
A Survey on Importance of Urban Resources for Tourism Attractions

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ABSTRACT

Urban tourism is tourism that takes place in towns and cities where the historic heritage is not the main attraction, even though the settlement may have some buildings pre-dating the industrial revolution. Urban tourism includes a wide range of activities and experiences from sightseeing, visiting cultural attractions (e.g. art galleries, concerts, opera, shows, museums etc), attending special events, leisure shopping, eating out and drinking, meeting people (e.g. friends and relatives), dancing and so on. Different visitors will select different combinations of these activities. Business tourism is another equally important element of urban tourism. These activities are mainly based on manmade resources, facilities that are used for recreation by urban residents as well tourists. Because of this difficulty of separating leisure use from tourist use, there has been relatively little research on urban tourism, although much policy and planning effort has been put into promoting and developing urban tourism in recent years. This has been because many urban planners and politicians have perceived the development of tourism to be a mechanism for the regeneration of declining inner city areas. Both cultural policy and tourism development (with its associated job creation potential) have been used as tools to solve some of these urban development problems. So, once again, tourism policy must be seen in the context of other social and economic problems and policies. This chapter will start by identifying the urban tourist (as far as current research allows) and their motivation and behavior. The paper discusses the spatial location of that tourist activity (as it differs from the tourist-historic city). This will be put in the context of patterns of urban change since 1990; the impacts of tourism and the policies for urban tourism will also be described.

Keywords: Urban Tourism, Development, Urban Resources, Tourism Policies.

Introduction

The urban tourist and the market for urban tourism

The urban tourist is someone who lives outside a town or city but travels to that city for leisure purposes (they may be resident in the country or more likely in another town or city). A strict definition of tourism would confine the definition only to those who spend at least one night staying in the destination city. They may stay in tourist accommodation, or with friends or relatives. Many people would think of day visitors as tourists too. This would distinguish the 'tourist' from the city's residents who travel into the center of their own town for leisure purposes (Le. recreationists as opposed to tourists), and from those residents who use the 'tourist' facilities incidentally as part of a visit to the city center that is mainly for other purposes (e.g. functional shopping, work, business etc). Little research has been done on the distinction between the urban tourist and urban recreationist. Surveys between 1982 and 1985 of several Dutch cities (Devanter, Kampen, Zwolle, S'Hertogenbosch and Dordrecht) (Jansen-Verbeker, 1986) suggest that on an average day one third of visitors came from beyond the city region and could be defined as tourists. More recent survey data from the UK confirms this finding: in provincial British cities between a quarter and a third of all visitors came from outside the local region (Law, 1992). They tended to be relatively infrequent visitors: 60 percent said they came less than once in three months, more were men, and young people were relatively better represented in the tourist population. Families with children were less likely to visit cities as tourists, while slightly more tourists were highly educated than the recreationist, non-tourist visitor. Tourists

tended to stay in the city center longer than other visitors and spent more than recreationists (particularly in pubs, bars and restaurants). According to Jansen-Verbeker the motivations of tourists and recreationists also differ. The tourist comes to the city primarily for 'a day out' (29 percent of the sample of tourists in Dutch towns put this as the main reason for the visit), followed by shopping, professional motivations and visiting family and friends. Only 9 percent of the tourists came primarily for sightseeing, and only 1 percent mainly to visit museums, although 26 percent of the tourists did actually go sightseeing and 10 percent visited a museum. However, the most frequent tourist activities were eating out, walking around and shopping (with 50 percent or more of the sample participating in each activity). The recreationist visits the city centre specifically for shopping and eating out.

Materials and Methods

Location of tourism within the city

Jansen-Verbeker makes the distinction between the 'primary', 'secondary' and 'conditional' elements of the inner city as a tourist product. The primary elements attract the tourists and consist of:

The leisure setting

(a) The pleasant environment of the city centre which is made up of attractive architecture and interesting street patterns, squares, art objects, parks and green spaces, the industrial heritage, canals, rivers and harbours, historic features which add small-scale diversity. These characteristics may be spread throughout the city but Chapter 11 suggests that the oldest and most historic features will be near the city centre.

(b) The socio cultural setting which includes' the language, local customs, way of life and general liveliness of the city. This will be concentrated where the natives of the city congregate. The most intensive commercial cultural and leisure activity of any city tends to be concentrated in and around its CBD. These two sets of characteristics (the physical and socio-cultural settings) are free to the tourist, or publicly provided for citizen and tourist alike.

The activity place

These are the buildings or facilities in which particular tourist-activities (i.e. cultural and entertainment activities) take place. They include theatres, museums, galleries, cinemas, casinos, bingo halls and so on. Some are publicly provided and some are commercial. In the past there has been a tradition of free access to public cultural facilities but in the UK this is now increasingly being replaced by a more commercial style of management. These facilities again tend to be clustered in or near the CBD, sometimes in 'cultural districts' adjacent to the CBD.

Secondary elements

These are not the main features attracting tourists to the city but are essential components of the tourist visit. They include all forms of catering facilities as well as a diverse range of shopping facilities (from specialist shops to malls and outdoor street markets). They are provided entirely by the commercial sector. Regular restaurants tend to be concentrated in the CBD while other food outlets (e.g. fast food, pizza parlours etc.) are scattered more widely through the urban area (Smith, 1983).

Conditional elements

These are the parts of the tourist infrastructure that are necessary before the primary and secondary elements can be utilized. The conditional elements therefore include accessibility; parking facilities, sign posts and tourist information services. The information services may be located at transport nodes encircling the inner city (e.g. bus and railway stations, Park and ride car parks, etc.), but otherwise these services tend to be located as close as possible to the main tourist resources in the inner city.

It should be noted that tourist accommodation is the one service that tends to be concentrated in clusters in critical locations throughout the city, but generally outside the central area apart from the historical resources, all these tourist resources are modern and manmade, so their location depends on man's contemporary economic, social and political decision making (Getz, 1993). It has been noted that many urban tourist functions are located in and around the CBD as a result of cumulative economic decision making (Smith notes that some businesses have their own confidential definitions of ideal locations that presumably maximize sales). The evolution and development of new tourist quarters in the inner city involve the creation of new resources and this is generally the outcome of public policy-making.

Results

Impacts of Urban Tourist Developments

Studies of the impacts of urban tourism can be of four different types:

1. Studies of economic impacts of tourism in general (i.e. the capacity of tourism to generate jobs, the costs of generating tourism jobs, the income produced, its distribution and the scale of the multiplier

effect). There have been many academic and policy related studies of this type (Pearce, 1989).

2. Policy orientated studies of the particular specific impact of individual tourist developments (or types of development) mainly in terms of their economic impact, their ability to attract tourists and their impact on a city's image. Studies of this type have been carried out on attractions, conventions and conference centers, the arts, sport, special events and museums (Law, 1992). However, from the discussion above it is clear that it is very difficult to separate out one element from the range of attractions and facilities used by the urban tourist.

3. Academic studies of the social impact of tourism on the city's residents, for example, on their perception of tourism and their attitudes to it.

4. Studies of the environmental impact of urban tourism developments.

The economic impacts of tourism

Tourists' impact on local economies is made via the money they spend in the tourist destination (in this case, the city). The money they spend (for example, in a shop or hotel) is used to pay the hotel or shop staff, to buy supplies and so on. This money is 're-spent' by others (i.e. the hotel and shop staff, the business' suppliers etc). This responding of money (which creates additional incomes to others) is called the 'multiplier effect'. The tourist multiplier can be defined as 'the number by which initial tourist expenditure must be multiplied in order to obtain the total cumulative income effect for a specified period (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). These multipliers are generally calculated according to the type of accommodation used by each type of tourist. The main relevance for urban tourism is that hotel and guesthouse guests generate amongst

the highest multipliers (and therefore benefit the local economy most), while day trippers and those visiting friends and relatives generate much lower levels of multipliers and income generated. In terms of job creation, many studies confirm that tourism (particularly urban tourism) generates mainly female, low paid, part-time and non-union work. However, it is less frequently seasonal in the urban context, for example, only 12 percent of the jobs created by tourism in Merseyside in 1989 (a total of 5500 jobs) were seasonal, but 49 percent were part-time female jobs and only 17 percent were for full-time males (Vaughan, 1990).

The impacts of specific types of tourist attractions or facilities

The results of these studies are difficult to compare; the different methods of calculating economic and job impacts make different assumptions and do not necessarily provide comparable data. A common theme is that in the UK many such developments are publicly grant-aided and are subsidized and many run at a financial loss. But the estimates of their ability to attract new tourists to a city, combined with their job creation and wider economic multiplier effects, justify their development, even though these estimates may be rather general. It is claimed, for example, that conference and convention facilities attract delegates who spend two and a half times per day more than the average tourist. In Florida, USA, the city of Orlando attracted 1.67 million conference delegates in 1989, who contributed \$1.044 billion to the local economy. Braun (1992) traces the multiplier effects of this spending throughout the different sectors of the local economy. The impact in the leading US convention cities (New York, Dallas and Chicago - each with over 2 million

convention attendances) would be correspondingly greater. The jobs directly created by each facility is quite small (e.g. 125 jobs in the Birmingham National Exhibition Centre, and 62 in Manchester's GMEX), but it is maintained that the total job impact is many times greater (over 2000 in Birmingham). The arts and sports events also have measurable economic impacts (Myerscough, 1988) and do attract tourists; it is estimated that 37-40 per cent of theatre audiences are tourists and many tour operators make block bookings of successful West End musical shows to sell as part of short break London packages. Particular arts and sporting 'hallmark' events are also significant: the Edinburgh Festival attracted 600000 visitors to the city in the late 1990s, while Australia's defense of the Americas Cup yacht race (1996-7) attracted an additional 700000 international tourists to the country. Adelaide's Grand Prix, although run at an operating loss of Aus \$1-2.6 million, brought in an extra \$20m to South Australia (Burgan and Mules, 1992). However, the event did not directly generate extra employment only overtime for those already in jobs. Many other types of development have been studied (e.g. museums by Johnson and Thomas, 1992, and a range of inner city facilities by the Polytechnic of Central London, 1990). It is clear, however, that hallmark events and arts/cultural tourist facilities have a significant impact on non-residents' perception of a city. The 1988 Winter Olympics in Calgary dramatically increased levels of awareness of the venue both in the USA and Europe and changed the image of the city. But this awareness gradually declines after the event (Ritchie and Smith, 1991). Permanent new arts and sports facilities in a city may particularly influence businesses in their choice of business location. A combination of special

events and new facilities appear to have good effects, for example in Glasgow, where the development and promotion of new facilities along with arts and special events led to its designation as European City of Culture in 1990, which has significantly changed its image from a negative perception of violence, slums and dereliction to a cultural city that is an attractive tourist destination (Hughes and Boyle, 1992).

The social impacts of urban tourism and attitudes of residents to the impacts of tourism development

Many studies of the impact of tourism on residents have been carried out in small rural settlements, coastal resorts, or where there is a significant cultural difference between tourist and resident. These studies (as summarized by Pearce, 1989) suggest a variety of reactions to tourism, some positive and some negative, for example, in some cases those who had business links with tourism showed a more positive attitude than other residents and some negative responses declined with distance between the tourist zone and home area etc. However, these studies have been carried out in locations where 'the tourist' is reasonably easy to identify and residents can target their feelings towards a visible and identifiable group of people. This is much more difficult in the urban context, as 'the tourist' is less easy to identify: many big cities have resident communities from different ethnic and overseas and non-locals may come to cities for poses besides recreational tourism, while in cities (except the historic towns), the tourists be overwhelmingly outnumbered by residents. In the city Centre. In the urban context it is perhaps more likely that local attitudes to tourism will be voiced in the political arena in terms of support or opposition to the

creation of new urban images' and the allocation of resources to tourism development rather than being directed at the tourists themselves (e.g. Hughes and Boyle, 1992, Critcher, 1992, Menzies, 1992). Where specific attitude surveys of urban residents have been carried out, they tend to concentrate again on attitudes to development and 'tourism' in general, rather than to the tourists. Such studies have been completed in Liverpool, Manchester and Chepstow (Polytechnic of Central London, 1990 and Jackson and Bruce, 1992). They have shown a generally favorable local attitude both to specific projects and to tourism in general.

Studies of the physical impacts of particular tourism developments

These studies tend to concentrate on the statistics of tourist developments, their impact on the city's circulation system (for example traffic, pedestrian crowding) and the nuisance effects (for example noise, litter, crime) associated with urban tourism. The Polytechnic of Central London (1990) studied 20 grant-aided urban tourism developments (ranging from Manchester's GMEX exhibition hall, to urban industrial museums, sports facilities, waterfront redevelopments and tourist accommodation). These schemes resulted in the reclamation of a total of 40 hectares of derelict land and refurbishment of 85,700 sq. meters of buildings. In other countries, examples include the redevelopment of a 25-acre area plighted by urban decay into a cultural district in midtown Boston (with 10 theatres, 8 new galleries and a total of 400,000 sq. feet of art space being built or renovated). Dockland redevelopment schemes cover much larger areas of over 200 acres (e.g. Baltimore, Bristol, and London). Such surveys are often linked to

statistics of the number of tourists drawn to the new developments.

Policies for Urban Tourism

The resources for urban tourism are all manmade and many are provided by the public sector, e.g. Jansen-Verbeker's primary element' of the urban tourist resource (the physical leisure setting and the activity places) and the conditional elements (the transport, parking, information services etc.). The development of urban tourism in the major cities (at least those that lack an extensive medieval historic core) is less likely to be demand-led and is less likely to evolve gradually as tourism use grows. The growth of urban tourism depends more on the conscious policy decisions of the public authorities in cities to create and promote new tourist resources. This normally involves very large public investments in a fairly high risk industry. Nevertheless, many cities in the westernized world (particularly in the UK and the USA) have taken this course. Public expenditure by local authorities on tourist developments can never be justified on the grounds of providing a public service (as public expenditure on leisure facilities might be) because, by definition, the tourism service is provided primarily for the residents of another city and not for the local residents who are paying for it. The public investment must be justified in terms of benefits to the local population. Thus, the decision by a city to invest in tourist attractions and infrastructure is bound up with other aspects of urban planning policy: tourism is seen mainly as a solution to other urban problems and not as an isolated issue.

Urban Change and Tourism Policies

As cities grow older, their economic and physical structure changes, leading to

social, physical and economic problems. Tourism development is sometimes proposed as part of the solution to these problems. In the older cities of the industrialized western countries these problems include the following:

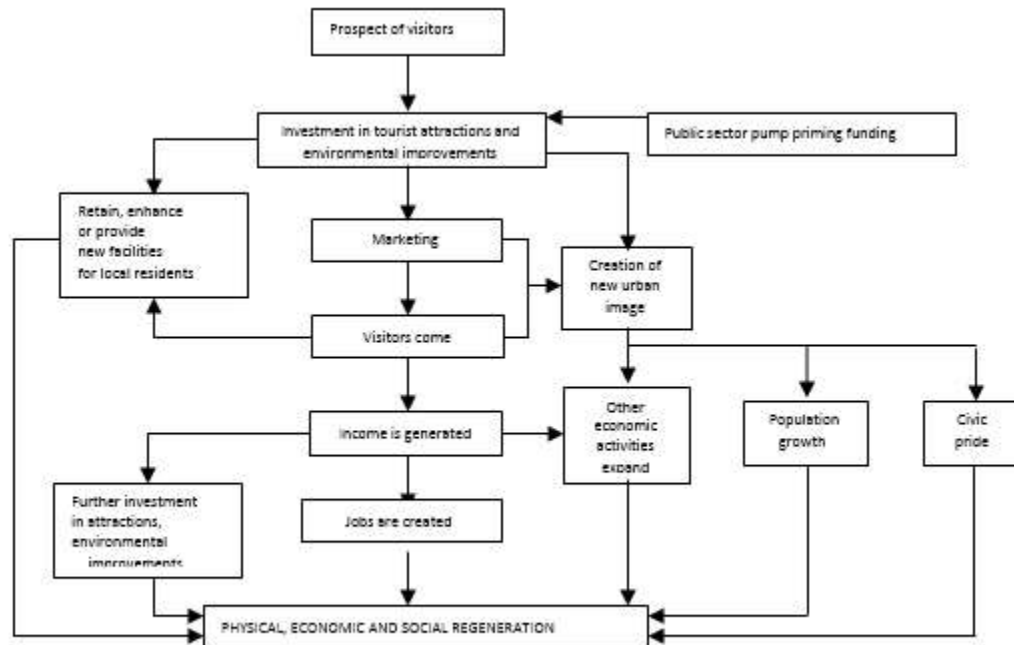
1. The closure of old industrial manufacturing, warehouse and transport businesses (de-industrialization). Some industries relocate (in new premises using new processes), either to other places in the city, or to other regions of the country, or they may even migrate to another part of the world in search of cheaper labor. This leads to a reduced demand for labor in the old city: in Manchester jobs fell from 365000 in 1991 to 299000 in 2011, while Sheffield lost 75000 manufacturing jobs between 1991 and 2011.
2. The lack of new job opportunities leads to increased unemployment of blue collar workers (particularly concentrated in the inner city). In the early 2000s, white collar workers have also faced redundancy and unemployment. In Manchester in 2001 there were 27000 looking for work, while in Sheffield unemployment averaged 14 percent, in some parts of the inner city it reached 25 percent.
3. Migration of population away from the inner city, leading to a declining population (e.g. Manchester's inner city population fell from 620000 in 1951 to 297000 in 2001). These changes combine to create some large areas of dereliction in the inner city (e.g. old industrial areas, docks etc.) which coincide with pockets of social disadvantage. The 'inner city' here is defined 'as the ring of oldest urban development surrounding the CBD and the old historic center (if one exists). This zone also includes the oldest housing of the city; some housing may have been restored, conserved and 'gentrified' and occupied by the middle class, but it frequently remains poorly maintained and showing

the characteristics of urban decay. Other parts of the inner city zone consist of old industrial premises often dating from the heyday of western industrial production (for example, the Victorian period). The spatial coincidence of physical dereliction with pockets of social problems defines certain inner city areas as 'problem areas' to which public authorities are expected to respond. Programmers for 'urban regeneration' supported by both local and central government have been set up to tackle these problems; the aims include fostering enterprise and business activities in order to provide new job opportunities, improving housing and solving inner city social problems, improving the image of the city as a whole and the physical environment of the inner city in particular by reusing old buildings and redeveloping derelict sites. It was assumed that improving the city's image was critical in attracting new business, enterprise back into the city.

The promotion of tourism, perceived to be a major growth industry, particularly in the 1980s, was just one way of achieving some of these objectives. Law (1992) has summarized in Fig.1 the processes by which urban politicians and planners expected tourism to contribute to urban regeneration. Different cities have selected different aspects of tourism as the focus of their development, for example Birmingham has concentrated on attracting the business tourist by investing in exhibition and conference centers and by capitalizing on its location and transport links. Merseyside (in the Albert Dock development) has combined some cultural attractions with tourist shopping and business accommodation, while Manchester has combined conference tourism with cultural and urban heritage attractions. Other cities, for example Sheffield and Glasgow have focused their

tourism around sporting and cultural hallmark events with varying success. Bradford has also shown how imaginative promotion and marketing of existing attractions and the focusing on a very

specific section of the market (in this case short breaks) can be effective even without massive public investment in new facilities.



Source: After Law, 1992

Generally these developments were financed with substantial public expenditure, e.g. in Manchester about £140 million was spent on tourism capital projects in the 2000s. Many developments were joint private and public sector partnerships, with the private sector recouping their costs from the sale of housing and the renting of shop and office space in combined tourist and commercial developments. The various dockland and waterside redevelopment schemes were among the most ambitious, often managed by specially constituted Development Corporations, e.g. the London Dockland Development Corporation that is responsible for 20 km² of the redundant docks; and in the Darling Harbour development –for instant- in Sydney (on a 54 hectare site) is managed by the Darling

Harbour Authority and its total development cost was Aus \$2 billion. These large scale schemes flourished in the 1990s, such developments are easier to initiate and finance in periods when property prices are rising and economic confidence is high. There is no doubt that these developments have led to the physical rehabilitation of many hitherto derelict areas, transforming desolate urban landscapes into pleasant and attractive environments. The most successful have been in the areas of the inner city located close to the existing tourist city, i.e. close to those parts of the CBD that already provide many tourist attractions and services. Many of these developments now attract impressive numbers of tourists, for example Darling Harbour receives 20 million visitors a year, Albert Dock received three million in

2007, while the Granada Studios Tour in Manchester's Castle field Urban Heritage Park attracted over half a million visitors. Jobs have been created (e.g. 900 in Albert Dock in the late 2000s, and an estimated 2500 in all of Manchester's inner city hotels and attractions), but this research has quoted evidence that the majority of jobs do not match the skills of the urban residents made redundant by the closure of industry. The cost per job (in terms of public money) is high, probably much higher than for other job-creating initiatives (Vaughan, 1990). Law (1990) concludes that for Manchester: 'tourism has so far only made a small contribution to urban regeneration in the inner city, both compared to other sectors and in relation to the needs of the area'. It has even been suggested that many local authorities have turned to tourism as a last resort, in the face of falling employment and a failure to attract 'high tech' industries (Hudson and Townsend, 1992). None of these newly created tourist districts have really been in existence long enough to assess whether or not their popularity with the tourist will decline; the application of the destination and product life cycle model would suggest that continued marketing, updating and replacing or renewing of attractions will be necessary to maintain their viability. Studies of theme parks and open-air museums certainly suggest the life cycle model is applicable to this type' of attraction. It has also been suggested (Huxley, 1991) that the proliferation of developments (particularly those that are not based on existing local culture or heritage) may reduce their attraction in the long' run; the fact that the same multinational companies are involved in numerous developments in different parts of the world may lead to too great a repetition and duplication of a successful

formula. In the end this may make the tourist quarters of the big cities too much alike and so reduce the essential 'uniqueness' of the tourist destination.

Conclusion

Urban tourist facilities fulfill the dual function of providing for the city's day-to-day leisure needs as well as for tourists, it is difficult to isolate the impacts attributable to tourism alone. Cities are multi-functional settlements and their development, growth and decay are not tied to the cycle of tourism development. Therefore, cities do not show the same characteristic pattern of cyclical tourism development as other destinations where tourism is a more significant land use and dominant economic' activity. However, urban tourism policies are similar to those in other destinations in so far as tourism development is seen as a way of solving other (non-tourism related) social, economic and land use problems.

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