FACTORS AFFECTING THE GROWTH OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM*

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1. INTRODUCTION

Over the last two decades international tourist arrivals rose at an annual average of 8 per cent whilst receipts from international tourism recorded an average growth of 13 per cent per annum in current terms. This is a growth rate substantially longer than most other economic activities.

The reasons for its growth rate are, in the first place, of an economic nature and are to be sought in the rise in income per capita, which has been achieved in the countries which are traditionally the "generators" of tourism, and which are at the same time, the more industrialised countries (U.S.A., West Germany, France, Japan, Canada, U.K., Italy). The most recent empirical studies, or the enquiries based on motivational research have discovered the importance of the strictly economic root of tourism, a phenomenon which continues to become more sensitive to the changes in the real income of potential tourists and also to the variations in the prices of tourist services.¹

Compared to the determining factor of income, one should not forget the complex of other elements which have influenced the growth of tourism. The post 1960 boom in tourism (domestic as well as international) has been therefore brought about by a combination of incraased wealth and awareness among consumers and the advance of technology which has served to reduce the real costs of travel.

It is patently obvious that the 13 per cent increase in the level of World trade over the last two decades has served to maintain growth in business tourism. The positive determinants of increased leisure tourism can however, be classified in terms of demand and supply.

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^{1.} E.I.U., Tourism Quarterly, No: 2, 1975.

2. Factors Affecting Demand For Tourism

2.1. Personal Disposable Income

Despite the hiccoughs craeted by the 1973/74 oil price increases and the subsequent world recession, there has been a steady rise during the last two decades in the purchasing power and discretionary incomes of the populace of almost all countries. The steady growth of real income per head has clearly been a main driving force behind the rapid expansion of travel demand. This has enabled middle and increasingly, lower income groups to spend part of their income on non-essentials such as leisure travel. The capacity, for example, to buy and run a private car, and to pay for air fares, is obviously a necessary condition for such travel to take place, although it is by no means the only important factor. Business travel too, grows as the value of the economic product rises. It suffices to say that the demand for foreign travel is very income elastic, particularly in the major tourist generating countries. There is some evidence that the national income elasticity of demand for foreign travel increases more rapidly after a certain per capitain come has been attained.2 Aggregate demand for foreign travel within a single country is clearly affected by numerous factors, some of which, but not all, are related to national income elasticity. One of the more important is income distribution. Obviously a skewed income distribution would tend to limit the proportion of the population with incomes above the level of which demand for foreign travel is financially possible. Disposable personal incomes have continued to grow in real terms throughout the world, even allowing for inflation in the post-war era. Despite fluctuations in particular countries and particular periods, personal income levels throughout the world are expected to increase steadily over the next years, therefore a greater propensity to foreign travel is predicted. The increase in incomes will mean that a larger variety of people will be in a financial position to take holidays abroad and it is probable that a new range of demands will be brought with it, thus introducing new destinations and encouraging the development of a different "tourism product".3

2.2. Leisure and Paid Holidays

The Industrial Revolution changed the nature of the work done and the seasonal variety and, leisurely progress of agricultural life was replaced by the relentless monotony of factory routins.

^{2.} H. David Davis, "Potentials for Tourism in Developing Countries", Finance and Development, Vol. 5, No: 4, December 1968, p. 36.

^{3.} The tourism product may be seen as a composite product, as an amalgam of attractions, transport, accommodation, and of entertainment.

On a weekly basis, the week worked has not shortened substantially in the last two decades and for manual workers in Britain it seems to have stabilized around forty-six hours per week.4 This includes a reasonable amount of overtime, and is true of manual workers. It may be that in the case of clerical and administrative workers, the week worked more closely approximates to the standard week; however, the general pattern seems to be that people are not prepared to work less hours unless they receive an income which will enable them to spend on their newly acquired leisure time. In a nutshell, leisure is not readily substituted for income. The effect of this seems to be that when the first employment offers a reduction in hours worked, the reduction is used by many to earn more income in a second employment, a practice sometimes called "moonlighting". The desire seems to be to secure a sufficient income so that a relatively short period of leisure can be more intensively enjoyed by increasing the money spent on each hour of leisure rather than by increasing the total amount of leisure.

On an annual basis the number of people in the industrialized countries who have an entitlement to fourteen days and more for annual holidays is increasing. A very large part of long distance travel is in the course of holidays or week-end excursions. Since 1950, holiday allowances for employees have steadily increased. In general the normal allowance has increased from two weeks to four weeks. Table I gives some statistics illustrating this point in several European countries.

TABLE I NORMAL HOLIDAY ALLOWANCES FOR INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYEES (1960-1974)

(By-country, showing entitlement in days per year)					
Country	1960	1965	1970	1974	
Belgium	17	18	18	21-23	
Denmark	18	18	18	24	
France	18	24	24	24	
Germany	12-18	15-18	16-24	20-26	
Ireland	12	12	12-18	15-18	
Italy	12	12	12-15	18-24	
Luxembourg	8–18	8-18	18-24	18-24	
Netherlands	12-15	15	15-18	19-21	
U.K.	12	12–18	12-18	15-18	

Source: E.E.C., "The Development of the Social Situation in the Community, 1974", Bruxelles - Luxembourg, March 1975.

^{4.} Burkart and Medlik, "Tourism - Past, Present and Future" Heineman, London, 1974. p. 280.

Meanwhile, weekly working hours have become shorter and this has seen the introduction of the five-day week. In 1950, it was normal to work on Saturday mornings in factories, offices and schools. By the 1970's most non-services workers in Europe were on an official forty-hour week, excluding overtime, with Saturdays and Sundays normally free. Schools had also adapted to a five-day week. The opportunities for week-end travel were thus increased.

In short, the growing power of the trade unions in general and the increased commitment of the Governments to social legislation eventually lead to granting annual holidays with pay.

2.3. Demographic Considerations

The growth of populations, changes in age distributions, and increasing urbanisation of population are all factors of importance affecting the demand for tourism. It is clear that most of international tourism takes place in Europe. It is therefore suggested that a closer look at the demographic developments of O.E.C.D. countries will prove to be the most useful at this stage. The starting point in considering the future of tourism is the size and structure of the populations of countries with a propensity to tourism.

The population of O.E.C.D. countries in 1975 was 770 million and is projected to increase by 85 million over the fifteen years to 1980. This compares with an increase of 110 million in the fifteen years 1960 to 1975. The overall situation is one of distinctly slower growth. From 1950 to 1960, population grew annually by 1.3 per cent, by 1.1 per cent from 1960 to 1970, 0.9 per cent from 1970 to 1975, and form 1975 to 1990, a growth rate of 0.7 per cent per year is anticipated.⁵

Most O.E.C.D. countries expect population to increase by 1990, but Austria, Germany, Luxembourg and Switzerland are exceptions. The fastest growth is expected in Canada, Iceland and Turkey. The only cases where growth in 1975 to 1990 is expected to be faster than in 1960 to 1975 are Greece, Iceland, and Portugal.

The working age population is expected to grow by almost 67 million from 1975 to 1990, compared with the 79 million increase in the previous fifteen years, i.e. a rate of 0.9 per cent per year for O.E.C.D. countries taken together compared with 1.2 per cent per year from 1960 to 1975. Although the general tendency is towards a slowing down, it is not universal and there are nine countries which are expected to show some acceleration over past rates of growth (Table II).

^{5.} O.E.C.D., "Demographic Trends 1950 to 1990", O.E.C.D., Paris, 1979, p. 17.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE GROWTH IN POPULATION AND POPULATION OF THOSE
OF WORKING AGE IN THE O.E.C.D. COUNTRIES (1960-1990)

	Population	Population of Working age (15–64)	Population	Population of Working age (15–64)
Country	1960–75	1960–75	1975–90	1975–90
Australia	34.0	39,4	13,4	18.2
Austria	6.7	0,2	0,0	6,9
Belgium	7.1	6,0	2,4	7,2
Canada	27,5	41,7	23,0	27,7
Denmark	10,5	10,1	3,9	5,9
Finland	6,3	15,0	4,4	4,8
France	15,4	16,6	4.6	11,0
Germany	11,2	5,1	(-) 5,5	2,2
Greece	8,6	5,5	11,2	14,1
Iceland	23,9	31,6	28,0	25,6
Ireland	10,3	10,0	18,4	24,3
Italy	11,2	7,6	5,9	8,1
Japan	18,5	25,9	14,6	12,5
Luxembourg	14,0	13,6	0,0	0,4
Netherlands	19,0	24,5	3,8	13,7
New Zealand	29,9	36,2	12,7	23,1
Norway	11,8	10,5	2,8	6,9
Portugal	3,8	2,6	17,6	16,6
Spain	17,6	13,9	15,5	14,4
Sweden	9,5	6,8	2,0	0,7
Switzerland	17,0	14,9	(-) 0,3	3,1
Turkey	45,1	45,1	39,4	51,9
U.K.	6,6	2,7	0,9	4,9
U.S.A.	18,2	27,4	14,0	15,3
Yugoslavia	15,5	20,3	12,9	15,3
Total (a)	16,7	19,1	11,1	13,7

(a) - Equivalant to a weighted average.

Source: O.E.C.D., Paris, 1979.

As the table reveals, there is a broad trend towards a rise in the proportion of the population of working age (Aged 15 to 64) to total population, as is to be expected in a period where population growth slows down. There are only five exceptions to this; Iceland, Japan, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

During the period 1960 to 1975, there were fourteen countries where the population figure of these of working age grew more slowly than the total population. The rise in the proportion of the population of working age means that the dependency ratio (the ratio of non-working to working population) will fall favouring economic growth, thus brightening the horizons for international travel and tourism.

On the other hand, the age of marriage has been steadily falling and although it is impossible to predict the changes in attitude to family size, it is clear that the control of the incidence of child births and of family size are within the grasp of each family. Absolute declines in the child population are projected far eighteen countries. This fall may make it possible to encourage couples to travel frequently and take more holidays domestically and abroad.

Although the number of working women may not change significantly, the number of working married women continues to increase, associated not only with earlier marriage, but also with their desire to get of the house and to lead a more interesting life and to travel.

2.3.1. Household Size and Structure: The growth of population leads naturally to a growth in travel demand. An important factor, however, is the way the population is divided into households, because the availability of a car usually depends on there being one in the household, and the members of the household often travel together, especially on long distances.

The average size of household in the O.E.C.D. area has been steadily declining in all countries of the area being studied, from an overall figure of 3.28 persons in 1969 to 3.09 persons in 1970.6 The declining size of the household is not due simply to a falling proportion of children or a rising proportion of old people in the household, but it is also due to changing patterns of social behaviour, but it is also due to changing patterns of social behaviour. Young people are leaving home earlier and forming their own bachelor households.

Old people are tending more and more to live seperately from their families. There are more broken homes than in previous years and all these trends may be associated with rising incomes; there is indeed a marked inverse corrolation between average household size per country and G.N.P. per head.

Hence the falling size of household reflects at least in part, changes in household structure which have an important bearing on travel behaviour.

It is known that people in small households, having no children, tend to travel much more than to people in larger households, (given the same household income).⁷

^{6.} A.C. Prognos, "Euroreport 1974", Basel, Switzerland, November 1973.

^{7.} O.E.C.D., "The Future of European Passenger Transport", Paris, 1977, Chpt. 4, pp. 121-149.

The distribution of households in terms of size has changed between 1960 and 1970 and this is shown in the table III.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS (1960–1970)

Size of Household	1960	1970	Growth %
1	13.116	18.881	44
2	23.015	27.287	19
3	20.074	22.204	11
4	17.233	18.801	9
5 +	19.154	19.349	1
All	92.592	106.522	15

Source: Euro-report 1974.

The growth of 44 per cent in single-person household, and 19 per cent in two-person households, is important since these are the types of households (even allowing for the many old people in such households) that presumably tend to travel a lot. Assuming that the changing structure of household has developed in the same direction since 1970, this may be counted as a cause of growing travel demand during the last two decades.

2.3.2. Urbanization: Another important aspect of the changing pattern of population is its concentration in urban areas. The most promising explanation of variations in tourism propensities between countries with similar living standarts lies in the degree of urbanization of the countries concerned. People living in urban areas are subject to greater social tensions and pressures than their rural counterparts. The increasing urbanization of the postwar period has highlighted the need for leisure activities and rest in a different environment. Hence the growing urbanization of the population leads to a higher demand for domestic and international tourism.

2.4. Awareness and Attitudes

Greater awereness of and interest in, foreign countries has been generated by higher education and the mass media. The marked trend throughout the world for more people to have the advantage of higher education is a significant factor in tourist development. Many travel surveys in recent years have pointed out the relationship between educational standards and the desire to travel. This in turn has led to new attitudes towards leisure travel. Once consireded a luxury, an annual holiday is now viewed as a necessity and part of the consumption pattern of all but the most unprivileged social groups. Evidence of this is provided

by a W.T.O. survey which sought to ascertain the proportion of the population who would be prepared to forego or out down on various products/services is as follows (Table IV).

TABLE IV

TEM	% of sample willing to forego/out down
Iolidays	6
lomfort	9
ood	14
ther Recreational Activities	16
ar Travel	27
lothing	28
nothing W.T.C.	

Source: W.T.O.

3. Factors Affecting the Supply of Tourism

3.1. Mobility Increased by Car-Ownership

The car is the dominant mode of transport for both business and personal travel, and the availability of a car is a powerful incentive in encouraging journeys which might otherwise not be made.

A household acquires a car in the first place for non-tourist uses; for taking the children to school, to go to work and so on. The need or desire to own a private car is thus related to a family's life-cycle stage and therefore to the family income. Carownership is evidently related to income, and is most attractive to family when their young children are relatively difficult to move around. The combination of these factors enables one to see the influence of the car on patterns of tourist demand for transport, for few people buy a car primarily for leisure or holiday purposes. They will instead, have purchased a car for general household purposes, and the fact that they own a car will be a significant factor in determining their choice of holiday and the means of transport to use.

The greater supply of mass produced motor cars has combined with rising incomes to increase substantially the level of carownership. This growth reacts with developing tourism demand in a two-way relationship of cause and effect.

There is no deed to elaborate on the great expansion of car ownership in Europe since 1950 which is mainly attributable to rising incomes and the falling (real) cost of owning and running a car. Table V shows the growth in the number of cars owned in European countries between 1950 and 1970.

TABLE V CAR-OWNERSHIP (1950–1970)

Country	Nos. 1950	of cars. Owi 1960	ned (OOOS) 1970	Car per 1950	thousand 1960	population 1970
Austria	51	381*	1,165	7	54*	157
Belgium	246	753	2,060	29	82	214
Denmark	118	408	1,077	28	89	218
France	1.520	5,444	12,035	36	120	237
Germany	601	4,489	13,963	12	81	230
Greece	n.a	40*	226	n.a	5*	26
Ireland	n.a	125*	354	n.a	44*	120
Italy	335	1.700	10.171	7	34*	189
Luxembourg	9	35*	91	30	106*	268
Netherlands	139	512	2.509	14	44	192
Portugal	n.a.	152	459	n.a.	18	52
Spain	88	272	2.350	3	8	70
Switzerland	147	536	1.380	31	100	220
Turkey in						
Europe	n.a.	10*	44	n.a.	4*	14
U.K.	2,316	5,650	11.802	41	107	213
Yugoslavia	7	35	721	0,4	2	35
TOTAL	5,650*	20.542	60,427	19	66	178

* Estimate.

Source: OECD, "The Future of European Passenger Transport", Paris, 1977, p. 48.

The number of cars increased by about eleven times and the rate of car-ownership rose from a more 19 cars per thousand and was still rising. It is the number of car-owning households, rather than the total number of cars, which is of importance, because the possession of a second (or third) car in the household is believed to have little influence on the making of long-distance journeys. Nevertheless, the future growth of car-ownership is fundamental to our study. There have been many forecasts predicting car-ownership levels in many countries, using a wide variety of methods and assumptions.

The forecasts of car-ownership made by the O.E.C.D. are shown in Table VI. The total number of cars in the study area is predicted to rise from 60.4 million in 1970 to 142.7 million in the year 2000.

Other factors have to be taken into account, but if a family use the car abroad because of its convenience and low cost, because they are at a life-cycle stage where cost and convenience matter, they will not be able to do more than visit nearer destinations.

TABLE VI CAR-OWNERSHIP 1970-1985 2000 (Projections in millions).

Country	1970	1985	2000
Austria	11.65	2.424	2.755
Belgium	2.060	3.378	4.088
Denmark	1.077	1.722	2.087
France	12.035	19.779	23.960
Germany	13.963	19.899	22.895
Greece	0.226	2.206	3.417
Ireland	0.354	1.032	1.630
Italy	10.171	18.425	23.305
Luxemburg	0.91	0.122	0.144
Netherlands	2.509	4.723	6.089
Portugal	0.459	2.930	3.933
Spain	2.350	10.998	15.260
Switzerland	1.380	2.271	2.746
Turkey	0.044	0.625	1.590
U.K.	11.802	19.470	23.760
Yugoslavia	0.721	2.784	5.120
TOTAL	60.407	112.788	142.725

Source: OECD. "The Future of European Passanger Transport", Paris, 1977, p.48.

The British experience as an island is not entirely typical, however; Germany is a country with which it is useful to make a comparison. It has a common frontier with Austria and with Switzerland and France, and thanks to the major road networks, Italy can be easily reached. The bulk of German tourists travel by car to these countries, especially to Austria. As the distance increases so the car passenger yields to the airline passenger. In the other hand, it is known fact that the private car has facilitated camping and caravanning to a considerable extent.

3.2. Reducing the Real Cost of Travel

The two major cost elements in a trip abroad are the transport changes to and expenditures in the destination country. Since transport costs constitute a high proportion of the total cost of a trip, trends in transport are of great significance for long-distance travel.

In the decade prior to 1974, modern transport technology, especially in aviation, served significantly to reduce both the cost of, and time required for travel.

While listed air fares on scheduled airlines have declined somewhat over the years, major price reductions have been selectively effected by means of special excursion, inclusive tour, and group rates the socalled "creative fares". These are designed to reach only that segment of the market, primarily the vacation travellers, which is highly price sensitive while higher fares for non-discretionary travel are maintained. In last years, the strong system of fare fixing operated by the International Air Transport Association (I.A.T.A.) and the largely protectionist system of route allocation determined by the civil aviation authorities of the countries concerned have started to be broken down. This liberalisation has encouraged more and more non-scheduled services and a greater range of low, special condition fares on certain routes (e.g. North Atlantic).

The U.S. Airline Industry has always made innovations and many of the developments which make life cheaper or more convenient for the air passenger have begun there, and percolated eventually through to the air-travel systems in other parts of the world. Examples include such benefits as kerb-side check-in to avoid congestion; walk-on "no reservations" shuttle systems, such as those introduced by Eastern Airlines between New York and Boston and Washington several years ago and subsequently copied by British Airways.8

More recently, the biggest new development has been "de-regulation"- allowing for greater freedom of entry for airlines on domestic routes thereby stimulating competition and resulting in a substantial reduction in fares. This development has been watched with increasing interest in Western Europe, where there has been considerable pressure to emulate it.

3.3. Facilities, Amenities and Promotion

Tourism facilites do not consist only of accommodation like hotels and boarding houses. They include also recreational and sports facilities of great variety and, of course, all the necessary infrastructire such as transportation and utilities, which enable the tourist to move around during his stay.

The composition of superstructure, mainly accommodation, has undergone considerable changes in the last two decades. New types of accommodation particularly holiday villages suitable for families, apartments, private villas and camping facilities, have proved successful and to some degree are replacing traditional hotels and boarding houses. These changes in the supply of tourism reflect changes in demand, with new, often younger, groups entering the international travel market.

^{8.} Financial Times Survey, "U.S. Travel and Tourism", November 9th 1979,p. 36.

By the end of the 1960's, most governments had recognised the importance of tourism as an element in world trade and local and regional governments also began to consider afresh the desirability or otherwise of attracting tourists to their areas. The degree of attention paid to tourism varied with the state of development achieved so far, the older resorts being concerned with modernizing their attractions and areas not yet recognisable as resorts, asking how they might become such. Further the existence of relatively affluent tourists with leisure and the money to spend on it, attracted entrepreneurs to develop new facilities and amenities.

These recent and dramatic changes in the supply of international tourism are attributable to the vigorous growth of the demand for inclusive tours and to the emergence of a tour operating industry.

The principal feature of the inclusive tour in this context, is that the tourist may buy for a single price, a holiday much cheaper than would be attainable by the holiday-maker if he bought the components of his holiday individually directly or from a retail travel agent. The low price of the package holiday or inclusive tour is made possible by the air travel by reason of the lower unit costs obtainable both for the air travel and hotel stay, when the tour operator enters into long-term contracts for airline seats and hotel beds.

By the simple device of operators making block bookings of hotel beds and airline seats, organising all the transfers to and from the foreign airport and marketing the package in attractive sales brochure, they were able to offer overseas holidays at unheard of prices. The mixture was a huge success and by the midsixties scores of tour operators had mushroomed to meet this young and rapidly growing market.⁹

To perform his function of creating holiday packages, the tour operator needs considerable financial strength and the large tour operators are frequently owned or backed by large companies or groups with interests in many other industries apart from that of travel. Unlike the travel agent, the tour operator is a genuine manufacturer of a new kind of tourist product, but he is also a marketing man.

In short, the development of new tourism facilities and amenities, their promotion in tourist generating markets and the new form of travel and methods of selling it have combined to boost holiday demand.

It is believed that all of these factors will continue to apply over the coming decades, although the reduction in the real costs of t avel may be approaching the limit.

^{9.} G. Lancaster, "The Package Holiday Market is Changing but still Competitive", Advertising and Marketing, Autumn 1979, p. 40.

4. CONCLUSION

What is important about all these factors affecting the demand for and supply of international tourism is that they are becoming increasingly significant. National and personal income levels, paid holiday entitlements and amount of leisure time, education and accupation levels are constantly rising. Awareness and attitudes are rapidly changing and facilities, amenities, mobility and marketing activities developing and as they do so, the demand for tourism and consequently the number of tourists increase.

Throughout the history of man, the demand for travel has grown as the time and money for it became available. Over the next two decades, there is every indication of time and money becoming more available. Travel has now assumed such a place in our way of life that the mere removal of advertising would not significantly affect the volume of travel-through it might affect its distrubition.

Research in many countries has shown the close and lasting relationship between the socio-economic characteristics mentioned above and the desire to travel, and there are no reasons whatsoever for believing that this relationship is going to break down in the next decade or so. The rate of growth of international tourism over the next decade is forecast by Edwards.¹⁰ at 7.3 per cent between 1980 and 1985, and 6.7 per cent between 1985 and 1990.

ABSTRACT

Over the last two decades international tourism has grown more than most other economic activities. The reasons for its growth rate are, in the first place, of an economic nature and can be classified in terms of demand and supply.

Factors affecting the demand for tourism are mainly personel disposable income, leisure and paid holidays and, demographic considerations.

On the other hand, mobility increased by car-ownership, reducing the real cost of travel and other increased facilities, amenities, and promotion are the positive determinants of the supply of tourism.

Research in many countries has shown that this growth rate will continue despite the hiccoughs created by the World recession which occures from time to time.

^{10.} A. Edwards "International Tourism Development Special Forecasts to 1990", International Tourism Quarterly, E.I.U., April 1979.

ÖZET

Son yirmi yılda uluslararası turizm diğer birçok ekonomik faaliyetlerden daha fazla arttı. Bu büyümedeki sebepler, herşeyden önce, ekonomik içerikli olup talep ve arza dayanarak sınıflandırılabilir.

Turizme olan talebi etkileyen başlıca faktörleri; harcanabilir kişisel gelir, boş zamanlar ve ücretli tatiller ile demografik özellikler olarak sıralayabiliriz.

Diğer taraftan, otomobil sahipliği ile artan hareket kabiliyeti, seyahat ve çoğalan diğer imkânların gerçek maliyetlerindeki azalmalar, konfor ve reklam ile diğer tanıtıcı çabalar da arzı olumlu yönde tayin eden faktörlerdir.

Birçok ülkedeki araştırmalar, turizmdeki bu büyüme oranının, Dünya'da zaman zaman ortaya çıkan durgunluğun sebep olduğu engellemelere rağmen, devam edeceğini göstermektedir.

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