the Chinese tourists’ demand for both leisure and business purposes per se and in the future. The high cost for development will however pose an issue for hotel development, even though there is a pipeline for hotel development projects in near future.

Another interviewee explained that the high cost hinders the viability for MICE activities. Interviewee I1, an event organizer, shared the story of destination selection of European organization to hold conference in Asia.

Interviewee H11 explained, *“One of the key reasons to choose Hong Kong is the gateway to Mainland China. A lot of the organizations do not feel comfortable to go to China because of many reasons, but they are happy to come to Hong Kong. The hotel is very expensive plus lacking enough space to accommodate large scale conference”*.

The cost of accommodation becomes a negative factor for selecting Hong Kong for MICE destination. The same disadvantage also influenced the consideration of establishing companies in Hong Kong. Interviewee 7 delineated the condition of the business environment in Hong Kong. The city was reputable in many ways in terms of setting up business while the high cost of accommodation was always a complaint of the foreign investors.

Interviewee H7 suggested, *“Our property price is too expensive. Our clients reflected that Hong Kong is a city with reasonable cost except crazily high property price. Taxi is cheap actually compared to other cities. Public transport is fantastic and very affordable. Food is really not expensive, ranging from fast food shop to high end restaurant. It is an*

issue for accommodation. This is something quite daunting to the international business people. Not to mention opening shops. It is very expensive”.

He discussed that forging investment was helpful in enriching the offering of this tourism city. Foreign investors may set up their businesses in an alternative Asian city with lower costs instead of Hong Kong. The soaring cost of land is a serious challenge for the city. From 2010 to 2014, the high property price gave Hong Kong the title of the most unaffordable housing the world (Liu, 2014). The city reached a severely unaffordable level for housing. The cost for establishing business and development was steep. Although having many advantageous conditions for doing business, cost is and will be a major determinant for the final decision of business development site selection. Summarizing the comments of the interviewees, the limited availability of land and its cost could become a constraint to this tourism city for the sustainable growth.

5.4.3.2.2 Infrastructure

Hong Kong has been experiencing an expansion of infrastructure. According to interviewees, there are newly opened and massive infrastructure projects in the pipeline. Kai Tak Cruise Terminal, the Hong Kong–Zhuhai–Macau Bridge, the high speed rail, the proposed third runway for the international airport, and the expansion of theme parks are examples. The development aims to make Hong Kong more connected to the globe. Commissioned in 2013, the cruise terminal has attempted to develop as a home port and turnaround port. It is seen as a new form of transport bringing massive amount of tourists to Hong Kong, as well as an alternative vacation option for locals.

Interviewee H10 elaborated, ” *An airplane constantly operates the flow of 200 to 300 passengers. For a cruise, it can be over 3000 passengers and over 1000 cruise staff coming at once. It is a different level of demand”.*

The ability to host more tourists was one of the benefits of this new mode of transport to the city. The current concern was to improve the logistics flow between the terminal and the city centre. Shuttle coaches and taxies would be viable but insufficient to accommodate the large number of tourists coming at the same time. An underground station that will come into service in 2018 is viewed as the solution. Six five-star hotels

under the development plan of the government are also seen as good amenities to cater to the incoming or stop-over cruise passengers. Interviewee H10 further commented that the proportion of Hong Kong locals traveling by cruises was relatively low compared to other countries and cities. A limited number of cruises stopped over at the terminal and they were not actively targeting the local market. It was because the local market was too small to sustain the substantial capacity of the terminal. Targeting international visitors has therefore been necessary for the sustainable growth. Apart from having a new vacation option for locals, the terminal features restaurants and venues suiting both MICE and leisure purposes. These facilities are seen as benefitting the locals in terms of offering public spaces for entertainment and leisure.

The two major theme parks in Hong Kong, the Ocean Park and the Hong Kong Disneyland, have been undergoing expansion. The expansion includes new themed areas and hotel projects. Interviewee H4 was confident about the new development, perceiving that there would be a stream of benefits to the tourism and related sectors. He was buoyed up by the thriving prospect, despite the issue that a new Disneyland has newly been opened in Shanghai China diluting the interests of the Chinese market toward Hong Kong's theme parks. He remarked on the importance of the domestic market, roughly accounting for one-third of the business. The locals have specifically been targeted by the theme park business in the city.

The interviewees noted that some infrastructure construction projects have been clouded with controversy. The commentary identified the high speed rail and the proposed third runway for the Hong Kong international airport. Several interviewees admitted that the high speed railway connecting Hong Kong to Guangzhou China, which is part of the planned Beijing-Hong Kong high speed railway, will foster a closer tie of the city and China. Extra funding is now needed due to the inflation and delayed construction. The cost of building the railway however exceeded the expected return on investment. Since Hong Kong is a special administrative region, the immigration clearance has also become a big controversy. The Mainland officials do not have the constitutional authority to enforce Mainland law in Hong Kong. It poses a problem of how immigration control will work without the violation of the One Country Two System political principle.

Another debatable project is adding the third runway to the Hong Kong International Airport. A number of interviewees suggested the pressing need of adding a new runway,

given that the capacity of the airport has reached saturation. The runway is perceived to reinforce the positioning of Hong Kong as a leading hub of transportation.

Interviewee H5 stressed, *“It is the only viable way to address the critical capacity issues that our home hub faces, and to ensure the long-term competitiveness of Hong Kong as a world-leading international aviation hub”*.

Having an additional runway is seen as strengthening the economic sustainable future of Hong Kong. A resultant concern of building a new runway, congested airspace, has been raised. Two interviewees expressed worries on this issue.

Interviewee H1 explained, *“Airspace is important around the vicinity of the airport concerned in respect of entry and egress. Obviously if you have lots of airports in close geographic proximity, this constrains the number of entering and exiting aircrafts”*.

Interviewee H6 indicated, *“The air space is a problem even though you expand the capacity of the airport. There are three major airports including Hong Kong, Macau and Shenzhen in the Pearl River Delta region. It is unusual to have three primary airports within such a close geographical proximity, showing a great conflict among air space”*.

As mentioned by interviewees, the problem of congested airspace requires mutual compromise and liaison among the three airports. Improving capacity is relevant for the whole of the city’s operations but for tourism.

In addition, the current constraints of the MICE venue in Hong Kong limits the openings of the development of the MICE sector. The city is lacking facilities and development for conferences according to an interviewee. Interviewee H11 mentioned that the layout of the existing convention venue suits tradeshows rather than conferences in terms of the flow of delegates. The high cost in holding conferences in hotels, comparing with other Asian cities, also hinders building the conference market. She further commented on the huge potential of Hong Kong as MICE destination due to many advantageous conditions. The improvement in the MICE venues and service would ensure the city being competitive in the long-term.

Interviewees have made overall remarks about the infrastructure development in Hong Kong. They general agreed that Hong Kong is doing well but other Asian cities are

moving even faster and better. Under the democratic constitution, the policy making process in Hong Kong can be tedious and time-consuming. On the contrary, some Asian cities, namely those in China and Singapore, made fast decisions due to the centralized power of the government. Interviewees highlight the increasingly fierce competition among Asian cities, in which infrastructure plays one of the very key role.

5.4.3.3 Drivers in Achieving Environmental Sustainability

5.4.3.3.1 Liveability

The common remarks of interviewees points to a satisfactory standard of liveability in Hong Kong. Sophisticated infrastructure, affordable and efficient public transport systems, densely wired, a stable electricity supply, clean drinking water, well-developed healthcare, assured food safety, and mild level of air pollution compared to other Asian cities have contributed to a fair living standard for both locals and international tourists. Given the confined space, interviewees considered the capacity of accommodating tourists as the biggest problem of this tourism city. Hong Kong's lofty land prices continue to grow, resulting in cramped apartments and limited open spaces for recreation. The Hong Kong government has recognized the problem and is concerned about the healthy development of the tourism industry in the long-run. Interviewee H3 indicated that the public sector has taken a realistic and pragmatic attitude in handling tourism-related issues. Some actions have been undertaken to tackle the problem, including the expansion of theme parks, the commissioning of the second berth of the cruise terminal, and increasing the supply of hotel rooms.

According to interviewees, the society attributed the congestion to the pressure of large numbers of Mainland Chinese tourists. Reporting the community's continued concern, interviewee H3 commented that the government has discussed with the Central Government and relevant Mainland authorities how to fine-tune and improve the arrangements of the Individual Visitor Scheme. No conclusion was reached at the time of interview. Several interviewees were aware of the community's irritation and urged the government to take timely action. A view was expressed that the overwhelming demand of tourists has deeply downgraded the living standard of locals. Interviewee H7 even reported the loss of potential foreign investors due to the cramped and costly living

environment of this tourism city. To tackle the problem, interviewees disagreed with setting quotas for receiving tourists.

Interviewee H4 reported, ” *It is very stupid to lock the door and say no to tourists. We need to look for ways to better improve the way we handle tourists*”.

Constraining the number of incoming tourists was seen as irrational. Instead, reassessing the current capacity and reconsidering the ways of accommodating tourists are better alternatives. Some interviewees suggested that making the city appealing to high-end quality tourists was worth pursuing as an effective strategy. It contributes to resolving the issues concerned with liveability and leads to a sustainable future for all stakeholders. They perceived the reinforcement of the multi-pronged approach in attracting both business and leisure tourists as a viable strategy, particularly for the high-yield MICE travellers.

5.4.3.4 Drivers in Achieving Governance Sustainability

5.4.3.4.1 Legitimacy

Since July 1997 Hong Kong’s return to the Chinese sovereignty, Hong Kong has pursued the policy “One Country Two Systems”, meaning that the city could retain her own capitalist political and legal systems, as well as independence in economic and financial affairs. According to the Basic Law, Hong Kong could uphold a high degree of autonomy and the capitalist systems remain unchanged for 50 years. The handover was allegedly a successful transition as reported in much publicized channels (Sing, 2001). The city however witnessed a number of economic, social and political crises that lead to challenges to government legitimacy. The phenomena were of concern to the interviewees. Regime legitimacy has always been the core value underpinning the existence of Hong Kong. It was emphasized by interviewees. Legitimacy is the backbone of the city, and structures the entire governance system and induced confidence for stakeholders many ways. Interviewee H9 contented that the Hong Kong brand led to the success of the city and legitimacy was a core component.

Interviewee H9 highlighted, *“The Hong Kong brand is the government image. Hong Kong has always sustained a very clean non-corrupted government. The Hong Kong police force together with the custom and immigration projected to the world are a very professional enforcement team”*.

The effort throughout the past decades in building the transparent, clean and efficient government has been key to success. In addition, the rule of law, law enforcement and high ethical standards are the Hong Kong brand. Several interviewees expressed a similar point of view, stressing that principles are the unique selling points of Hong Kong.

Interviewee H11 stressed, *“Hong Kong is part of China but not so China. The city has a very established monetary system, high level of transparency and much less level of corruption than China. A lot of policy makes it difficult to do business in China. There are a lot of different aspects that really make Hong Kong unique”*.

Under the One Country Two Systems principal, Hong Kong featured a governance system that was independent from the control of the Chinese Central government. It made a difference in many ways, particularly in inviting investment. The stable and transparent monetary and currency systems supported the existence of the freely convertible currency with no exchange controls and free flow of capital. The policy safeguarded the free operation of financial business domestically and internationally. According to the benchmark of corruption perception index in 2014 (Transparency International, 2015), Hong Kong scored 74. The city ranked the third cleanest Asia Pacific cities after Singapore and Japan, and ranked in 17th place among the 175 countries or territories around the world. The result indicated a satisfactory level of clean governance. Interviewee H7 further commented on the rule of law offering a strong shield for the city and its inhabitants.

Interviewee H7 described, *“We are part of China but operated in many ways differently from Mainland China. Hong Kong people enjoy a lot of freedom and feel secured because our property and personal safety are well protected by the Basic Law”*.

It was notable that the freedom, right of ownership of private property, human dignity and liberty were protected by law. The rule of law was the foundation for governing the city and created trust in locals, tourists, and entrepreneurs including both local and foreign investors for personal and commercial reasons. In summary, interviewees

strongly agreed that the One Country Two Systems principle is the unique selling point of Hong Kong. Several interviewees agreed that Hong Kong will lose its attractiveness once the principle is demolished. Continuous enforcement of the legitimacy of upholding the One Country Two Systems is the drawcard of governance for the sustainable success for city tourism.

5.4.3.5 Summary

The 12 powerful and significant interviewees in Hong Kong shared their insights on the six key drivers that may shape the future of this tourism city. Figure 5.3 displays the six drivers steering the future of Hong Kong. The two drivers leading to the social sustainability are the nativism and the workforce. The economic sustainability drivers are infrastructure and cost. Liveability is identified as the environmental sustainability driver while the legitimacy is the governance sustainability driver.

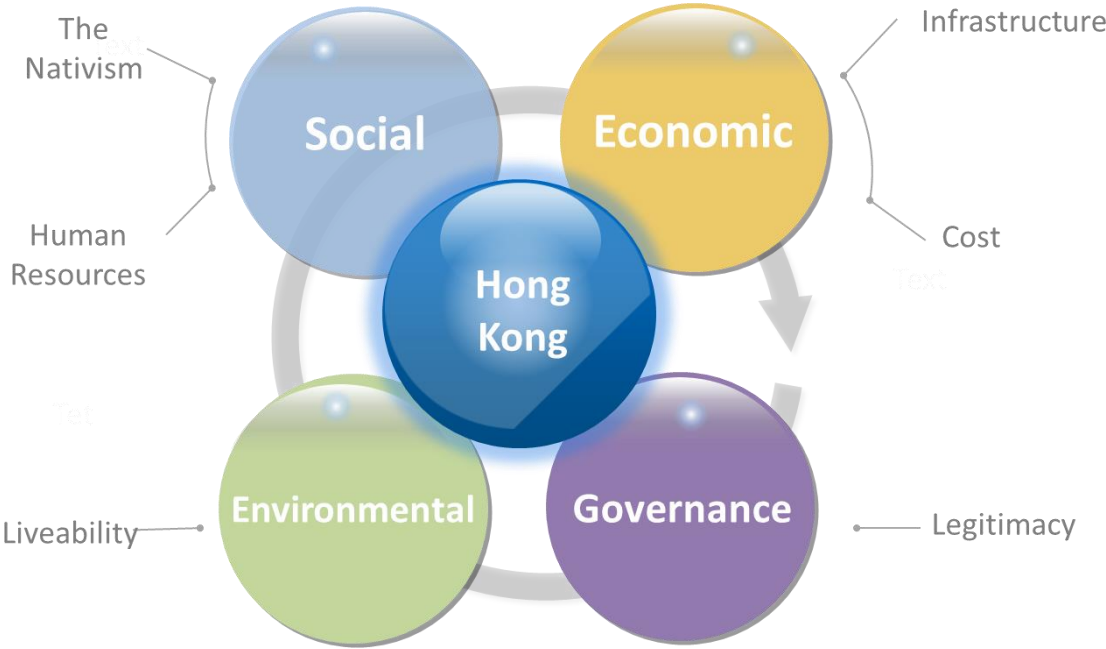


Figure 5.2 The quadruple wheels driving the future of Hong Kong

5.5 Closing Remarks

This thesis does not seek to compare between the three units of analysis. Instead, the commonalities of the key drivers in informing the big picture of the Asian tourism cities' future are the focus. The summary of the 28 interviewees' insights and the document analysis shows a thriving future for Asian tourism cities in general. In relation to the outlook, prosperous economic development and tourism demand are anticipated. Shopping, entertainment, heritage and MICE are the major directions of development for Asian tourism cities. The discourse shows that the quadruple bottom lines are related. The awareness of the synchronization of the drivers is necessary. The common key drivers are framed under the quadruple bottom line of sustainability in order to demonstrate their relationship with sustainable city tourism future. Figure 5.4 presents the wheel of key drivers that will shape the future city tourism development in Asia. The strength of individual drivers varies across cities. The findings is seen as reaching data saturation as limited dimensions have been suggested by constrained number of interviewees. Appendix 3 reports the details of reaching data saturation.



Figure 5.3 The wheel of drivers shaping the Asian tourism cities' sustainable future

The nativism and human resources are the drivers shaping the social sustainable future. Being local is repeatedly underscored by interviewees, representing its importance. The notion incorporates giving priority to locals on the usage of infrastructure, involving local's enterprises at all scales in the production of tourism, and preservation of local culture. The human resources are widely recognized to be a key component of successful tourism cities. Having a sufficient workforce in possession of compatible skillsets, particularly language skills, to serve the emerging markets of tourism cities is essential.

Infrastructure steers the economic sustainable future to a large extent, as denoted by interviewees. To capture the growth in tourism performance and economies, infrastructure will become the drawcard in channelling the efficient logistical flow of people, innovation and commodities within and beyond the cities. Furthermore, liveability is perceived to lead to an environmental sustainable future. Building livable cities is gaining ground under the rapid pace of urbanization. Managing growth toward a positive and proactive manner in the harmony with the quality of life of urban dwellers is of concern. In addition, legitimacy is seen as a driver leading to a governance sustainable future of Asian tourism cities. Political legitimacy is a virtue of political institutions and of all decisions in tourism cities. It is the cornerstone protecting both the insiders and outsiders of the territory. Legitimacy matters to tourism cities because of its importance to fuel economic activities and foreign investment.

This chapter is on the cusp of the present and future. Time-space theory is employed to offer a theoretical connection to the findings in Chapter 5. The locale forms an amalgam of the past, present and the emerging future patterns (Dear, 1988). A core question of time-space theory is who gets what. Simply put, it is about resource distribution and the space-specific social meanings.

Following the footprint of time, Asian tourism cities are going global. Empowered by the concentration of resources, cities demonstrate a high level of intensity and complexity as globally-connected systems. According to the research findings, core tourism cities will continue to play the prominent roles in the region and in the globalization process. For the sake of reinforcing the leading roles, the increasing fluidity, hyper-concentration of activities and resources, hyper-capacity of mobility, as well as the not so mobile infrastructure are prerequisite (Sassen, 2001). These cities have become strategic nodes with hyper-concentration of resources. Their orientation is simultaneously towards the

region and global. Bangkok and Hong Kong are typical examples of core tourism cities which have further amplified their roles and influences in the regional and the global marketplace. Bangkok has emphasized its centrality for business and tourism functions in Asia, particularly among the ASEAN countries. With the global vision and ambition, Hong Kong has persistently linked itself with the global economy. The four driving forces for the future manifest the considerations of the engagement with the global circuits. This role reconfigures cities to formulate the new geographies of centrality that connects them to the cross-border networks.

Peripheral tourism cities in Asia have started to aware the benefits of tourism. Some of the peripheral cities follow the success of core tourism cities, such as prioritizing tourism as a viable economic force and building tourism amenities. The Butler's (1980) model of tourism destination evolution shows relevancy to these peripheral cities. Cities are experiencing the involvement, exploration and development stages. The consideration of tourism development is beyond the border of locality and emerges with the national wise tourism facet. The change also reconfigures cities from a localized network subsuming into the state-bloc or national network.

In conclusion, this research echoes the time-space theory. The temporality and spatiality constructs orchestrate the social meaning of a locale. Given the expanding tourism demand in foreseeable future, tourism has become a catalyst to shape the face of future cities in Asia. Tourism is therefore the agent of change for both core and peripheral tourism cities. In a highly connected world, core tourism cities become pre-eminent space nodes in the global economy. Peripheral tourism cities repeat the trajectory of core tourism cities to evolve and emerge at a broader level beyond the cores.

This research reveals a new pattern of tourism cities. They have gradually emerged as strategic sites for the new types of operations: cross-border economic dynamics and gaining visibility as individual entities. The tourism function of cities is seen as capturing foreign exchange and associated economic benefits. The invisible hand of powerful and significant decision makers, namely the public and private sectors, conducts the activities to reach desirable outcomes for the cities. With strategic planning and promotion, cities become aware, known and visible to both the domestic and international audience. For the sake of being competitive in the marketplace, having adequate and quality human resources, being native, having sophisticated infrastructure in-place, making cities

liveable and enforcing political legitimacy lead to a sustainable future. All these aspects in cities aiming to perform tourism functions have indeed accelerated the process of cities' prominence in a global network.

The identified drivers highlight the significance of enabling cities in gaining visibility as individual entities. The nativism, one of the drivers leading to social sustainability, characterizes the quests from both locals and tourists in showcasing the local charms. This is a call for displaying the native culture, lifestyle, and way of living in an authentic way. Additionally, the economic driver, infrastructure, is about enhancing the level of accessibility of Asian cities as tourism destinations. This transportation component contributes to the movement of individuals including tourists, economic activities, goods and innovation. To excel in accessibility, Asian cities have to be high profile in the sense of being highly connected. These two drivers give a hints to the future of Asian city tourism about being local yet going global. This idea is about the appreciation, celebration and promotion of local wisdom and cultures with a globalized vision. City tourism in Asia is likely to promote the boundless flow across the globe in the near future. The findings suggested to focus cities in marketing campaigns and identify locations as strong brands in the markets.

In summary, tourism cities in Asia are therefore no longer just the strategic node for the one country. Instead, the timeless and boundless flows of Asian tourism cities are the dominant temporality and spatiality in the contemporary world.

CHAPTER 6 A SYNTHESIS

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6.1 Overview of Chapter

The final chapter summarizes the key findings and revisits the two research aims.

Research aim 1: To identify the major drivers shaping Asian city tourism futures

Research aim 2: To build a conceptual model steering the future of Asian city tourism

More specifically, the chapter commences with a reconciliation of the first research aim. Section 6.2 offers a summary of the key drivers shaping Asian city tourism future. With the utilizing a mixed methods approach, this thesis systematically selected three units of analysis to explore the Asian city tourism future: The Asian Region, Bangkok and Hong Kong. A grounded theory approach was then employed to reveal the key drivers. The next section in this chapter, section 6.3, addresses the second research aim. Drawing on a synthesis of the empirical qualitative data and the two conceptual schemes discussed in Chapter 2, a conceptual model of time and space leading to Asian city tourism futures is constructed. The theoretical contribution of this thesis, limitations, and future research

opportunities are also elaborated. Concluding remarks are drawn to reemphasize the key messages of the entire thesis.

6.2 Recapturing the Key Findings

The section recaptures the findings of the first research aim: to identify the major drivers shaping Asian city tourism futures. A mixed methods research design, with a primary orientation of using qualitative methods addressed this aim. The case study approach and grounded theory were utilized as research strategies. The research methods of in-depth interviews and document analysis were employed. The quantitative study was conducted to strategically select cases for this research. Multidimensional scaling analysis was used to develop a tourism city similarity matrix. This comparative portrayed measures the Asian tourism cities' performance and revealed the level of similarities of multiple Asian tourism cities. Asian cities in general, Bangkok and Hong Kong were chosen as case study locales.

This first research aim had six sub-aims. The first-three sub-aims related to the drivers that shaped the present; while the remaining three were the drivers that may shape the future in the three contexts studied. They are detailed as follows:

- Aim 1.1: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Asia
- Aim 1.2: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Bangkok
- Aim 1.3: To identify the major drivers in the past that shaped the present city tourism development of Hong Kong
- Aim 1.4: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Asia
- Aim 1.5: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Bangkok

Aim 1.6: To identify the major drivers in the present that may shape the future city tourism development of Hong Kong

The researcher consolidated the insights from 28 interviewees from significant stakeholders within the public and private sectors. The review of scholarly and grey literature supported the interview findings. Constant comparison between the various sources of data both during data collection and analysis revealed an array of drivers from the past that shaped the present city tourism development. This process provided material for the sub-aims 1.1 to 1.3. A STEEP analysis was used to identify the emerging underlining themes of the drivers. The analysis is a widely known strategic management method in categorizing driving forces. The identified drivers were then subsumed into the social, technological, economic, environmental and political categories. Interviewees generally perceived that social and political categories were the two leading forces that shaped the present city tourism development in city locations in Asian.

The same research methods were utilized to address sub-aims 1.4 to 1.6. A number of drivers were identified on the basis of the consolidation of in-depth interviews and document analysis. With the premise of building a sustainable future, the researcher framed the drivers into the dimensions of the quadruple bottom lines of sustainability: social, economic, environmental and governance. Common drivers appeared noticeable across the three case locales. The nativism and human resources were imperative in driving a socially sustainable future. Infrastructure contributed to an economic sustainable future, and building liveable cities was important to environmental sustainability. Upholding the legitimacy of the governing system was prominent in achieving governance sustainability. The findings highlighted the evolving patterns of tourism cities in Asia. They have gradually been integrating into the global economic system. The increasing visibility of tourism cities as individual entities was also noticeable.

6.3 An Integrated System Model for Sustainable City Tourism Futures

The purpose of this section is to address research aim 2: To build a conceptual model steering the future of Asian city tourism. The central focus of this thesis relates to

sustainable city tourism development. Chapter 2 detailed the importance of sustainable development and its association with future strategic planning.

6.3.1 Planning Models

The well-known Greek philosopher Heraclitus is known for the expression, “The only constant is change”. For continuous long-term success in any tourism destination, there is a need to embrace and manage change. In modern societies, destinations are endeavouring to predict the future and respond to events. Regardless of how much planning and controlling is enacted, there will always be unexpected events and disarray until a new configuration of adaptive responses is formulated. Technology-driven innovation, destabilization of social, economic and political relationships, together with environmental issues create mounting pressure on the adaptive capabilities of destinations (Smit & Wandel, 2006).

A good example of change taking place is the growth in international tourism in the second half of the twentieth century (Polo & Valle, 2008). Rapid economic growth, especially the Asian-tiger economies, the advancement of transport and communication systems, and the increasing volume of business or leisure travel foster all change and reveal new opportunities for tourism. The tourism related change is also considered as a major force in human history in terms of mobility. Cities as a popular tourism arena are changing in response to the growth of tourist arrivals. Changing land use, expansion of infrastructure, concentration on cultural and historical heritage assets and hotel property development projects are examples of the response within cities to changes. Thus, it can be said that tourism is an agent of change.

This line of thought requires the public and private sectors in city destinations to recognize the drivers important for appropriate sustainable planning. Power relationships play a paramount role in tourism planning. Leadership and governance structures guide the involvement of stakeholders and power implementation (Jordan, Vogt, Kruger & Grewe, 2013). Given that the present study had a long-term focus, only significant and powerful public and private stakeholders were consulted. Although the future is full of unknown upheavals, a proactive sustainable city tourism development plan helps to

mitigate uncertainty. The establishment of a framework guides decision making and enhances resilience in systems (Jordan, 2015).

Models relating to tourism planning are much discussed in the literature. A model is a representation of a system (Chadwick, 2013). Such representation could be in language, graphics or mathematics. A model does not necessarily cover every possibility. In regards to planning, a model, by definition, concerns the future in so far as the future is not wholly accessible. A planning model is not about selecting a course of action. Instead, it assists the process of selecting alternative actions that matters. In terms of dealing with inaccessible future systems, a readily-accessible present system based on professional evaluation is a nucleus from which to predict future systems. As to the functions of models, Chorley and Haggett (2013) report that models have the following seven uses:

- Psychological: To visualize and comprehend some group of phenomena that are immense and complex;
- Acquisitive: To offer a framework wherein information can be defined, collected and ordered;
- Logical: To explain a particular phenomenon;
- Normative: To compare some phenomenon with a more familiar one;
- Systematic: To view the reality within the interlocking systems;
- Constructional: To form stepping stones for theories and law building; and
- Cognitive: To promote the communication of scientific ideas.

A seminal study by Getz (1986) introduced the nature, types and characteristics of models in tourism planning. As of January 2016, this piece of work has been cited by 356 academic researches. The use of a model is to describe or explain some areas of the functions within the tourism system as a whole. Models move from descriptive to explanatory to predictive, serving as building blocks to theories. According to Getz (1986), models in tourism planning are two-fold: theoretical models and process models. Theoretical models attempt to show the main components and their causal mechanisms. Process models are subjective and generally used for problem-solving. With the combination of theory and planning practices, process models illustrate the dependency of planning on theory and its contribution to theory. Such process models are termed integrated system models. In an integrated system model, the planner must first understand the system through depicting and modelling its dimensions, as well as

knowing the inter-relationships among the components. The situation from the internal and external environments is incorporated into the policy-making process.

6.3.2 The Process of Model Building

This section presents the process of building a conceptual model towards Asian city tourism futures. The model is a synthesis of the contemporary tourism thinking about cities, the two conceptual schemes which underpin this research, document analysis and the interpretation of in-depth interview findings. To incorporate the theory and research evaluation, a two-step approach were followed to formulate the model (Getz, 1986). The first step was problem identification. Getz (1986) signified the principle of stating the research aims without the theoretical understanding of the tourism system. At the outset of this thesis, the problem statement was clearly outlined. Chapter 1 introduced the cities as important outlets for tourism activities, noted the shortcomings of city tourism research, and reviewed the methodological approaches in researching the futures. A broad review of grey and scholarly literature identified some key drivers shaping Asian city tourism future. The chapter also defined the key terminologies used in the thesis and highlighted research opportunities. Chapter 2, concerning the theoretical framework, aided problem identification by revealing contemporary thinking on the city and tourism. The discussion highlighted time-space theory and sustainability and the theoretical roots guiding the thesis. These two chapters were means to identify the major research stream and problems.

Prediction is the second step (Getz, 1986). It is about the projection of the system. Acknowledging that no models provide absolute predictive powers, any model should enable planners to set comprehensive goals and establish plans where possible outcomes are anticipated. Time-space theory and the quadruple bottom line of sustainability, the two conceptual schemes that were delineated in Chapter 2, are the theoretical foundation of the model. The model demonstrates the integration of these two theories. In addition, a strategic selection of cases allowed for a more thorough and specific evaluation of the research problem. The process of selecting of cases was detailed in Chapter 3, and enhanced the methodological robustness of the research for model building. The next two chapters, Chapter 4 and 5, respectively are on the cusp of the past to the present, and

from the present to the future. The analytical narratives in these two chapters offer empirical detail to justify the model.

6.3.3 Building a Conceptual Model

The section explains the development of the conceptual model towards the future of Asian city tourism, i.e. the second objective of the thesis. The conceptual model is primarily grounded on the two conceptual schemes, the time-space theory and the quadruple bottom line of sustainability. It weaves the philosophical ideas of the research findings derived from grounded theory, conceptual schemes, general tourism destination development models, and the contemporary thinking about cities and tourism. The model is an extension of existing destination development theories. Figure 6.1 presents the conceptual model that showcases the interplay of time and space, and their independent roles as well as collective action in steering sustainable Asian city tourism future. The time and space dimensions are the dynamics driving the five sequential stages (the past, the present, the wheel of future drivers, the right to cities, and the future of Asian tourism cities) toward the sustainable future of Asian tourism cities. The notion of global cities (Sassen, 2001) has reinforced the dichotomy of temporality and spatiality. The articulation of tourism functions in Asian cities follows the movement of the collapsing temporality and new temporality, as well the shifting from the context to surrounding spaces. Details are introduced in the following discourse.

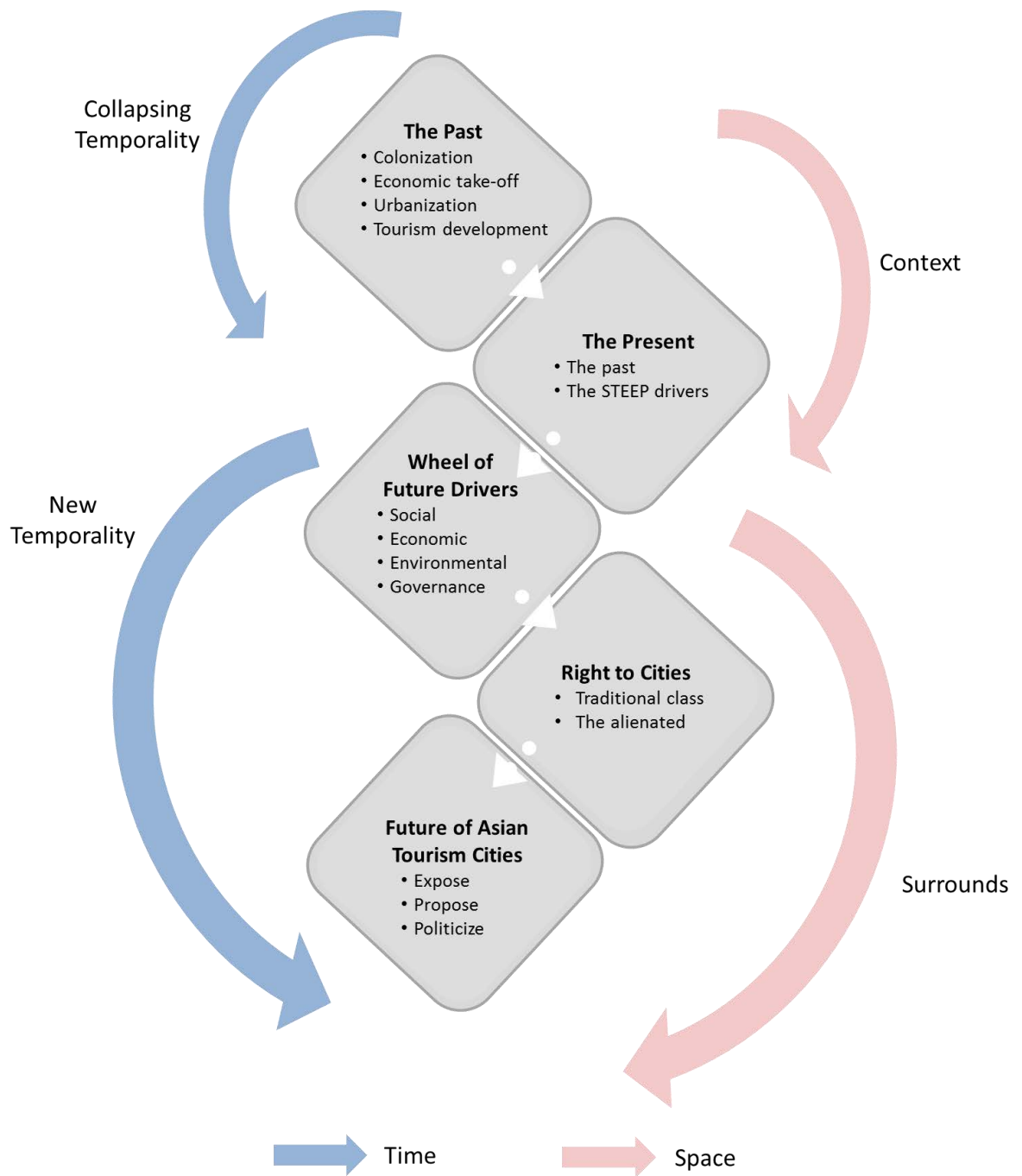


Figure 6.1 A time-space model for the future of sustainable Asian city tourism

The past is the first sequential stage. Chapter 4 presented an overview of the historical past of Asian cities, including the era of colonization, economic take-off to self-sustained growth, rapid pace of urbanization and thriving tourism development. Document analysis showed that these aspects have permeated the present cityscape of the three units of analysis (the Asian region, Bangkok and Hong Kong). These aspects are fundamental

building blocks toward the cities' ability and capacity in engaging with tourism. In the past, tourism cities in Asia have been the nodes of the nation embedding economic, political, administrative, and logistic significance to varying degrees. Cities inherently were the context of concern, given that they performed important roles within their countries.

Following the lapse of time, cities move into the second sequential stage of their existence: the present. The collapsing temporality, referring to the historic time, consolidates all previous forces into the state of the present. In the present, the role of tourism in Asian cities is established by the historical past and by a set of drivers which were identified in this research through the STEEP analysis, as reported in Chapter 4. Twenty eight informants in the three case study locales identified 15 major social, technological, economic, environmental, and political (STEEP) driving forces. The insights from the informants were drawn on their significant expertise and practical experiences. The informants consistently explained how these drivers have created a dynamic and powerful influence upon tourism and city development in their respective regions.

To further unpack the theoretical insights, research findings were utilized to perform a critical assessment of the pre-existing tourism destination development models. They are Doxey's Index of Tourist Irritation (Doxey, 1975), the evolution of destination regions (Miossec, 1976), and Butler's tourist area life cycle (Butler, 1980), introduced in Chapter 2 Section 2.2.

The three models confine their analysis to increasing volume of tourism demand and changing tourist types in a space-specific entity. The research findings from this thesis partially echoed the rationale of these models. Butler's tourist area life cycle and Miossec's evolution of destination regions underscored the significance of transport network of destinations. The thesis findings supported the claim that access to destinations heavily determined the degree of destination development. Some cities in Asia have developed at a faster pace than others, mainly due to having comparative advantage in their strategic geographic locations and supporting accessible infrastructure. These factors lend advantageous conditions to regions, fuelling destination development. One of case study cities, Bangkok, located in the heart of Southeast Asia, has invested

heavily in ground and air infrastructure. This was viewed as fostering Bangkok's role as a transportation hub in the country and the broader region.

In the case of Asian tourism cities, the three general tourism destination development models are found to simplify the process of tourism development and ignore several major elements of the urban context. Firstly, the legacy of history is not considered in the process of tourism destination development. The city's historical background, such as colonization and the resultant hybrid cultures, are part of the current Asian offerings. In reality, some well-developed tourism cities with the hybrid cultural touch, such as Hong Kong, have still received continuing yet thriving tourism demand because of their history. In addition, the case of Bangkok was not aligned with Doxey's Irridex, as it is proposed a uniform decline in local peoples' attitude to increasing arrivals of visitors. The example of Hong Kong illustrates that growing tourism volumes do not inevitably lead to the decline in the quality of tourist experiences, while the case of Bangkok refutes the assumption of Doxey's Irridex.

Secondly, endogenous forces that shaped the urban destination constitution have not been considered in these general tourism destination development models. According to the research findings, the demand and supply in cities does not naturally happen. They are planned, built, controlled and managed by significant decision makers, namely public and private sectors. Findings from this thesis demonstrated that political drivers are one of the two most important drivers to the present composition of tourism cities. The results showed that the involvement of both public and private sectors was critical to the orchestration of tourism development; and hence, that priority must be given to inclusion of both sectors. A key findings was that growing tourism volume does not necessarily introduce degradation of destinations. The core issue is how to accommodate the increasing tourism demand.

Thirdly, the exogenous forces have been largely overlooked in the three general tourism destination development models. Complexity and change are common and constant in the real world. Results from this thesis show that tourism destinations do not simply follow a linear path along the trajectory of development without any disruptions. The changing social, technological, economic, environmental and political forces create upheavals and have a rippling effect on tourism demand and supply simultaneously. As

a result, both endogenous and exogenous forces have to be carefully considered in the process of city destination development.

A critical assessment of the general existing tourism destination development models highlights an oversight of the dynamics of real life contexts. At present, cities face the known and unknown forces that are likely to shape their future. This point in time, on the cusp between the present and the future, is where the third sequential stage, the wheel of future drivers, is of paramount importance. With the premise of building sustainable futures, the driving forces that shape the future were in this thesis framed by the quadruple bottom line of sustainability. The results show that these drivers can be converging and interacting with one another. Admittedly, the drivers identified are not always obvious and are not a crystal ball into the future; nonetheless, they are derived from systematic empirical research and so, add to our knowledge and understanding of the role of tourism in the development of future cities. They represent the insights from current stakeholders, standing on the precipice of the past, narrating the future that is now in the process of being created. Those drivers reveal the future, a future full of complexity and dynamism. More importantly, they highlight that cities are being subsumed into regional and global networks. Hence, the spatiality dimension moves from ‘the context’ to ‘the surrounds’, suggesting a focus beyond the boundaries of cities. Meanwhile, a new temporality emerges, one that describes the lapse of time from the present into the future. This new temporality features the incorporation of tourism cities into regional and globalized networks. The five identified driving forces highlight that the future of Asian tourism cities will likely to operate in cross-border economic dynamics and gain visibility as individual entities. Tourism in Asian cities is the agent of driving the spatiality and temporality shifts.

Planning for the future of city destination development, the 28 informants recognized and emphasized the significance of sustainability. Repeatedly, they highlighted that sustainability has been on the national agenda for years in some Asian tourism cities, while some have overlooked it when planning for the future. Interviewees made two critical remarks about incorporating sustainability in city destination development: ‘paying lip service’ towards building sustainable futures; and, not recognizing the real meaning and full capacity of sustainability. In the first circumstance, sustainability is an ultimate vision of the national and city government agenda. The correspondent strategies,

key performance indicators and appraisals of city planning that cohere to sustainability are however absent. City governors place more emphasis on areas of attracting foreign investment and capturing financial returns for the sake of building their own career profiles. Inherent governance issues, such as bribery, complicate the problem, particularly in cities with developing economies or loose governance structures. In these cases, the remaining three bottom lines in the sustainability theory, specifically social, environmental and governance, have largely been overlooked. In the second circumstance, the real meaning and full capacity of sustainability in city destination development has not been fully recognized. The idea of sustainability has been transformed into some actionable and superficial tactics, such as building green city, continuous emission monitoring system and citizenship education. Academic scholars have suggested that the notion of sustainability concerns the ability of a system to maintain a desired state over time (Milman & Short, 2008; Singh, 2015). In this highly connected and mobile contemporary world, the transmission of information, innovation and people are rapid and far-reaching. The influences from numerous global issues at macro and micro levels also apply to the city level with varying degrees. In order to build a sustainable future, the core concern of power holders in cities should be focused on the wheel of future drivers, with careful evaluation of the applicability of each of the drivers in strengthening the tourism cities' capacity, resilience and sustainability.

Integrating the wheel of future drivers into a resilience plan for cities is associated with the power relations in cities. Such thinking is the core concern of the critical urban theory. This theory can be utilized to justify the pathway forwards in the planning and development of the future of Asian tourism cities. The discussion moves on to the fourth sequential stage: the right to cities. An introduction to the theory behind the idea of 'the right to cities' was discussed in Chapter 2 Section 2.3.1. Critical urban theory centres on the right to cities, both in theoretical and practical ways. Two fundamental questions co-exist: *Whose right? What right?* (Marcuse, 2009). The following discussion offers some plausible alignment of this theory with the case of Asian tourism cities.

Stakeholders are not necessary homogenous and have different degrees of power in cities. Critical urban theory proponents have suggested that those holding rights in cities are the traditional class and the alienated. Relating this thinking back to the thesis findings, the traditional class in Asian tourism cities are the vested interest holders who have been in

possession of power in cities. Public sectors and key private sectors such as multinational companies, large enterprises and oligopoly operators have been in powerful and superior positions in relation to the production and harvest of benefits generated by tourism functions. For years, the traditional class have determined, planned, monitored, and controlled the opportunities, conditions and constraints in cities. The public personnel have held decisive power in establishing cities' aspirations and priorities, evaluating the scarcity of resources, the availability of resources to support development initiatives, and the efficient allocation of these scarce resources (Jenkins, 2015). The control is achieved through taxation and subsidisation policies (Ryan, 2002). In this thesis, an example of such power and control is evident in the case of the Bangkok government which was offering incentives to foreign hotel developers as a way to stimulate the supply of quality hotels in the earlier decades. Key private sector companies are in positions of power due to the inertia of establishments and the possession of resources. Another example was that of hotel development in Hong Kong. According to an interviewee, the waterfront has always been the premier location for hotel property development. Hence, the waterfront in Hong Kong has been occupied by established hotels, leaving no room for new development; and so, the situation poses a challenge for latecomers to build hotels in the premier locations that are supposed to yield higher return-on-investment. These controls of the traditional class may deny others the same opportunities.

In relation to the question 'whose rights', the right to cities is a demand for something more and a cry out of necessity (Lefebvre, 1996). These are two separate rights. The traditional class is in the position of demand for something more during the production of tourism functions in cities (Lefebvre, 1996). The demand of the right to cities comes from those who are directly oppressed and their immediate needs are not fulfilled. They seek to be integrated into the system and to share the benefits because of their constrained opportunities and social relationships (Marcuse, 2009). In critical urban theory, this group of people is labelled as 'the alienated'. In the process of destination planning and development, consultation with stakeholders is informational rather than genuine (Jenkins & Singh, 2009). The scope for decision making is usually with the elite community group but without really engaging the community. Hence, the voices of the oppressed and those in need are often ignored.

In the context of Asian tourism cities, the alienated are city dwellers who have not directly participated in the tourism function, have not directly benefited from the tourism development, or have been negatively affected by the tourism function. For the first-two stakeholders in cities, tourism development may contribute to their quality of life in a limited way but it may make no direct contribution to their bread and butter. They have to suffer, however, from sharing the cities' resources. An example provided by interviewees was that of the locals complaining about congested subways due to the overwhelming tourism numbers in Bangkok. For those citizens who have been negatively influenced by the tourism function, tourism becomes the core source of the disruption to cities, resulting in deprivation and discontent. In the case of Hong Kong, those calling for 'nativism' are largely characterised by members of 'the alienated' group.

In relation to the question '*what right in cities*', critical urban theorists have emphasized that the right is a moral claim instead of an enforceable legal claim (Marcuse, 2009). It is also a collective right embracing the right to public space, information and transparency in government, access to facilities and services. Equity is stressed, creating a system in which meeting the demands in full and accountability are of importance. In the case of Asian tourism cities, the key informants in the thesis stressed the imperative of building a sustainable future. A critical evaluation of the present vision to a future state and the corresponding initiatives indicated that priority has been given to economic sustainability. Social, environmental and governance related sustainable actions, as noted in the quadruple bottom line of sustainability and in the wheel of future drivers of thesis, are given minimal consideration and are inferior positions. This pattern and mentality is one of significant and powerful decision makers in cities continuously favouring the traditional class and marginalizing the rights of the alienated. The equity in the distribution of benefits in Asian tourism cities will therefore be infringed unless a more balanced and holistic perspective is taken, as is indicated by the time-space model for the future of sustainable Asian city tourism proposed here.

Critical urban theory emphasizes the malleable character of urban space as an outcome of historically specific relations or social power (Brenner, 2009). By employing the ideology of critical urban theory, the traditional class and the alienated have been identified. This thesis revealed that Asian tourism cities have been rapidly integrated into regional and global networks. The engulfing of Asian tourism cities into this broader

space defined and characterises their future. Their malleable character however cannot be ignored and a rethink of the future of Asian tourism cities is not only possible but it is imperative, critical and timely.

Our highly mobile contemporary world transforms the rhythm of tourism cities. The new mobility paradigm, discussed in Chapter 2 Section 2.3.2, challenges the conventional assumption that people develop a strong sense of belonging to specific places where they spend most of their lives (Sheller & Urry, 2006). Instead, the contemporary interpretation is that people have strong connections to a space that contributes to their personal identity and defines their social networks. Mobility is a common phenomenon of modern life. Tourism plays an important role in driving the movement of people from one place to another and there is no longer a clear distinction between locals, outsiders and tourists. Research findings suggested that the city users were local residents, expatriates, business tourists, leisure tourists, short-term residents for education purpose and working holiday people in some cities. The conventional dichotomy of city users is no longer appropriate to make sense of exploring the right to cities. As a result, a rethink and reinterpretation of the traditional class and the alienated is necessary in order to plan for the future with justice and equality. It is because the traditional class may lose their privilege due to the high mobility of resources and people, resulting in becoming the alienated; or vice versa. Recognizing the role of mobility in influencing the future of Asian city tourism is hence imperative.

The necessity of such reassessment in a highly mobile world enables cities to move forward and into the fifth sequential stage. The future of Asian tourism is not only the final stage in the process of city development, but it is also the most desirable state as it is one that achieves sustainability in its fullest capacity, addressing all four aspects: economic, social, environmental and governance factors. Critical urban theory proponents address a connection to theory and practice by suggesting a three-step solution: Expose, propose and politicize (Marcuse, 2009). Expose relates to analysing the causes of the problems and communicating to those in need; it is the first step. Applying the idea of 'expose' to the future of Asian tourism cities, an identification of the aspirations of city, national and regional areas in terms of incorporating tourism into their development and future is the starting point, given that tourism is found to be a catalyst for inserting cities into the regional and global networks. For instance, in the case

of Bangkok, it is clear that this capital city continues to play a leading role in the country and in the ASEAN free-trade blocs. The establishment and implementation of strategies along the lines of the identified drivers should be integrated into future planning. Tosun and Jenkins (1998) recognized that integrated planning for tourism destination development is two-fold. In the context of tourism cities, integrated planning facilitates integration of the tourism sector into sub-national, national and international market systems. The growing complexity, dynamics and factors to consider by all means span not just the city itself as context, but also the surrounding area. It includes the implementation of strategic operations in a cross-border geography space. Besides, tourism planning is not independent of other sectors, there is a need for harmony with other components of the city. The traditional class and the alienated could then be identified and examined to ascertain the full rights to city. In addition, an evaluation of the wheel of future drivers, the strength of individual drivers in respective cities, and the existing causes of disruptions, are all necessary for destination development.

In terms of propose, step two of the critical urban theory solution, there is a requirement to work with those affected to come up with solutions and actions to achieve results that will meet the needs of all stakeholders. The previous stage (expose) identifies the city stakeholders into the traditional class and the alienated categories. Traditionally, city governments put effort into working with the private sector and those who are directly involved with tourism development in the city so as to create an enabling environment for investment and operation (Jenkins, 2015). In this contemporary world the public sector has to consider a broader scope of audience in working on the future blueprint, especially the alienated group. The involvement of the traditional class and the alienated is decisive in leading to an equitable future. In the case of Asian tourism cities, the voices of those who are not directly working in or with the tourism industry, those who perceive tourism as disruptive have been marginalized and are not heard.

In terms of politicize, the final step in the critical urban theory solution, the policy implications of actions decided in the previous two steps need to be clarified. The role of the public sector is important because they are the gatekeepers. The present tourism landscape in cities has been established, but there is potential for the future of the tourism landscape in cities to be crafted and built. The future is full of complexity and disruptions. Looking for balance in terms of the right to cities, interests of city users, and the

quadruple bottom line of sustainability, are pivotal in shaping the future of Asian tourism cities to reach a desired state.

In summary, the five sequential stages of the Time-Space Model for the Future of Sustainable Asian City Tourism features a stepwise destination development ideology for building of the future of Asian tourism cities. The conceptual model underscored the inevitable temporality and spatiality dynamics of the future. The past is past, but the future is chosen and built. Acknowledging the reality in contemporary Asian cities, including being mindful of such aspects as power relationships and mobility, is vital to attain sustainability.

6.4 Theoretical Contribution

The section delineates the theoretical contribution of this thesis. Several shortcomings in the city tourism literature and research were discussed in Chapter 1 Section 1.2. They include noting the limited amount of city tourism studies, difficulty in operationalizing research, inaccessibility of data, constraints on the appreciation of tourism and other functions in cities, the lack of theoretical foundations, limited forward-looking research, and the value of relevant studies from geographic perspectives. This thesis advances city tourism knowledge by responding to these shortcomings.

This thesis positions itself predominantly as tourism based and complementary to the discipline of urban studies. Pearce (2005) outlines the six main territories of tourism academia research, including interpretive, emancipatory, macro, micro, regulatory and functional. The thesis is an attempt in contributing to the macro and emancipatory aspects within the tourism scholarly literature territories. Emancipatory emphasizes new and revolutionary initiatives in tourism thinking. Macro means the scale of tourism being considered, referring to studies of large systems and whole regions. This thesis resonates with the view that complex tourism systems need to be understood in terms of the 'bigger picture' and need to take into account a holistic perspective encompassing the broader environment, from the region to the nation to global awareness. Tourism in cities is evaluated not just as an economic powerhouse, but also as a contributor to city sustainable development, to rethinking of the right to cities, and to private power and public policies. In addition, tourism in cities is considered to be a key component of

forward-looking prospects of the big picture. Tourism in cities is a substantial contributor to the total appraisal of a city. The emphasis in recent writings about tourism studies reinforces the integration of tourism into the complex systems (Pearce, 2005; Sharpley & Telfer, 2014; Maxim, 2016). This thesis contributes to addressing this extensive role that tourism plays in the complex systems that are known as cities.

This thesis responded to the need for city tourism studies, especially from the constrained geographic perspective characterising existing efforts. Much of the extant literature centred on European cities or the rejuvenation of tourism cities. There was limited understanding of and research relating to Asian cities. This thesis has hopefully made steps towards filling this gap. Due to its historical background, Asian cities have experienced a unique trajectory in their evolution and tourism development. In particular, this thesis took a wider perspective in exploring how the tourism sector co-existed with other functions of cities. The interplay of tourism and other functions advances the understanding of tourism and its role in integrating a city wise system.

The pluralism of city contexts hinders the standardization of methods for the collection and analysis of data. To overcome such challenges, this thesis proposed an objective benchmark that utilized a similarity matrix for classifying tourism cities. The benchmarking method used five-components and covered the following sectors in general: tourism, hospitality, aviation, MICE and gaming. The development of the similarity matrix was research-based. Farrell and Twining-Ward (2004) reported that a restricted approach to research weakens integration and unity. The similarity matrix is viewed as innovative: an out-of-the-box thinking that contributes to new knowledge and classification. Each component had several indicators to measure performance. The measures offered an objective and quantified basis for comparison. The consolidated data were analysed by the use of multidimensional scaling analysis. The analysis provided a perceptual map showing the similarity among Asian tourism cities. The closer the cities clustered, the greater the level of similarity between them. To the best of the author's knowledge, this benchmarking method was among the very first attempt to apply a standardized methodology in rationalizing the selection and use of tourism cities in research. People often pair cities with similar offerings based on stereotypical perception. This benchmarking method literally contributed to a justifiable, solid and objective measure for comparison of cities in a valid and systematic manner.

As mentioned, there was a paucity of forward-looking city tourism research. In this study, 28 key informants representing the supply side of tourism cities offered their thoughts and insights into the future of tourism cities in Asia. The difficulty in accessing powerful stakeholders in Asia is evidenced by the fact that previous studies utilized either secondary data or involved non-Asian ethnic stakeholders. The value of this study lies in the opportunities of being able to access the viewpoints from previously untapped powerful stakeholders across Asian cities in general, Bangkok and Hong Kong. These stakeholders were associated with and experienced in a diversity of relevant professions, including aviation, tourism, hospitality, MICE, transport, sustainability, city planning and entrepreneurship. The one-on-one in-depth interviews ensured a sharing of their viewpoints and opportunity for the researcher to use questioning to elaborate on the complex issues relating to tourism cities, arising from the past, extant in the present and projected for future. The conversations were thought-provoking and raised unexpected dimensions that the author had not considered. These dimensions added to previous knowledge and informed the emerging knowledge proposed in this thesis as a result of the findings. In particular, it led to the fuller specification of the time-space model for sustainable Asian city tourism future.

The in-depth investigative nature of the case study approach is well suited for theory building. Flyvbjerg (2006) explained that the approach is ideal in verifying falsification in social science. Falsification is defined by the point that if one observation does not fit the proposition, it is deemed as invalid. The metaphor of 'all swans are white' suggests that the observation of a black swan would falsify such a proposition. Indeed, the case study method is to identify the black swan. The process of identifying the black swan contributes to current understanding and stimulates further theory building. Along the same vein, this thesis revealed the presence of both the white and black swans (common understanding and a new perspective) in relation to city tourism knowledge in the Asian cities context. The findings pave the way for approaching the future of in city tourism, the integration of tourism into the city system, and the association of tourism with urban sustainability. More importantly, this thesis is the first attempt in integrating the time-space theory and the quadruple bottom line of sustainability in tourism in the context of city locales. It opens up a new area for future city tourism research, particularly with a sustainable city focus. Jenkins (2008) proposed the recognition of tourism futures. He proffered that it was a sector, instead of an industry. The tourism sector is often a policy-

taker. The conceptual model in this thesis reorients tourism as central to the city development process. It suggests that tourism should be a policy-maker, driving and aiding the future development of cities. With an appreciation of contemporary forces including mobility and power relations in cities, tourism is a solution to cities' resilience. Tourism, hence, is the black swan. The study therefore offers a fresh "black swan" view of tourism.

6.5 Limitation and Future Research Opportunities

This section reports the limitation of the thesis and future research opportunities in the domain of city tourism. The major limitation of the thesis was the constraints in pursuing empirical investigations of an outlier city. The multidimensional-scaling technique was adopted based on the initiated tourism city similarity matrix in order to show the extent of similarities among tourism cities. Tourism cities were grouped into the exemplar, marginal outlier and outlier categories. The researcher planned to select one tourism city in each category for the purposes of a case study investigation. Due to the inaccessibility to potential interviewees in the outlier category, only tourism cities in the exemplar and marginal outlier categories were chosen. The simultaneous inclusion of tourism cities in all three categories would enhance the explanatory power of the findings. It may pose new insights to the theoretical discussion. The failure of including data from all three categories in the analysis is seen as limitation of this thesis.

The domain of city tourism research has long been hindered by lack of standardized data collection techniques and methods of analysis. The tourism city similarity matrix proposed in Chapter 3 demonstrates a robust and theoretically significant technique for measuring and comparing tourism cities. Such a benchmark was developed based on the researcher's intuitive knowledge and immersion with city experiences, which indicated the use of the five categories (e.g. tourism, hospitality, and MICE). Further research is recommended to advance this benchmarking technique. One approach could be to add new categories or measures, as well as eliminating some of the categories used in this thesis. Also, the modified benchmark technique could be used on tourism cities with different functions, such as entertainment cities, gaming cities or heritage cities. In addition, tourism cities are perceived as generic terms. The results of the benchmark

inform new insights that tourism cities could be grouped into three different categories, such as exemplars, marginal outliers, and outliers. As a further recommendation, future research may pursue more in-depth investigation to reveal the commonalities of cities under the same categories, the roles of cities in individual categories, and their interrelationships. Such an approach would enrich the literature in terms of identifying and describing typologies and roles of cities at different levels.

The present study responds to the lack of forward-looking city tourism scholarly research. The identified future drivers, especially liveability, legitimacy and nativism, are gaining ground in the real world. Existing tourism scholarly literature has limited understanding of these drivers. The findings of this thesis open up research opportunities for exploring these untapped research themes. To sustain the effort of integrating tourism into the complex systems, investigation in these areas is of value. These untapped research themes present significant potential in theoretical and practical terms. Furthermore, it is suggested that future studies perform scenario analyses based on the identified drivers. Scenario thinking and planning are influential in the public and private sectors for business and government decision-making.

This thesis conducted the research in Asia. The reason for this pursuit was that the world's dynamic has been shifting east. The region has witnessed the fast pace of urbanization, economic activities and tourism potentials. The proliferation of mature destinations, as well as the growth of emerging destinations, is noticeable. For instance, in South America and Africa, there is expected to be another wave of city tourism dynamics (BBC News, 2016; Foster, 2016; TripAdvisor, 2015). There is potential for applying and verifying the conceptual model of tourism cities proposed in this thesis to the varying developmental stages of city tourism. It is recommended that future studies pursue research in these emerging and expanding geographical locales and so add to understanding of the city tourism scene in the future.

6.6 Concluding Remarks

This thesis offers an understanding of how to integrate tourism as a component of city systems in creating a sustainable future for such cities. The key research aim of this thesis was to identify the key drivers that shape the Asian city tourism future. Guided by the

pragmatism paradigm, this study adopted a mixed methods research design, with a predominant use of qualitative approaches. The case study method and grounded theory were the two research strategies utilised in pursuing the aims of this thesis. A tourism city similarity matrix was developed to strategically select cases for analysis. Three units of analysis, namely Asian cities in general, Bangkok and Hong Kong, were identified following a three-round classification using multidimensional scaling analysis. In-depth interviews were utilized to capture the insights from powerful and significant stakeholders, while contemporary thinking about city tourism issues was obtained through document analysis.

This study adds empirical rigour and theoretical depth to the understanding of the future of Asian city tourism. Specifically, the identified key drivers set out the long-term agenda for sustainability and city tourism policy. The knowledge base was grounded in expertise-based know-how about the policies, policy decision making, and best practices. Research into the drivers, especially the present drivers shaping the future, offered clear opportunities to further conceptualize and empirically verify sustainable development along time, moving from the past, to the present and onward to the future. The empirical findings highlighted that tourism cities in Asia operate under cross-border economic dynamics. Gaining visibility as individual entities is paramount for a tourism city. As a consequence of the emerging trend of Asian tourism cities joining global circuits, the significance of tourism in cities is going to be amplified in the foreseeable future.

The thesis also acknowledges the potential momentum driving the future of Asian city tourism into the contemporary world. Addressing the right to cities and embracing mobilities should not be overlooked. The conceptual model (A time-space model for sustainable Asian city tourism future) highlighted the significance of these factors in leading cities to achieving a desirable state. As a result, the model offers a new insight in weaving a sustainable future for Asian city tourism.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Kit

Weaving the Future of Asian City Tourism: Drivers and Implications

Interview Kit

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AGENDA

1. The aim of this interview is to explore factors that will shape the future of Asian city tourism development over the next 20 years.
2. The language for the interview will be in English.
3. This interview will be tape-recorded if interviewee agrees.
4. All the conversations will be kept confidential and interviewee will be unidentified in the report.
5. This interview lasts for an hour.
6. A complimentary working paper based on the interview findings will be given to individual interviewee.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research is to explore the factors that will shape the future of tourism development in Asian cities. Cities have long been places for tourism activities, and many of the world's cities are also the world's greatest tourism destinations. City tourism will grow rapidly in coming decades. In a world where 1.8 billion tourists will take holiday in 2030, two-thirds of the population will live in cities in 2050, and the Asia Pacific region will share 36% of the world GDP in 2032. Looking for the future is thus essential to recognize and deal with the forces that drive the future of tourism in cities. How can tourism policy makers and tourism business operators get ready for the future of tourism development in Asian cities in the next 20 years, i.e. 2034?

RESEARCH METHODS

The data collection will be on Asian cities, Bangkok and Hong Kong. The first stage of the study will undertake an examination of drivers shaping Asian city tourism development. Interviews with key city tourism informants will be conducted to gain their insights and identify factors that are expected to affect cities. The findings will be synthesized for theoretical model building.

FORECASTS ON CITIES & TOURISM

Global

- In 2012, cities were the home to half of the global population. The number will continue to grow to two-thirds of the world's population, or six billion of people, by 2050 (United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2013).
- There were 40 cities (with population between 5 million to 10 million) in 2011 and this will jump to 59 in 2025. Over 75% of these “megacities in waiting” are located in developing countries (United Nations, 2012).
- Annual international tourist arrivals are expected to hit 1.8 billion in 2030 (UNWTO, 2011). Visitor arrivals to emerging economy destinations are expected to surpass advanced destinations in 2015. Travel between regions continues to grow slightly faster than within the same region.

The Asia Pacific region

- In 2032, the Asia Pacific region's share of world GDP will be 36% (Boeing commercial airplanes, 2013).
- From 2013-2032, nearly half of the world's air traffic growth will be driven by travel to, from, or within the Asia Pacific region (Boeing commercial airplanes, 2013). The number of airplanes in the Asia Pacific fleet will nearly triple, from 5,090 airplanes in 2012 to 14,750 airplanes in 2032.
- By 2020, half of the population in Asia will live in urban areas (United Nations, 2012).
- Eight out of the top ten of the worlds' most densely populated large cities are in South Asia (Asian Development Bank, 2012).
- Asia is expected to have the highest rate of urbanization (1.1% per annum increases) among all regions from 2011 to 2030 (United Nations, 2012).
- Vulnerability to flooding will increase with urbanization. By 2025, a projected 410 million urban Asians will be at risk of coastal flooding (Asian Development Bank, 2012).
- Urban air pollution in Asia, which contributes to half a million deaths a year, is higher than in other regions (Asian Development Bank, 2012).
- By 2020, over half of the global middle class will be from Asia (Yeoman, 2012).



QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSIONS – GLOBAL AND REGIONAL LEVEL

1. Generally speaking, how do you think city tourism is performing at the moment?
2. Do you think the city experience is an important one for tourists? If yes, in what way it is important?
3. In the future, what do you think will be the key types of experiences attracting people to cities, e.g. events, nature, heritage, shopping, entertainment, education, medical etc.?
4. How would you define in terms of years as the long term?
5. What are the major factors affecting Asian city tourism in the next 20 years?
6. What are the main barriers to future growth?
7. What do you think cities in general should do to improve the delivery of these experiences?
8. Do you think tourism strategies should be a part of city government decision-making? If so, how do you think this can be achieved?
9. What is your role in the future of city tourism?
10. How city tourism can be used to improve the quality of life of the local population?

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Appendix 2: Ethics Approval

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has been removed

Appendix 3: Data Saturation of In-depth Interviews

Drivers in the past that shaped the Present: The case of Asian cities

	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10
Social drivers										
Unique culture	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Travel-for-granted mindset				●	●		●	●	●	
Human resources		●	●				●		●	
Technological drivers										
Old technology			●	●	●	●				
The Power of social media	●	●						●	●	
Economic drivers										
Rising middle class	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●
Connectivity	●	●		●					●	
Environmental drivers										
Richness in biodiversity	●	●						●	●	
Political drivers										
Priority for tourism development	●		●	●		●			●	●
Visa	●	●		●					●	●
Other secondary drivers suggested by interviewees										
Safety regulation						●				
Lacking of new investment								●		

Drivers in the past that shaped the Present: The case of Bangkok

	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
Social drivers						
Unique culture	•	•	•	•	•	•
Human resources			•			•
Perceived safety			•		•	•
Economic drivers						
Rising middle class	•				•	
Connectivity		•				•
Environmental drivers						
Pollution			•		•	•
Political drivers						
Priority for tourism development	•		•		•	•
Political instability	•			•	•	
Infrastructure	•	•		•		
Other secondary driver suggested by interviewees						
Ease of travel within the city						•

Drivers in the past that shaped the Present: The case of Hong Kong

	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	H7	H8	H9	H10	H11	H12
Social drivers												
Unique culture	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•
Travel-for-granted mindset		•				•	•	•				
Human resources				•			•	•	•	•		
Economic drivers												
Rising middle class				•	•	•				•		•
Connectivity		•			•	•	•			•	•	
Proliferation of commercial activities		•						•	•		•	•
Political drivers												
Priority for tourism development	•						•	•			•	•
Political instability			•				•	•	•			•
Infrastructure	•			•		•	•	•	•			•
Visa	•			•						•	•	•
Other secondary drivers suggested by interviewees												
Limited offering of low cost carriers	•											
Perceived safety							•	•				
Robust demand from Mainland Chinese market										•		•

Drivers that may shape the Future: The case of Asian cities

	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10
Social sustainability										
Nationalism	●			●	●			●	●	●
Human resources		●	●				●	●	●	
Economic sustainability										
ASEAN Economic Community		●	●		●			●	●	●
Infrastructure	●	●		●			●	●	●	●
Environmental sustainability										
Liveability	●	●						●	●	
Pollution			●		●		●	●		
Governance sustainability										
Against corruption	●		●	●		●			●	
Other secondary driver suggested by interviewees										
Wave of Chinese tourists						●	●			

Drivers that may shape the Future: The case of Bangkok

	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
Social sustainability						
Thainess	•	•	•	•	•	•
Human resources	•	•	•			•
Economic sustainability						
ASEAN Economic Community	•	•	•		•	•
Mobility within city		•	•	•	•	•
Environmental sustainability						
Liveability			•	•	•	•
Governance sustainability						
Against corruption	•		•		•	
Other secondary driver suggested by interviewees						
Wave of Chinese tourists		•			•	

Drivers that may shape the Future: The case of Hong Kong

	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	H7	H8	H9	H10	H11	H12
Social sustainability												
The nativism		•	•	•			•	•	•	•	•	•
Human resources		•		•		•	•	•				•
Economic sustainability												
Infrastructure				•	•	•	•			•	•	•
Cost		•			•	•	•	•		•	•	
Environmental sustainability												
Liveability	•		•				•	•			•	•
Governance sustainability												
Legitimacy	•		•			•	•	•	•		•	•
Other secondary driver suggested by interviewees												
Innovation	•											