ESPON
EUROPEAN SPATIAL PLANNING OBSERVATION NETWORK

First Interim Report, project 1.4.5: Preparatory Study of Spatially Relevant Aspects of Tourism

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This report is developed in a partnership between:

- EuroFutures, Stockholm, Sweden
- Centre for Regional and Tourism Research, Bornholm, Denmark
- World Tourism Organisation, Madrid, Spain
- Universidad de les Illes Baleares, Mallorca, Spain
- Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien, Vienna, Austria
- Norwegian Institute for Urban and Regional Research, Oslo, Norway

ESPON project 1.4.5
First Interim Report

Preparatory Study of Spatially Relevant Aspects of Tourism

This report represents preliminary results of a research project conducted within the framework of the ESPON 2000-2006 programme, partly financed through the INTERREG programme.

The partnership behind the ESPON programme consists of the EU Commission and the Member States of the EU25, plus Norway and Switzerland. Each partner is represented in the ESPON Monitoring Committee.

This report does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the members of the Monitoring Committee.

Information on the ESPON programme and projects can be found on www.espon.eu.

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Foreword

This first interim report (FIR) includes the preliminary results of the project *Preparatory Study of Spatially Relevant Aspects of Tourism* within the ESPON Programme 2000-2006.

More information about the ESPON programme and the project available on the ESPON website www.espon.eu.

This is a pilot project. We are going to clarify what tourism *is* in a regional context and assess possible data sources for an analysis of *where* in Europe different kinds of tourism is most important and which spatial impacts tourism may have in those locations.

The end-product of this work will be Terms of Reference for a "normal" project under the ESPON 2 programme. The draft final report is due at 31 October 2006.

The project is co-ordinated by EuroFutures. The members of the transnational project group (TPG) include:

- EuroFutures: Hallgeir Aalbu.
- Centre for Regional and Tourism Research (CRT): Peter Billing and Dimitri Ioannides.
- World Tourism Organisation (WTO): Antonio Massieu and Jens Friis Jensen.
- Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien: Josef A. Mazanec and Karl Wöber.
- Universidad de les Illes Baleares: Eugeni Aguiló Pérez.
- Norwegian Institute for Urban and Regional Research: Olaf Foss.

EuroFutures, CRT and WTO were responsible for the editing of this First Interim Report. Chapter 8.3 – *Case Denmark: National and Regional Tourism Trends* – is based on a contribution by Jie Zhang from the Institute of Local Government Studies, Denmark and Bjarne Madsen from the School of Economics and Finance, University of St. Andrews, Scotland.

The Final Report will include all results from the study, including the sections missing or poorly developed in this interim report.

Stockholm, 31 May 2006

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PART 1 - SUMMARY

1 Executive Summary: Key messages and findings

1.1 The aims of this study

Like in all parts of the world, tourism is rapidly emerging as one of the key sectors of the economy in a variety of European contexts. It has long been the major engine of economic growth in alpine and other mountainous settlements, cross-border regions, coastal and insular regions, but also cities of varying sizes. The tourism sector has been credited with creating numerous jobs (directly and indirectly) and many observers believe it generates a significant income multiplier.

Unfortunately, despite the obvious benefits associated with the sector there are also numerous negative impacts. The latter have led critics to question the value of tourism as a tool for economic development. Some academics have also argued that government officials and industry representatives regularly exaggerate the positive impacts of tourism in order to boost the sector's image (even though their statements are based more on opinion rather than rigorous analysis).

Additionally, it is obvious that despite a huge volume of academic research on the topic there remains a lack of clear consensus as to what the real benefits or downsides of tourism are. A major problem has always been that it is hard to define what tourism really is and how to measure it.

The ultimate purpose of this pre-study is to develop meaningful research objectives regarding the tourism sector in a variety of environments throughout the ESPON space and to propose a realistic future project that may support effective policymaking.

The final report will include a description of tourism flows and their regional importance, a typology of destinations and draft Terms of Reference for a future ESPON 2 project on the spatial impacts of tourism.

1.2 Definitions of tourism

There is no readily agreed upon definition for tourism. After all, tourism cannot easily be categorized as an activity. It is not an industry in the same manner as, for example, the automobile sector, since there is no single identifiable commodity produced. In addition to its economic aspects,

tourism involves spatial, environmental, societal/cultural, and political dimensions. Then there is the problematic issue of not being able to easily disaggregate the consumer (tourist) from the industry itself; after all, for tourism to occur the consumers have to be actively involved in the production of touristic experiences.

To deal with these issues the World Tourism Organization has issued guidelines for classifying travelers and tourists. These differentiate, for example, between tourists and non-tourist travelers like migrants and commuters. Tourists can be further divided into domestic and international tourists and then each of these categories can be further subdivided according to purpose of travel including things like visiting friends and relatives, business travel, and pleasure.

Another way to look at definitions of tourism is by differentiating between demand (the consumer) and supply (the industry). On the demand side rest the consumers, the tourists themselves, whereas on the supply-side lies the tourist production system, the ensemble of businesses and activities that make tourism possible.

There are a number of ways to typologize destinations. A simple one is by describing the character of the host destination (e.g., urban, rural, seaside, mountain resort, and so on. Note that these categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive). Yet another way to describe tourist destinations is through the nature of the tourists they attract (e.g., mass tourist destination, alternative tourist destination, and so on).

It is also possible to describe various destinations according to the main attraction. So, for instance, there can be different types of urban destinations such as historic-cities, business-oriented destinations, religious pilgrimage sites, festival sites and so on; again, these activities are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

One way that destinations are characterised by UNWTO is the following: Coastal Zones, Beach Destinations and sites, Small Islands, Mountain Destinations, Natural and sensitive Ecological Sites, Ecotourism Destinations, Parks and protected areas, Communities within or Adjacent to Protected Areas, Trails and Routes, Built Heritage Sites, Small and Traditional Communities, Urban Tourism, Conventions and Convention Centres, Communities seeking tourism development, Theme Parks, Water Parks and Cruise Ships and their destinations.

Ultimately, it is important to convey that tourism has to be viewed in a holistic manner as a system. From the demand perspective one has to look at the very least at the diversity of traveler preferences and motivations. From the supply perspective there is the immense collection of businesses

but also public or semi-public entities that combine their activities to shape the tourist experience.

To develop clear and consistent policies, which address tourism's impacts at the local and regional level throughout the EU requires the development of a consistent definition of tourism, both as a phenomenon but also as an economic activity. A fundamental problem at the moment is that different countries report tourism-related indicators in different ways, which makes it very hard, among others, to undertake comparative studies.

In view of the need to agree on a definition that

- is consistent
- is developed in order to ensure international comparability
- allows for the macroeconomic analysis of tourism
- allows countries/regions to apply the tourism concept to its own specifications,

the UNWTO/United Nations recommended definition of tourism is proposed to serve as the basic reference for this report:

> *"Activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".*

Although in geographical and institutional terms a tourism destination may correspond to an entire region, more often than not it is a sub regional territory (which may be a municipality or group of municipalities) with appreciable tourism activity.

For the purpose of this study, an approach limited to two territorial levels is recommended:

1) The region, identified as the administrative unit corresponding to the first level of territorial disaggregation of a country in terms of its political and administrative organization (NUTS 2).
2) The tourism destination treated as a sub regional territory, which may correspond to a single municipality or group of municipalities with substantial tourism activity. This would then be the most disaggregated territorial administrative unit on which it would be possible to structure an entire set of statistical information – however limited to those countries where municipal data are available.

The UNWTO has identified a list of tourism characteristic activities/industries as follows:

1. Hotels and similar

2. Second home ownership
3. Restaurants and similar
4. Railway passenger transport services
5. Road passenger transport services
6. Water passenger transport services
7. Air passenger transport services
8. Transport supporting services
9. Transport equipment rental
10. Travel agencies and similar
11. Cultural Services
12. Sporting and other recreational services

These categories define 12 tourism industries following the International Standard Industrial classification (ISIC), but at a regional/sub national level there could be a need to consider other industries that produce tourism characteristic products like handicrafts produced and sold locally in order to be able to describe the structure of the local tourism industry.

Since the early 1990's, the UNWTO has pioneered the development of sustainability indicators to tourism and destinations in order to support monitoring of environmental and socio-cultural impacts. The latest definition of Sustainable development of tourism dates from 2004:

> *"Sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability. Thus, sustainable tourism should:*
>
> - *Make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.*
> - *Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.*
> - *Ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all shareholders that are fairly distributed,*

including stable employment and income earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation.

- *Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them."*

Rather than being an exact definition, it is more like a conceptual framework aimed at ensuring a mutual understanding of sustainable tourism development. Nevertheless it serves as a basis for the development of statistics and indicators linked to the monitoring of environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism, and can be a basis for identifying available data/statistics that allow measuring/monitoring environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism.

1.3 Data availability at national and regional level

UNWTO collects data from member countries as well as countries not member of the organization, in total data are collected from 211 countries – including EU 25+2+2.

UNWTO data are available for World regions according to WTO definitions (Americas, Africa, Europe), but not for regions within countries.

Unfortunately, not all countries provide all the data requested by WTO. There are therefore considerable gaps in the figures. There are also differences in definitions.

To the extent that a definition following the NUTS classifications 2 and 3 is applied, data is available from Eurostat, NACE and the ESPON database for the following categories:

- The capacity of collective tourism accommodation (hotels, campsites etc), for which data is required annually and down to around county level or equivalent (i.e. NUTS 3).
- Guest flows at these collective accommodation establishments, showing arrivals and nights spent in different broad types of accommodation. Most information is again required annually, with data

down to NUTS 2. Some information, on arrivals, nights spent and occupancy rates, is required monthly for the country as a whole.

The ESPON database provides the necessary reference material for analysis at regional level, i.e. for population development, economy, accessibility, etc.

We have investigated the UNWTO Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) as this is the most promising system for calculating the economic impacts of tourism in countries. A regional TSA is now under development. The R-TSA will in the future be an excellent supplement to traditional sources providing data on visitor numbers, capacities, etc. Even if these data sources are insufficiently developed to date, the future ESPON should utilise the concepts in the R-TSA and hence be a partner in the development of comparative statistics on tourism and its impact.

1.4 Tourism trends at national and regional level

An analysis of the status of tourism at the regional level, together with an analysis of the spatial impact of tourism for different kinds of regions, will be part of the final report of this pilot study.

The analysis is planned to be developed along the following steps:

1. The regions in which the “tourism industry” has the largest impact will be calculated on the basis of employment and economic impact. This will enable us to determine regions within countries where tourism-related sectors are over-represented compared to the national average. Country by country calculations helps to avoid confusion caused by structural differences in employment as well as in data availability and data definitions.
2. Accommodation capacity (NUTS 3) and number of guests (NUTS 2) is used to calculate the absolute size of the sector as well as the tourist density per population and accommodation per population comparatively for regions in Europe. The European-level data is then linked with the national data to produce a regional tourism indicator for all ESPON regions.
3. A typology of regions is produced, based on this indicator and on destination characteristics like purpose of visits (business/leisure etc.), location (mountain/coast/urban etc.), attraction (skiing/shopping etc.), seasons (summer/winter etc.).
4. The spatial impacts are further discussed through an analysis where the tourism index and the typologies are discussed together with data

from the ESPON database like population development, GRP, employment, unemployment, accessibility, hazards etc.

A first glimpse of the travel patterns provides the following picture:

- International arrivals in Europe increased with 3.6% from 1990 to 2000. Traffic increased again from 2004 after a dramatic fall in arrivals after 0911.
- Leisure and holidays are the purpose of visits for two thirds of visitors to Europe, but business travel is increasing its weight.
- Urban tourism was the strongest segment in 2005. Wellness/spa tourism is likely to increase.
- There is a tendency toward shorter stays. Spain is attracting elderly and longer staying visitors.
- Road transport is most important. Low-cost airlines have in particular benefited secondary airports and city-tourism.
- Hotels based in the cities are performing well. Cruises are up.
- The largest city destinations are London, Paris, Dublin, Berlin, Barcelona, Prague, Vienna and Munich.

A regional Tourism Satellite Account is developed for Denmark. Visitors from the neighbouring countries Germany, Sweden and Norway generated 2/3 of the turnover from foreign tourism in 2004. International bednights makes up more than half of all bednights, but the share is reduced as especially the German bednights are decreasing (-10% in 2004). Tourism generated employment is in Denmark 2.6% of all employment. Tourism intensity is largest in peripheral regions and is especially high on the island of Bornholm where there was 62 tourist nights per inhabitant in 2004. The tourist intensity in urban areas is relatively low, but as the daily consumption per visitor is higher there than in rural areas the employment effects are largest in the cities.

1.5 Draft proposals for an ESPON 2 research project

The final report will as a conclusion make a draft Terms of Reference for an ESPON 2 study of the spatially relevant aspects of tourism. This ToR will be developed in two alternatives, one within a € 500,000 budget and one within a € 1 mill. budget.

Both alternatives will revolve around the same topics and questions:

- Gauging the importance of tourism within regional economies.

- How large is tourism (employment wise, income generation)? Where in the ESPON space is tourism particularly important?
- How does tourism affect – negative and positive - other sectors? (e.g., transportation sector, manufacturing).
- How do policies in various sectors affect tourism?
- How do various sectoral issues such as changes in the environment affect tourism?
- What are the spatial / land use implications of tourism?
- In what way does tourism play out territorially in various types of regions (e.g., islands, agricultural areas, cities)?
- How does tourism affect the existing fabric of different settlements?

In both cases the study should allow for an improved analysis of the spatial aspect of tourism by assessing existing data and closing data gaps. A network of national experts will be able to access national reports and national policy responses.

The larger budget alternative will in addition make it possible to elaborate the analysis of the inter-relationship between policies and tourism, and also to employ various scenario methodologies where tourism development is related to futures infrastructural development and changes in factors like demography, energy prices, climate etc.

2 Scientific summary covering the main concepts and methodologies

2.1 Structure of the project

The project is organised in six Working Packages:

- *Working Package 1 – Concepts and definitions:*

  This part is where we establish the platform for further work, i.e. establish the definitions used, the concepts regarding types of tourism, types of tourists, and types of tourism regions, and the hypothesis the analysis will build on. The work will depart from existing research and a critical review of state-of-the-art literature.

- *Working Package 2 – Patterns and trends:*

  The second part includes a review of existing data sources regarding tourism and travel patterns. The main sources for these data will be the databases organised and managed by the project partners WTO (for the National Tourism Satellite Accounts) and ITLS-WU Vienna (for the TourMIS – Tourism Marketing Information System). Regionalised data – as far as possible at the NUTS 3 level and for EU 29 – will be organised into a database which allow variables to be easily accessed and analysed together with data from the ESPON database.

- *Working Package 3 – Spatial effects of tourism:*

  In this section data will be analysed with the purpose of establishing a typology of ways the spatial characteristics of various types of regions. The impacts may be both positive (employment, economic growth, vitalisation of natural and cultural heritage, etc.) or they may be negative (economic pressure on certain locations and the spatial planning in those regions, damages to natural and cultural sites of particular value, threats to local culture etc.)

- *Working Package 4 – Future ESPON research:*

  This will be one of the main deliveries from this pre-study, namely a proposal for a project on the spatial impacts of tourism for the next ESPON programme. The proposal will take into consideration the present ESPON geography of 29 countries, and will also have an outline of research questions of particular importance for a further enlarged EU or ESPON participation with the remaining EFTA countries as well as Turkey and the countries in the Balkans. Two proposals of

different scope will be developed, one based on a budget of 500,000€ and one for a budget of 1,000,000€ in which research will be expanded in terms of statistical efforts as well as and in terms of usefulness for sustainable tourism development.

- *Working Package 5 and 6 – Co-ordination and reporting* and *ESPON networking:*

  As there are rather demanding reporting requirements for ESPON projects, time is allocated to the production of this Interim Report (May) and the Draft Final Report (October 2006) and to two Progress Reports. The project team will participate in the two ESPON seminars planned for in 2006 as well as in Lead Partner Meetings.

This interim report is delivered at a point when WP 1 is approaching the end.

2.2 Definitions and concepts used

A discussion of the definitions and concepts we finally build our proposals on will be included in the final report.

3 Compliance with the Addendum

The addendum of the contract for this project specifies the following tasks and considerations for the performance of the first part of the work:

- Review of results from other ESPON projects.
- Review of the scientific literature.
- Review of existing data sources for the ESPON space of 29 countries, in particular regionalised data and indicators, at each of the three levels (European, national, regional).
- Review of existing policy documents addressing the spatial effects of tourism, including previous studies by DG Enterprise.
- First identification of tourism patterns and their main spatial effects.
- Insights on the methodology to analyse these issues.
- Preliminary proposals for future applied research on tourism and its territorial effects, taking into consideration its relation to balanced development, competitiveness and territorial cohesion.

We have made an assessment of possible inputs from *all* previous ESPON projects to this pilot project on the spatially relevant aspects of tourism.

One important source of information is the ESPON data base, containing inputs from almost all the studies performed. The data here do provide statistical information on the regions in EU25+2+2 which we will use when we analyse tourism data. Examples of relevant data are indicators on population development, GDP, accessibility, etc. The only data describing tourism as such are the indicators on number of arrivals and number of beds in registered accommodation. We will as part of this project discuss the strengths and weaknesses of these indicators and the data provided.

Going through the single projects, we find the following studies to be of most relevance for our work:

- *Project 1.1.1: Urban areas as nodes of polycentric development.* This project has made an attempt to define urban areas and their functional specialisation. We should be able to use the FUA ranking in an analysis of main tourist destinations – particularly the 76 strongest FUAs can be compared with TourMIS data. Tourism was not studied as such in ESPON 1.1.1, but was one of the factors used to characterise the functional specialisation for the 1.595 FUAs - an indicator for attractiveness. The indicators used were number of beds in registered accommodation, in absolute figures and relative to resident population, and a map was produced to show the strongest FUAs on the tourism function (Figure 1). The summary says: "*Tourism is an indicator for attractiveness. Most of the FUAs strong on tourism are different from those that score highly on other functions, and they are mainly located in the Mediterranean area and the Alps. Only a few highly tourist-oriented FUAs of European-level significance exist beyond those two zones. Globally significant urban destinations are to be found in London, Paris and Rome. Capital cities are in general also nodes as regards tourism".*
- *Project 1.1.4: Demographic trends* analyse data on population development 1990-2000 for all NUTS 3 regions. These figures can be used to test any hypothesis about the correlation between population growth at the regional level and the presence or absence of a strong tourism sector in the regions.
- *Project 1.3.1: Natural hazards.* This project analyse the spatial patterns of natural and technological hazards at NUTS 3 level in EU29. The hazards studied are those that have to do with spatial planning. Amongst the natural hazards are floods, draught, avalanches, tsunamis, landslides etc. Potential technological hazards come from air traffic, nuclear, chemical industries, oil production and transport. The probability of an event and the magnitude of the consequences are assessed. There are maps for flooding potentials, forest fires potentials etc, etc. Several of these are of interest for the tourist industry. As

soon as we have established an indicator for tourism at NUTS 3 level, we would be able to identify those regions where hazards potentially could be a threat for destination's attractivity and hence the tourism industry.

Climate change is obviously a factor that may have important consequences for tourism and affect specific regions positively or negatively. Climate models indicate a 5-8 degrees rise in temperature during warm extremes: *Large parts of Europe will see a shift towards temperature extreme conditions that now occur mainly in the Mediterranean North Africa and the south-western Iberian Peninsula. (…) Large parts of southern Europe may see the summer drought extended by 1-2 months.*

- *Project 1.3.2: Natural heritage.* Tourism is mentioned in this project. The study show that the largest natural areas is found in Finland, the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Cantabrian mountains, the Carpathians, Greece and Scotland – all of them except Finland are mountainous. In general, large natural areas have more diversity and less environmental problems. The degree of nature and pressure on nature is assessed for each NUTS 3 region (data missing for many regions), and may be used to see to which degree tourist intensive regions are on the scale natural-urban and on the scale low pressure-high pressure.
- *Project 1.3.3: Cultural heritage.* The project has collected more than 1500 data sets (at NUTS 3 and 2 levels) for different aspects of cultural heritage, but differences in definitions, boundaries and practises regarding protection policy between countries make the data difficult to use. (Example: there are only few protected sites in Greece and Italy, but this cannot be interpreted as lack of cultural heritage!)
- *Project 3.2: Scenarios.* This is the largest of all ESPON projects in the current programme. At least two alternative scenarios up to 2030 are made for each of 9 specific sectors. These are described in the 3rd interim report. Several of the sectoral scenarios are of interest for the tourism sector, as especially increased energy prices and climate changes may have dramatic consequences for travel patterns. Some regions will gain and other loose. For example, one of the energy scenarios describes a situation in 2030 where "*Long-distance mobility for recreational purposes … had been progressively given up, not only because of the transportation costs, but because of the reduction of the purchase power. Stronger pressure on recreation areas more easily accessible from large towns was generally observed".*

The climate scenarios both build on rising average temperatures with more extreme temperatures in the south and more rainfall in north. This will change the attractivity of destinations: "*Tourism was affected, too. In southern coastal regions, mass tourism was confronted to a significant shortage of water supply. (…) The attractiveness of these regions was also reduced by the fact that numerous highly water consuming facilities such as golf terrains, large swimming pools, artificial parks and green areas etc. had to be restricted. Winter tourism in mountain regions also lost importance, because the occurrence of snow falls became more and more irregular. Seasons for skiing started later and ended sooner. On the other hand, new tourism opportunities grew in central Europe, particularly in coastal areas, where more stable weather conditions attracted new tourists.*"

We will use these sectoral scenarios as inspiration for our discussion on the future vulnerability of the most touristic regions in Europe.

- *Project 3.4.1: Europe in the world.* This project is working towards the same deadline as ours. There are however some interesting results in the interim report, e.g. discussions of mental maps and the degree of proximity between Europe and other parts of the world and air traffic flows in and out of Europe.
- *Project 1.4.4: Flows.* This pilot study is addressing one of the main deficiencies in the study of regional development, namely the flows. There are however no results yet.

The scientific literature on the understanding and measurement of tourism has been reviewed and an analysis of the main aspects raised by the literature is included in Chapter 6.2.

The available data sources at European level have been assessed. The main statistical source for EU is Eurostat's New Chronos database (at NUTS 2 level for demand data and NUTS 3 for supply data), while data from non-member countries are included in the ESPON database. The data sets are not complete, however.

The UNWTO – the World Tourism Organisation – has statistics on arrivals and accommodation worldwide. UNWTO is working with Tourist Satellite Accounts, where impacts of the visitor economy are derived from national statistics. *Regional* Tourist Satellite Accounts are now under development, but there is a substantial way to go before the results can be used in a pan-European study. The TourMIS database of the Wirtshaftsuniversität Wien do have valuable data for several countries and several cities, but these data cannot be directly used for a comparative study of tourism in the ESPON

space. We will in the final report develop our proposals for how a statistical analysis can be performed despite these difficulties.

A first review of policy documents on tourism from DG Enterprise has been performed. There is a specific unit on tourism within DG Enterprise. Available reports are focussing on the tourist industry and the need for development of SMEs, the policy response to this need, and on sustainable tourism[1]. These reports do sometimes have a focus on specific categories of destinations, but do not contain any EU-wide typology of destinations or similar pan-European analysis.

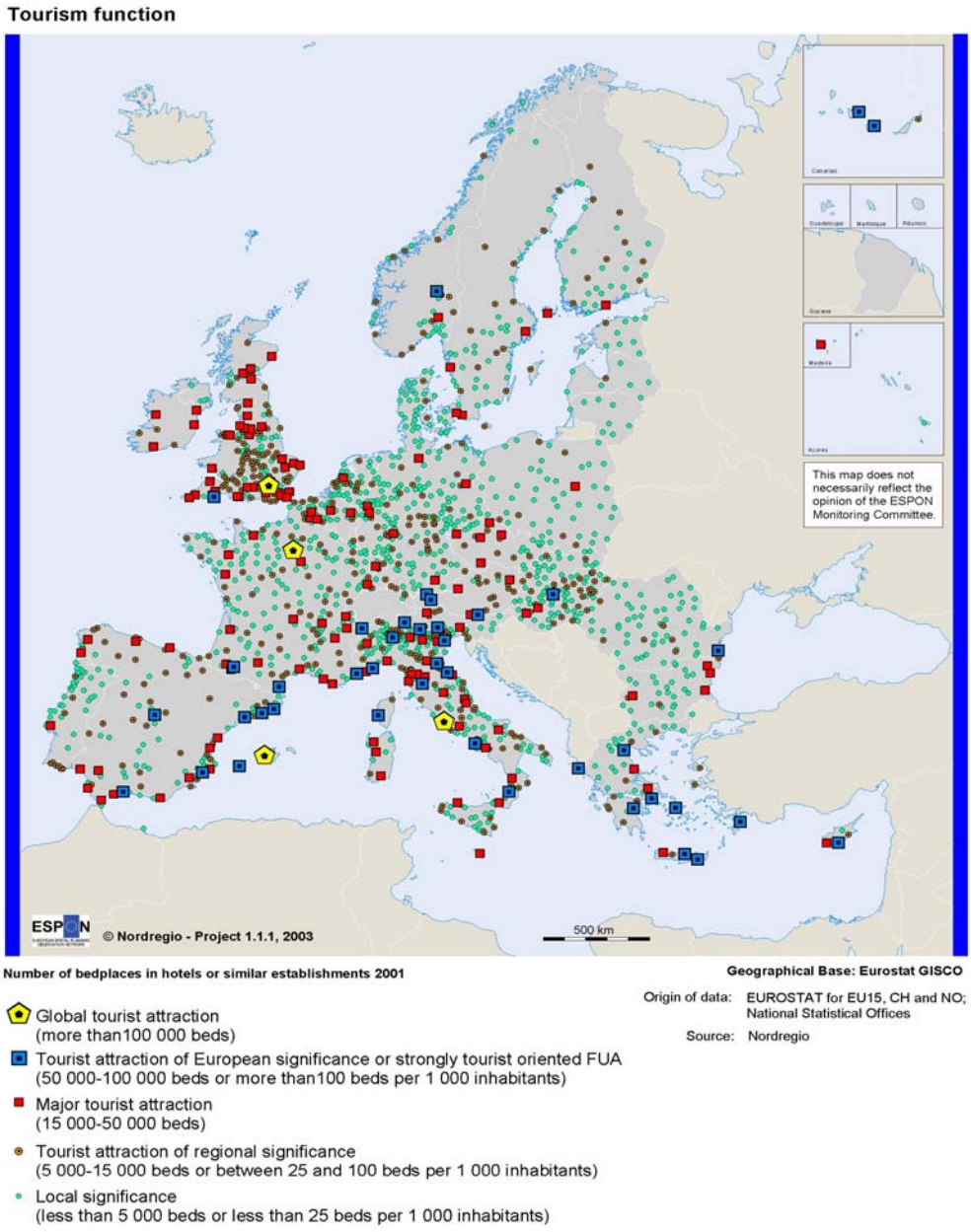
We have started the work towards a first identification of tourism patterns and their main spatial effects, but have so far given priority to definitions and concepts.

[1] Examples are

- *A renewed EU Tourism Policy: Towards a stronger partnership for European Tourism*. (Communication from the Commission, Brussels, 2006).
- *Community measures affecting tourism* (Working paper, Brussels, 2000).
- *Early warning systems for identifying declining tourist destinations, and preventive best practices* (Luxembourg, 2002).
- *Towards quality coastal tourism* (Brussels, 2000).
- *Towards quality urban tourism* (Brussels, 2000).
- *Agenda 21 – Sustainability in the tourism sector* (Brussels, 2002).
- *Using natural and cultural heritage to develop sustainable tourism in non-traditional tourist destinations* (Brussels, 2002).
- *Tourism and employment* (Brussels, 2001).

Figure 1: Tourism as a specialisation in Functional Urban Areas.

Source: ESPON 1.1.1, first interim report.



4 Networking

We have in the course of the project participated in the following programme meetings:

- Inception meeting with the Coordination Unit, Luxembourg, February 2006.
- ESPON seminar, Salzburg, March 2006.
- Lead partner meeting, Brussels, April 2006.

A project workshop is arranged in Copenhagen in June 2006. This will be the only occasion were all project partners meet face-to-face.

Three project partners have been parts of ESPON networks through other functions and projects:

- NIBR is the National Contact Point for Norway and have in this functions participated in all major ESPON events since Norway became a full ESPON member state. NIBR is a lead partner in project 2.1.5 “Fisheries” and a partner in a number of other projects.
- EuroFutures is a partner in project 2.3.1 on “Application and effects of the ESDP in the Member States”,
- CRT was a partner in project 2.2.2 on “Enlargement”.

The project has undertaken its work in line with the common ESPON scientific platform and seeks to actively use the different ESPON Guidance papers in its work.

5 Research issues and data gaps to overcome

This project is a pilot study. The main aim of the work is to assess data availability and to identify research issues for an ESPON 2 project.

The entire final report will, accordingly, consist of a discussion of concepts, issues and data, including proposals for further ESPON work.

PART 2 - ANALYSES

6 Concepts and definitions

6.1 The aims of this study

6.1.1 Positive and negative impacts of tourism

Like in all parts of the world, tourism is rapidly emerging as one of the key sectors of the economy in a variety of European contexts. It has long been the major engine of economic growth in alpine and other mountainous settlements, cross-border regions, coastal and insular regions, but also cities of varying sizes. The tourism sector has been credited with creating numerous jobs (directly and indirectly) and many observers believe it generates a significant income multiplier. In an era where many traditional activities such as agriculture, logging or manufacturing have witnessed substantial decline in most localities, tourism has been boosted as one of the key sectors for economic restructuring.

Unfortunately, despite the obvious benefits associated with the sector there are also numerous negative impacts. The latter have led critics to question the value of tourism as a tool for economic development. Some academics have also argued that government officials and industry representatives regularly exaggerate the positive impacts of tourism in order to boost the sector's image (even though their statements are based more on opinion rather than rigorous analysis).

Additionally, it is obvious that despite a huge volume of academic research on the topic there remains a lack of clear consensus as to what the real benefits or downsides of tourism are. A major problem has always been that it is hard to define what tourism really is. Is it an industry? Is it an economic phenomenon? Is it a societal trend? If it is an industry what is its actual product? If it is an industry how do we measure it? How does one account for the non-economic aspects of tourism (such as the experiences of viewing a landscape or the feelings that result from hiking through a national park)?

In a certain locality how does one know, which businesses are supported by tourists or visitors? After all, there is not just one economic sector that neatly fits under the umbrella of tourism; rather, tourism transcends numerous sectors of the industrial classification system (SIC). While in some resort localities it is easy to assume that a major portion of receipts at a

business (like a restaurant) are coming from tourists, this is not as clear-cut for such a business in a major urban environment.

Beyond these economic questions there are numerous other issues that have occupied the attention of researchers in recent years. For instance, how can we measure the carrying capacity of touristic environments? Is there a way to handle a large number of arrivals without detrimental impacts on the very attractions that bring them there in the first place? How can tourism lead to a greater degree of social equity (one of the three prongs of sustainable development)? And so on.

6.1.2 Research questions

The ultimate purpose of this pre-study is to develop meaningful research objectives regarding the tourism sector in a variety of environments throughout the ESPON space and to propose a realistic future project that may support effective policymaking.

It is obvious that the methodology for assessing tourism and its impacts has improved drastically over the last few years. For instance, the emergence of the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), a UN recognized conceptual framework for the measurement of tourism's economic contribution system based on a country's national accounts, allow analysts to more effectively gauge tourism's contribution to GDP. The TSA methodology allows "the international comparability of data related with the measurement of the economic impact of tourism" (WTO 2000: p. 3) Importantly, it is an extremely powerful tool for policy and strategy-making to no small extent because it can demonstrate to policymakers the magnitude of the tourist industry both in economic as well as physical terms (numbers, flows, capacity..).

And yet, we still have so much more to learn about the tourism sector. It's not enough to recognize tourism's contribution to the overall national economy. To develop EU regional policy we need to be able to identify tourism's economic contribution and its impacts at the sub-national (regional and local level). We also sometimes need to look at a cross-border region (one which transcends two or more national entities) and assess tourism's overall effects. To do this is a complicated exercise and one which requires the commitment of a vast amount of resources (both financial but also intellectual capital).

It is an overriding aim of this pre-study to identify improved methodologies of assessing the magnitude of the tourism sector as an industry at sub-national level and also for comprehending its impacts on the economic, social, and environmental fabrics of a variety of destinations/spatial settings.

Naturally, because the scope of such an approach is boundless, for this first step it is recommended that the research should focus mostly on the economic aspects of tourism with an aim of understanding its magnitude but also its contribution to regional economic development. Among the guiding questions that could be examined are the following:

1. How can tourism in the context of the EU+2+2 be defined?
    a. What kind of definitions for regions and destinations should we rely on?
    b. How can we develop functional types of definitions that take into account the vast array of destination types and the different types of travel purposes?
    c. How can we use the current standard industrial classification system to isolate what the tourist sector is in economic terms for different types of destinations and regions?
2. To what extent does the economy of a specific locality depend on tourism?
    a. What percentage of the GRP of a specific region is dependent on tourism (directly and indirectly)?
    b. How can the existing TSA conceptual framework be adapted to assess tourism's contribution at the sub-national level?
    c. How many jobs and what types of jobs are dependent (directly and indirectly) on tourism?
    d. What is the quality of jobs that are created in tourism? (Is it true that while many jobs are created from tourism a significant number of these are seasonal, lowly paid and unskilled?)
    e. To what extent does tourism boost entrepreneurial and innovative activity in European regions? What role does the new Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) play in this regard (e.g. 'dynamic packaging', Internet distribution models, GSP etc.)
    f. Related to the above 2 points, are there marked differences between regions in terms of the tourism-related employment characteristics? If so, how can these differences be assessed? How can tourism-related entrepreneurial activity be compared between regions? Are there significant differences in the characteristics of entrepreneurs, say between a popular tourist destination in Greece or Spain and those in an isolated rural environment in northern Finland or Norway?
3. What are the key characteristics of tourism flows within the EU+2+2?

    a. How do these flows (both domestic and international) relate to the type of destination that evolves?

4. What kind of destinations can be identified?
    a. Where in the ESPON space do we find regions where tourism is particularly important, and how can these regions be characterised?
    b. Which spatial impacts does tourism have in these locations?

In addition to these main questions, there are a number of other issues that could be examined. Specifically, it would be interesting to know whether there are differences in terms of tourism's respective contribution to the economies of the EU's largest urban areas and, if so, to comprehend why these differences exist? How important are cross-border regions as tourist destinations (evidence suggests that there are a huge number of people who cross borders for shopping and other activities)? To what extent are remote/peripheral areas and developing regions depending on tourism? How can we measure the magnitude of tourism in such type of regions?

The precise definition of what is meant by tourism will be an important aspect of the study. From an economic standpoint, it is important to adopt as wide a definition of tourism as possible – namely treating tourism as an export industry albeit one where the product is consumed by the buyer at the place of production and not at the market. In other words, if people come from outside a region (for whatever purpose – recreation, business, shopping, etc) and they spend money in that region then they will be treated as tourists and the income earned from their expenditures will be treated as tourism income. Tourism income can be generated at the national level by foreign tourists or can be generated within a country (at the regional level or the level of a locality) either by foreign visitors or domestic tourists who are coming from another part of the country. In a cross border situation where people cross over (even for a few hours) to shop or to visit an attraction, these people can also be treated as tourists.

Better comprehending the role of tourism at the sub-national level in various countries (as well as the transboundary level) of the EU25+2+2 would allow the development of more targeted recommendations that would better shape the community's regional policies.

Among the policy issues that require close scrutiny are ones addressing the following:

1. Employment training in the tourist industry;
2. Entrepreneurial and innovative activity;

a. Incentives to help SMEs in a variety of ways (marketing, business planning, product and process innovation) in different contexts (urban versus rural, coastal versus inland and so on;

3. Technological development;

    a. Incentives to facilitate the development and application of ICT for various types of tourism destinations, particularly in peripheral areas and developing regions.

4. Sustainable development;

    a. Balancing the economic benefits derived from tourism in various destinations with the goals of environmental conservation and the promotion of societal equity.

The territorial extent of the EU+2+2 is substantial. Within this huge area are a variety of destinations: urban and rural; large cities and small villages; lakeside communities and ski resorts in mountainous areas; coastal resorts versus inland agro-tourism destinations; and so on. Because of this, it is very difficult to compare tourism and its effects not to mention to develop regional policies that are community-wide (a one size fits all). In actual fact, it would be prudent and substantially more effective to develop a typology of tourism regions with the understanding that each type of region is the subject of tailor-made policies that are contingent on geographical and other characteristics.

6.2 Tourism as a topic for research

6.2.1 Growing research attention

It is only over the last two decades that the study of tourism as an important academic topic has gained increasing popularity as evidenced by the growing number of books, monographs, edited collections, and journal publications. Each year more and more regional, national, and international conferences are held relating to travel and tourism with delegates examining a broad spectrum of topics relating to this global phenomenon.

Importantly, tourism has grabbed the attention of researchers from a variety of fields including anthropology, business administration, economics, geography, political science, sociology, and urban studies. Representatives of these and other disciplines have grappled with various aspects relating to travel and tourism including: the examination of definitional issues; the political economy of tourism; demand and supply-side studies; impact assessment; tourism and sustainable development; and tourism planning and policy-making. While the multi-disciplinary aspect of tourism research is

one of its major strengths (since it allows various viewpoints) it is arguably also its greatest weakness because as Page (2003: 5) argues 'there is no overarching academic agreement on how to approach the study of tourism; it really depends on how you are looking at tourism, and the perspective you adopt.'

Much of the growing attention on tourism is commonly justified by references to the alleged size of the tourist industry and its growing economic effects for destination areas. Often, a book on tourism will begin with evidence as to the magnitude the industry in terms of indicators such as its contribution to gross domestic product, or its employment and income multipliers. The authors of such writings go on to justify their particular study of tourism through claims that because of its enormous size as an industry and in terms of persons employed it surely must be worthy of further intellectual study.

But, of course, there is more to tourism than its size – which is, by the way, a matter for much debate. Fortunately, recent research indicate with increasingly regularity that the main reason for continuing to investigate tourism is that it remains weakly conceptualized both as an economic sector, but also more broadly as a phenomenon of contemporary society/culture. Frequently, observers blame the case-study driven research (a large proportion of tourism studies are of the case-study variety) and the paucity of comparative work that dominate in the literature as the main culprit behind this need to improve the conceptualization of tourism.

Fortunately, in the last few years many researchers have heeded Britton's (1991) call for more rigorous theorization of tourism – following a political economy approach (see for instance Agarwal et al 2001; Williams 2004). Reflecting the necessity for better conceptualization of tourism, Judd (2004) maintains he is convinced that those social scientists who grapple with issues ranging from globalization to economic geography will never give tourism the research credit it deserves unless it is treated like other industrial sectors such as the automobile sector. Such statements indicate that tourism deserves its rightful place in the social sciences precisely because it is theoretically challenging. Questions that remain to be addressed are many, including: what role does tourism play in capitalist accumulation; in what manner does commodification relate to tourism; in what manner does tourism create social meaning for places; what is the role of the state in the production of tourist activities and, specifically, how is tourism shaped by the overall regulatory framework; how do spaces of tourist consumption connect back to the production of tourist space?

These are just some of the most pertinent questions at the general level that have engaged tourism researchers in recent years. For the purposes of the

current ESPON Project attention is focused more narrowly on the following topics:

1. Definitional issues as they relate to tourism in geographical areas
2. The tourism production system at subnational level
3. Tourism and tourist typologies and heir relation to geographical areas (regions, destinations)
    a. Geographical dimensions of tourism (the following are not mutually exclusive)
        i. Urban Tourism
        ii. Rural Tourism
        iii. Tourism in Coastal areas
        iv. Tourism in mountain regions
        v. Tourism on islands
        vi. Tourism in border regions
4. Tourism and its impacts on the economic, social and environmental fabrics of a destination.
5. Tourism and sustainable development
6. Tourism and geospatial technologies

6.2.2 Broad and narrow definitions of tourism

When dealing with specific issues concerning tourism, like measuring the magnitude of the tourism-related industry or seeking to develop sector-specific policies, there is a need to comprehend “how tourism is being defined” (Gunn 2002:8). Unfortunately, precisely because it is such a complicated phenomenon there is no readily agreed upon definition. Tourism cannot easily be categorized as an activity. It is not an industry in the same manner as, for example, the automobile sector, since there is no single identifiable commodity produced. In addition to its economic aspects, tourism involves spatial, environmental, societal/cultural, and political dimensions. Then there is the problematic issue of not being able to easily disaggregate the consumer (tourist) from the industry itself; after all, for tourism to occur the consumers have to be actively involved in the production of touristic experiences. Such problems have often meant that most analysts end up choosing a designation of tourism that best fits the aims of their particular research agenda.

It comes as no surprise, therefore, that almost every text dealing with tourism begins with attempts to define terms like travel, tourism, the tourist

industry, the tourist or traveler and so on. Perhaps the most frequently used definition is the simple one describing tourism as the act of travel for at a minimum of 24 hours and a maximum of 365 days away from one's home and the provision of a combination of services to support this act; the purpose of this travel can either be recreational or business-oriented. The recognized definition of a tourist is someone who are "traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited" (official definition of the World Tourism Organization). The distance between the origin and destination does not matter (although some definitions have used the qualifier of a minimum distance from home of 160 kilometers). Others use broader definitions to include same-day visitors since their argument is that from an economic standpoint it does not matter if one stays overnight or not as long as that person injects currency into the destination's economy. From this perspective then, shoppers who travel, say from one city to another just for the day may be considered tourists in an economic sense.

Whether day-visitors and tourists can actually be placed in the same category is sometimes a subject for heated argument. Other issues that have often been debated include the following: (1) how should we classify second home owners or the owners of summer cottages in a particular locale – often people own these second homes in countries other than their own; (2) where do visitors such as cruise ship travelers who only spend a few hours at any particular destination fit in the spectrum of tourism; (3) how do we classify same day travelers who cross a border such as the one between Austria and Germany for shopping or to attend a show?

To deal with these issues the World Tourism Organization has issued guidelines for classifying travelers and tourists. These differentiate, for example, between tourists and non-tourist travelers like migrants and commuters. Tourists can be further divided into domestic and international tourists and then each of these categories can be further subdivided according to purpose of travel including things like visiting friends and relatives, business travel, and pleasure. Page (2003) argues that perhaps a more useful definition of tourism – given the complexities involved – would be the one by Chadwick namely 'the field of research on human and business activities associated with one or more aspects of the temporary movement of persons away from their immediate home communities and daily work environments for business, pleasure and personal reasons' (1994: 65).

Regardless of what is an appropriate definition for tourism it is obvious as Gunn (2002) and Page (2003) have pointed out (based on Chadwick 1994)

this phenomenon is associated with at least three concepts namely: (a) the movement of persons; (b) an economic sector or an industry; and (c) a broad system of interacting relationships of people, their needs to travel outside their communities, and the services that attempt to meet these needs by providing products.

Yet another way to look at definitions of tourism is by differentiating between demand (the consumer) and supply (the industry). On the demand side rest the consumers, the tourists themselves, whereas on the supply-side lies the tourist production system, the ensemble of businesses and activities that make tourism possible. Certain observers argue that the best way to examine tourism from an economic standpoint is to treat it like any other industry (namely according to what is produced) and not confuse, as is so often the case, the consumers' motivations with the end product. Judd (2004) suggests viewing tourism as a commodity chain, leading ultimately to a common product, namely the creation of tourist experiences is well worth investigating. However, others (e.g., Mosedale, in Ioannides 2006) express reservations of the applicability of commodity chain methodology to tourism, given the dual nature of tourist experience (the experience is personal and varies by tourist type), and because the intangible nature of various tourist services does not lend itself to Input-Output analysis (which constitutes part of commodity chain methodology).

Smith (1998) maintains that even though we cannot label tourism as an industry, the tendency in economic terms to define tourism by examining the consumer (the tourist) is misleading since it is akin to defining the automobile industry by examining the drivers or the medical industry by looking at patients. Others like Leiper (1990) have countered that it is impossible to view tourism like any other pure economic sector because it is only *partially* industrialized, meaning that a significant part of tourism involves non-industrialized (experiential parts) parts like hiking, gazing on beautiful scenery, or taking photographs. According to people like Leiper, it is the totality of the both the businesses that contribute to the production of tourist experiences as well as the intangible (non-market value) experiences (like gazing on the Parthenon) that make tourist the unique thing that it is.

Debates such as the one between Smith and Leiper will undoubtedly continue. However, as Debbage and Daniels (1998) point out the conceptual difficulties arising from the existing conundrum of disentangling the consumer (tourist) from the industry or production system 'should not be used as a reason to ignore this important part of the space economy. In fact, the travel production system is one of the most intellectually intriguing sectors of the economy [precisely] because it challenges conventional paradigms with regard to [traditional] economic base theory and the consumer/producer conceptualization of services.' (30).

Ultimately, it is important to convey that tourism has to be viewed in a holistic manner as a system. As Gunn points out, in academe tourism is multidisciplinary drawing the attention to researchers from a variety of fields. As an activity it is shaped by both demand and supply. From the demand perspective one has to look at the very least at the diversity of traveler preferences and motivations. From the supply perspective there is the immense collection of businesses but also public or semi-public entities that combine their activities to shape the tourist experience.

6.2.3 The tourism production system

Based on the previous section clearly one of the most intriguing areas of research that continues to puzzle academics and policymakers, especially those wishing to measure tourism's magnitude in economic terms, is whether or not tourism can be neatly defined as an industry. For the purposes of simplicity, we will ignore at this stage the problem emerging by Leiper's partial industrialization concept and choose rather to reflect only the so-called supply side of tourism. Smith (1998) asserts that, in final analysis, the tourism industry is "a convenient way of referring to the large and fragmented collection of firms producing commodities that support the activities of people temporarily away from their home environment" (32). He acknowledges it is hard to neatly lump tourism into a solitary sector because of the large number of businesses involved in the production of tourist experiences but also because there is the perpetual problem of a lack of credible tourist statistics. For instance, tourism employment can be measured in various ways, not to mention that credibility problems often arise because of the quality of the data sources.

The fact that an industry can be defined as a group of businesses that produce essentially the same type of commodity (or at least similar commodities) – using essentially the same technology – precludes tourism from being classified as a single industry. Smith maintains that "tourism is not an industry because the commodities produced by tourism businesses are viewed as heterogeneous and produced by fundamentally different technologies. There is no apparent commonality between moving people from place to place (transportation) and helping them stay still (accommodation) (1998: 36). Nevertheless, there is a functional linkage between the airlines, the hotel industry, and other services in that "they facilitate activities by people temporarily away from their home environment" (36). Thus, even though we cannot reflect on tourism as a single sector we can, according to Smith, think of it as a satellite account, essentially the "satellite" being a subset of a country's national accounts (see discussion further down). Before launching into an investigation of the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), however, it is well worth examining a

couple of simple approaches that are readily available to researchers for determining what businesses within an economy are at least tangentially tied to tourism.

Simple approaches

If one wants to examine how many jobs in a region are tied to tourism-related businesses, it immediately becomes clear there is no single industrial classification that neatly encompasses the whole range of such activities. In fact, one must dig deep into the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system of any given country to find sectors with a relationship to tourism. To make matters worse, while some businesses could be argued to be purely tourism-oriented (like travel agencies and tour operators) others cannot be defined so easily since they cater to both residents and tourists. What portion of a particular company's business depends on tourism will very much depend on the context where that company operates. For instance, a restaurant in a resort community (like Bornholm or Lillehammer) may entirely depend on tourists for its business whereas one in a large metropolitan area (in Athens or Vienna) may draw much of its clientele from local consumers.

Roehl (1998) suggests that despite its obvious limitations, an examination of any country's (or within that particular country any region's) SIC allows us to view tourism within the context of the broader economy and can facilitate cross-regional and cross-national comparisons. What Roehl has done for the North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS) is to isolate a multiplicity of sectors, which bear at least some relationship to tourism (Table 1). Roehl's list could be used as a first step to define sectors within EU regions that have at least some relevance to tourism. Thus, in addition to sectors, which may be viewed as obvious, such as travel agencies, tour operators, and hotels, he recommends including various attractions such as museums, historical sites, or amusement and theme parks.

Roehl warns of the importance of using judgment in defining a particular area's tourist industry; in other words, while in one region a particular sector (like museums) may rely entirely on locals in another area the same sector may be almost entirely dependent on tourists. Determining whether or not a particular sector in an area is tourism-dependent or not does require a degree of familiarity with the economy of that area although it is possible through an investigation of data to isolate if certain sectors are over-represented (producing more than what is needed for its own use and selling the excess to non-local markets) in a particular economy compared to the national average.

The simplest measure for determining the specialization of a particular region in certain economic sectors is the location quotient (LQ). Essentially, what is needed to calculate the LQs are employment data by sector for both the national and regional economies. If used cautiously – allowing for the methodology's various shortcomings - this measure can be used to reveal if a particular local economy is strong (export-oriented) in particular sectors or not; and by the same token, it allows one to infer what economic opportunities may be available at the local level.

Simply stated the LQ is the first step in terms of isolating particular economic sectors and demonstrating whether or not these are over-represented or not compared to the national setting. If they are then it can be assumed these sectors are export-based and, thus, in the case of tourism this means they would be ones that are net gainers of visitor euros (income exceeds leakages). So if the bed and breakfast sector in a certain county has a LQ over 1.0 (net exporter) then it is export-oriented (produces more than is needed to cater to local needs) and may be assumed to cater to visitors. If, by contrast, the restaurant sector for the same county has a LQ below 1.0 then it is assumed to not be part of the tourism economy as it caters mainly to local needs.

Table 1: Selected NAICS codes with a relationship to the tourism production system

Code	Code (continued)
48-49 Transportation and Warehousing	71 Arts, entertainment and recreation
48111 Scheduled air transportation	71211 Museums
481111 Scheduled passenger air transportation	71211 Historical sites
48521 Interurban and rural bus lines	71212 Zoos and botanical gardens
48531 Taxi service	71219 Nature parks and other similar institutions
48711 Scenic and sightseeing transportation, land	71311 Amusement and theme parks
48721 Scenic and sightseeing transportation, water	71312 Amusement arcades
48799 Scenic and sightseeing transportation, other	71321 Casinos (except casino hotels)
48811 Airport operations	71329 Other gambling industries
53 Real estate and rental and leasing	71391 Golf courses and country clubs
53211 Passenger car rental and leasing	71392 Skiing facilities
532111 Passenger car rental	71393 Marinas
56 Administrative and support, services	72 Accommodation and food services
56151 Travel agencies	72111 Hotels (except casino hotels) and motels
56152 Tour operators	72112 Casino hotels
56159 Other travel arrangement and reservation services	72119 Other traveler accommodations
561591 Convention and visitors bureaus	721191 Bed and breakfast inns
561599 All other travel arrangement and reservation services	721199 All other traveler accommodations

Table based on Roehl (1998) Pages 63-64.

Another step that is useful when examining SIC data is to determine the competitiveness of local sectors by examining their growth or decline. Generally speaking, these forces of change arise in three ways. (1) Local growth or decline stimulated by overall national growth or decline; (2) local growth or decline stimulated because of a local concentration of businesses in faster or slower growth economic sectors; and (3) local growth or decline arising from more or less competitive firms locally than the national average

for that sector. Shift-share analysis is the technique used to calculate the magnitude of such factors; it is important to underline that it is a descriptive tool that does not indicate the cause for the employment change but it can be a useful point of departure for further analysis.

The underlying purpose of shift-share analysis is to indicate which sectors - in this case, tourism-related sectors, are not as efficient as they should be compared to the national average. Then a locality may identify (if policymakers choose to do so) ways to improve the efficiency of these existing businesses.

More complex approaches – The TSA

The techniques discussed above are simple, serving as first steps to give an overall general picture of the degree to which a locality depends on tourist related activities. A more robust method is the TSA, originally based on the WTO's (1994) definition that "tourism is the set of activities of a person travelling to and staying in places outside his/her usual environment for less than one year and whose primary purpose of travel is, other than the exercise, an activity remunerated from within the place visited" (Smith 1998: 36). Among the issues considered in this definition is the fact that visitors include overnight tourists but also those who come just for the day. Tourist expenditures include the money spent before, during and after the trip as part of the total travel experience. Only the direct spending of tourists on trip-related goods and services can be counted as tourist expenditures although these expenditures can actually be for non-tourism commodities (like groceries and beer). Within the SIC (or NAICS) system, tourist industries are those whose business would be significantly reduced if it were not for tourism, like airline companies.

A number of complications arise. An obvious one is that within any country, visitors consume both tourism and non-tourism commodities but so do the local residents. For example, locals may go visit one of the tourist attractions or have a meal at a hotel. Thus, Smith states that it is necessary to calculate the so-called "tourism ratio" (39), which is the ratio between total tourism demand (total value of commodity purchased by visitors) and tourism supply (total value of tourism commodities sold, regardless of who consumes these).

It is important to understand that the TSA is not a *per se* definition of tourism. Rather, it is a tool for (a) describing economic activity and (b) measuring economic activity that is directly attributable to tourism. Even though it is a useful tool and a number of countries have adopted this, there are many problems associated with the TSA's use. The main one is the considerable cost involved in order to acquire the necessary data on tourism

demand and supply. Also, because the TSA is tied to a country's Input-Output matrices (this also happens to be one of the strengths of the tool) one of the limitations is that these I/Os are updated infrequently because enormous amounts of data are required for such an update. This means the data of a TSA can sometimes be very old, thus limiting their use in terms of effective policy-making.

On a positive note, recent moves to develop regionalized TSAs offer enormous potential for tourism research, especially since they lead to more consistent ways of defining tourism and measuring its impacts (Jones 2006). Jones points out that the advantage of regional TSAs over national ones is that it brings to the forefront the fact that tourism is not an aggregated phenomenon distributed evenly throughout a country but occurs, rather, in certain areas. From a policy perspective, 'the national TSA cannot help us decide how far tourism can help spread prosperity to less favoured areas within countries' (Jones 2006: 2).

Some regions within EU countries have already produced work on regional TSAs (e.g., Andalusia in Spain). Jones points out that one of the issues that must be considered when developing a regional TSA is whether national or local actors are driving the process, because each set of actors will likely have different objectives. An important impediment in the process is that there is no equivalent at the regional level of a national accounts office but despite this, Jones believes that the advantages to be derived from constructing a regional TSA far outweigh the disadvantages.

6.2.4 Tourism and tourist typologies

The previous sections explored the meaning of tourism as an industry. Another issue related to definitions is who are the tourists themselves? Already it has been shown that they can be short-term visitors arriving in a particular place for a variety of reasons (e.g., visiting friends or conducting business). From the perspective of tourist impacts (see next section) on destinations it is important to recognize various typologies of tourists because among other things these highlight travelers as a non-homogeneous group; each category of tourists exhibits different patterns of demand and consumption. As Shaw and Williams (1994: 68) point out 'many of the [existing] typologies are based around identifying the significant traits of tourists and, in particular their demands as consumers.' Thus, typologies such as the ones developed by Cohen (1972) and Smith (1977) are those focusing on tourists' relationships to their destinations. So, for instance, we can associate areas that attract individual mass tourists – those who make arrangements for travel through a travel agency in the area of origin – with growing commercialization. By contrast, explorer-type tourists are, as long

as their activities are within the thresholds of the destination's carrying capacity, likely to have less negative impacts on the destination.

On the other side of the coin are the different types of tourist destinations that evolve over time. Recognizing such typologies has considerable benefits from the perspective of planners since it allows the recognition of impacts in a spatial sense (e.g., intensity of growth, assessment of impacts and so on).

There are a number of ways to typologize destinations. A simple one is by describing the character of the host destination (e.g., urban, rural, seaside, mountain resort, and so on. Note that these categories are not necessarily mutually exclusive). Yet another way to describe tourist destinations is through the nature of the tourists they attract (e.g., mass tourist destination, alternative tourist destination, and so on).

It is also possible to describe various destinations according to the main attraction. So, for instance, there can be different types of urban destinations such as historic-cities, business-oriented destinations, religious pilgrimage sites, festival sites and so on; again, these activities are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

One way that destinations are characterised by UNWTO is the following: Coastal Zones, Beach Destinations and sites, Small Islands, Mountain Destinations, Natural and sensitive Ecological Sites, Ecotourism Destinations, Parks and protected areas, Communities within or Adjacent to Protected Areas, Trails and Routes, Built Heritage Sites, Small and Traditional Communities, Urban Tourism, Conventions and Convention Centres, Communities seeking tourism development, Theme Parks, Water Parks and Cruise Ships and their destinations.

While much has been written about typologies of tourists and destinations, considerable efforts have been made to describe the evolution of tourists and tourist destinations through time. The reason for this is that tourist areas actually witness change and by the same token the travelers who visit and the residents within these destinations alter their behavior and perceptions. Recognition of these factors is vital for developing policies aimed at enhancing the long-term sustainability of destinations.

A number of longitudinal models have been developed to describe the life cycle of destinations and the tourists who visit them. The most commonly referred to model is Butler's resort cycle (1980) which assumes destinations go through a predictable evolutionary process that sees them change from relatively unknown areas (attracting explorer type tourists) to mass destinations and eventually ones entering stagnation and perhaps decline. According to Butler this simple model allows us to view not only the evolution of the destination through time but to identify who the main

stakeholders are at each stage, recognize the sector's impacts and describe how the tourists and the residents change their behavior.

Such an evolutionary model suffers from many problems, the biggest one being that it is extremely descriptive and can only be used to view what has happened in the past. This, of course, limits the model's usefulness as a retroactive planning/policy tool. Nevertheless, many observers note that a longitudinal model such as the resort life cycle is valuable because, if nothing else, it enables policy-makers to anticipate what may happen in certain destinations if no planning is implemented early on (based on what has happened in similar more mature destinations).

6.2.5 Tourism and its impacts

Solid definitions of tourism, the tourist industry, and tourists themselves are vital in order to comprehend tourism's various impacts on host communities. In final analysis, the better these impacts can be measured and understood the more likely policymakers are to develop appropriate actions for mitigating tourism's problems while maximizing its benefits.

Understanding tourism's impacts is, of course, one of the most (if not the most) popular avenues of research in the field. A major reason for this is that tourism often becomes a highly visible sector in various areas dominating, for instance, their economy but also the built and natural environments. Thus, for decades researchers have explored and debated tourism's impacts on the economic, socio-cultural, and physical environmental fabrics of destinations. Numerous case studies have been published and consultancy reports produced demonstrating how tourism generates either positive or negative effects; almost always these documents end with recommendations on how to rectify tourism's ills or to ensure that the sector exists in a sustainable manner.

A long discussion on the pros and cons of tourism is beyond the scope of this report. Suffice to say there are various viewpoints regarding the sector's effects. For instance, while the optimists associate tourism's economic benefits with job creation, employment and income multipliers, economic diversification and so on, others portray a far gloomier picture, arguing that the jobs are predominantly seasonal, low-skilled and low-waged. The same people also highlight the economic leakages often associated with the industry and warn that multipliers may actually be far lower than presented.

Debates as to the impacts of tourism on a destination's culture or its natural and built environment also dominate the literature. For the most part, arguments on these issues paint an unfavorable picture of tourism since they regularly focus on destinations where the sector has grown

uncontrollably and with limited coordinated planning. Indeed, in many such destinations actions to rectify the most adverse effects of tourism are only implemented after the sector has been associated with many serious problems like environmental or architectural pollution, the destruction of beautiful views, and the loss of cultural cohesiveness.

6.2.6 Tourism and sustainable development

Much of the recent work on tourism has been devoted to examinations of the sector's interactions to the overarching theme of sustainable development. This follows naturally from investigations of tourism's impacts.

Given the nebulous definition of sustainable development that seeks to reconcile three seemingly contradictory objectives (the generation of economic growth while preserving the natural/built environment and ensuring enhanced inter and intra-generational equity) it is not at all surprising that a huge amount of attention has been dedicated to examinations of definitions of what sustainable tourism actually means.

Among the most pertinent obstacles to ensuring the attainment of sustainable development practices is the fact that the term means so many different things to different people. In other words, a politician, a banker, and a member of Green Peace will have very different definitions of "sustainable development." To further complicate matters definitions of sustainable development by identical groups of people (e.g., residents, developers, local government) will vary geographically but also temporally. For instance, in a region which has not yet witnessed much tourism development and residents are exceedingly poor with few opportunities to increase their income, tourism may be viewed positively as an economic panacea. By contrast in an area that has experienced rapid development of tourism, residents may be far less enthusiastic about hosting visitors.

The enormous variety of destinations within the EU (urban versus rural, mature versus nascent, coastal versus mountainous, and so on) makes it exceedingly hard to identify a "one-size-fits-all" sustainable development strategy. To be sure there have been a few positive steps in terms of moving sustainable development from an academic concept with minimal teeth to an operational tool and the EU has been no laggard in this area. Attempts like the use of integrated quality management (IQM) to find sustainable solutions for urban, rural, and coastal areas are already in place for various areas around the Union. For almost a decade Denmark has used the Destination 21 concept in a number of areas throughout the country in an effort to develop both a sustainability labeling scheme for each destination as well as a sustainability management system. The reason for doing this was to move forward from a situation where there was a lack of a clear

strategy as to what sustainable development meant at the national level. The beauty of this system is that it emanates from the cooperation of all stakeholders with an interest in tourism at each destination participating in the programme. Among the ways to ensure whether a destination is moving or not toward sustainability is through the investigation of clearly defined indicators.

Projects such as Destination 21 have their advantages but, undoubtedly, also present flaws. Nevertheless, they indicate that policymakers are beginning to tackle ways to move the discussion of sustainability from the halls of academe towards tangible actions that are effective for various destinations. The question that emerges is whether or not the EU can learn from these steps and move towards developing effective strategies that can apply sustainable solutions to a large variety of destination areas throughout the union. What is clear is that it would be effective to develop actions, which recognize the spatio-temporal contingencies of different places. A first step would be to initiate a common set of top-down actions that are appropriate for a specific type of destination (e.g., actions that are appropriate for a non-mature, coastal, Mediterranean region). Once these actions are identified, further objectives can be developed within each destination in a bottom-up fashion in an effort to ensure its long term sustainability.

6.2.7 Tourism and geospatial technologies

A useful tool for developing tourism typologies is the use of GIS, a powerful tool for the creation, management, analysis, and representation of spatial data. The methodology has been used in tourism studies since the early 1990s. Among the applications of GIS in tourism studies are ones examining 'what-if' scenarios and ones investigating changes that have occurred through time. GIS can also be used to construct resource inventories, to identify impacts, and to perform land suitability analyses for new developments. Farsari and Prastacos (2004: 605) contend that GIS technology has evolved from simple mapping techniques to 'complex systems that support decision-making effectively and in an integrated way (…) GIS technology can provide a basis for the development of systems to support decision-making for sustainable tourism.'

One of the most interesting recent applications and one relevant to this particular study is by Coccossis and Constantoglou (2005) who sought to develop a typology of Greek coastal and insular destinations for the purpose of developing appropriate planning responses for each class of destination. The beauty of developing a typology of coastal destinations for Greece is that it enables planners to develop appropriate actions that more closely

match the realities of each destination as opposed to implementing a blanket strategy.

Using relatively simple data, namely relating to demographic (population change) and tourist (growth in arrivals) characteristics, Coccossis and Constantoglou were able to identify through GIS four different types of coastal regions: areas where both tourism and the total population are increasing; areas where tourism is increasing by the population is in decline; areas where the population is increasing but tourism is in decline; and areas where both the population and tourism are in decline. The authors argument is that by identifying these different types of areas, appropriate policies can be adopted that closely address the realities of each region.

Admittedly, the study by Coccossis and Constantoglou is at this stage simplistic since it relies on only two variables (population growth and growth in arrivals). However, many more layers of data beyond these two can be analyzed to create composite maps, which can aid in the identification of tourist destination types. This would enable policymakers to allow for the fact that destinations have distinctive natural, social, and economic characteristics, have reached varying levels of development, and draw different types of visitors.

6.2.8 A need for reconciliation of data

A fundamental problem is that different countries report tourism-related indicators in different ways, which makes it very hard, among others, to undertake comparative studies. Ciller and Libreros (2004) point out that the inconsistency of measuring tourism is especially problematic when we take into account that most international tourism within the EU is accounted for by intra-Union flows. For example, there are differences in how various countries report incoming and outgoing tourists meaning that it is hard to reconcile the data, in cases like cross-border comparisons.

This report indicates some of the key issues emerging when measuring tourism at the sub-national level. The simple techniques of location quotients and shift-share analysis have been identified as a possible first step for understanding the magnitude of tourism-related activities on a consistent basis throughout the EU. Further, the use of TSAs, especially regional TSAs, has been briefly described to allow policymakers at various levels (local, regional, national, and EU-wide) more consistency in terms of measuring tourism.

It is clear from this analysis that the best way to develop tourism-related policies throughout the EU29 is to recognize the existence of different types of destinations since the development of an all-encompassing tourism

strategy is not appropriate throughout this vast geographical area. This means that it is imperative to construct a sophisticated typology of tourism destinations, which recognizes – among others - their nature (e.g., urban or rural, coastal or mountainous), their degree of development, and the nature of impacts on the economic, cultural, and physical fabrics.

Although, the development of destination typologies is not something new, the report proposes the use of GIS as a powerful tool for identifying classes of destinations. In turn, it is suggested that such a typology can help planners and policymakers devise actions to better manage the development of tourism in a manner that would ensure the long-term sustainability of host areas.

6.3 Definition of tourism in the context of EU25+2+2

In view of the need to agree on a definition that

- is consistent
- is developed in order to ensure international comparability
- allows for the macroeconomic analysis of tourism
- allows countries/regions to apply the tourism concept to its own specifications,

the UNWTO/United Nations recommended definition of tourism is proposed to serve as the basic reference for this report.

6.3.1 Tourism

According to the UNWTO “Recommendations on Tourism Statistics”, tourism comprises the

> *“Activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited”.*

The definition is broad in that both personal and business travels are included in tourism. It also does not precisely define the notion of usual environment, thereby allowing a country/region/destination to apply the tourism concept to its own specifications. Commuting, travel for education, by armed forces, and diplomats as well as migration are not included in the estimates.

There is however a need as described in 6.2.8 to discuss how a typology of tourism destinations can be constructed with the tourism definition as a basic reference – and to discuss what conceptual frameworks/tools would be the most powerful instruments to support such typologies taking into account that such instruments preferably should rely on officially recognized statistical classifications.

At the present stage of this study, a number of preliminary recommendations can be given on the territorial scope of analysis. The definitions of the tourism industry/tourism production system and the sustainable development of tourism, these definitions will be further discussed in this chapter together with the potential use of the TSA and GIS to develop meaningful typologies of destinations.

6.3.2 The territorial scope of analysis, the destination

Although in geographical and institutional terms a tourism destination may correspond to an entire region, more often than not it is a sub regional territory (which may be a municipality or group of municipalities) with appreciable tourism activity.

WTO does not have an official definition of tourism destination, nor does it have a typology of destinations revealing some form of link between them and the tourism products supplied.

The first WTO Think Tank on Tourism Destination Management (Madrid, December 2002) identified the local tourism destination as the fundamental unit of analysis of tourism which is the focal point in the development and delivery of tourism products and the implementation of tourism policy.

Think Tank participants recognized that there are many types of destinations and a complex hierarchy ranging from the single enterprise destination to destinations at the supranational level. Despite this, the local tourism destination was identified as the most useful destination type on which to focus future discussions and to further the understanding of destination in general.

A working definition was adopted by the Think Tank:

> *”A local tourism destination is a physical space in which a visitor spends at least one overnight. It includes tourism products such as support services and attractions, and tourism resources within one day’s return travel time. It has physical and administrative boundaries defining its management, and images and perceptions defining its market competitiveness. Local tourism destinations incorporate various stakeholders often including a host community, and can nest and network to form larger destinations.”*

For the purpose of this study (and for related purpose of adapting the TSA project to the regional level), an approach limited to two territorial levels is recommended:

- The region, identified as the administrative unit corresponding to the first level of territorial disaggregation of a country in terms of its political and administrative organization (NUTS 2).
- The tourism destination treated as a sub regional territory, which may correspond to a single municipality or group of municipalities with substantial tourism activity. This would then be the most disaggregated territorial administrative unit on which it would be possible to structure an entire set of statistical information – however limited to those countries where municipal data are available.

6.3.3 Tourism industries as defined in the System of Tourism Statistics

The analysis of tourism from a supply point of view focuses on producing units of the same kind as those used in the supply and use tables of SNA93, namely establishments.

Within the functional perspective, SNA93 defines an "industry" as "a group of establishments engaged in the same kind of productive activities". The set of characteristic tourism activities does not comprise a single industry conforming to this definition but this set does include a number of classes of "industries" in the traditional sense. Consequently, the TSA defines the "tourism industries" as all establishments whose principal productive activity is a tourism characteristic productive activity. Special issues as travel agencies and tour operators are also considered.

For purposes of the TSA, the UNWTO has identified a list of tourism characteristic activities/industries as follows:

1. Hotels and similar
2. Second home ownership
3. Restaurants and similar
4. Railway passenger transport services
5. Road passenger transport services
6. Water passenger transport services
7. Air passenger transport services
8. Transport supporting services
9. Transport equipment rental

10. Travel agencies and similar
11. Cultural Services
12. Sporting and other recreational services

These categories define 12 tourism industries following the International Standard Industrial classification (ISIC), but at a regional/sub national level there could be a need to consider other industries that produce tourism characteristic products like handicrafts produced and sold locally in order to be able to describe the structure of the local tourism industry.

6.3.4 Tourism and the sustainable development of tourism

The tourism definition is primarily conceived to enable measurements of flows of tourists and economy. Since the early 1990's, the UNWTO has pioneered the development of sustainability indicators to tourism and destinations in order to support monitoring of environmental and socio-cultural impacts.

The latest definition of Sustainable development of tourism dates from 2004. WTO's conceptual *Definition of Sustainable development of tourism* is:

> *"Sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. Sustainability principles refer to the environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability. Thus, sustainable tourism should:*
>
> - *Make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.*
> - *Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.*
> - *Ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all shareholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation.*
> - *Sustainable tourism development requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political*

leadership to ensure wide participation and consensus building. Achieving sustainable tourism is a continuous process and it requires constant monitoring of impacts, introducing the necessary preventive and/or corrective measures whenever necessary. Sustainable tourism should also maintain a high level of tourist satisfaction and ensure meaningful experience to the tourists, raising their awareness about sustainability issues and promoting sustainable tourism practices amongst them."

Rather than being an exact definition, it is more like a conceptual framework aimed at ensuring a mutual understanding of sustainable tourism development. Nevertheless it serves as a basis for the development of statistics and indicators linked to the monitoring of environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism.

The UNWTO conceptual definition of sustainable tourism development could be a basis for identifying available data/statistics that allow measuring/monitoring environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism.

7 Data availability at the national and regional level

7.1 Existing data at the national and regional levels

7.1.1 National level

UNWTO collects data from member countries as well as countries not member of the organization, in total data are collected from 211 countries – including EU 25+2+2.

UNWTO data are available for World regions according to WTO definitions (Americas, Africa, Europe), but not for regions within countries.

Unfortunately, not all countries provide all the data requested by WTO. There are therefore considerable gaps in the figures. There are also differences in definitions.

Only in a few cases do the data on arrivals concern flows of visitors at the border: Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, these data do not always result from a census operation, as is the case of France which extrapolates, using Balance of Payment estimates, observations made only from time to time. Flows of visitors measured at borders usually include travellers visiting friends and relatives (i.e. staying in unpaid forms of accommodation) and day visitors (particularly relevant for small countries).

For the other countries, statistics of arrivals refer to arrivals of non-resident tourists in all types of tourism accommodation establishments or hotels and similar establishments. The effect of the two different forms of measurement is unknown, but surely important.

Finally, the criterion of residence is not always used either, as certain countries still produce their statistics based on nationality (case of Greece, Italy, Portugal). The impact of this difference is unknown.

Table 2 and three summarize the basic set of country indicators that at present support the international comparability of tourism activity and the definitions of key indicators:

Table 2: Basic indicators on inbound tourism, domestic tourism, outbound tourism and tourism industries

Inbound tourism
Arrivals
Visitors
Tourists (overnight visitors)
Same-day visitors
Arrivals by country of origin
Arrivals by mode of transport (cruise, air, rail, road, sea)
Arrivals by purpose of visit
Leisure, recreation and holidays
Business and professional
Other purposes
Accommodation
Overnight stays in hotels and similar establishments
Guests in hotels and similar establishments
Overnight stays in all types of accommodations establishments
Average length of stay on non-resident tourists in all accommodation establishments
Tourism expenditure in the country
Travel
Passenger transport
Domestic tourism
Accommodation
Overnight stays in hotels and similar establishments
Guests in hotels and similar establishments
Overnight stays in all types of accommodation establishments
Average length of stay of resident tourists in all accommodation establishments
Outbound tourism

Departures

Tourism expenditure in other countries

Travel

Passenger transport

Tourism Industries

Hotels and similar establishments

Number of rooms

Number of bed-places

Occupancy rate

Average length of stay (residents + non-residents

Table 3: Definition of indicators

INBOUND TOURISM

Arrivals

When a person visits the same country several times a year, each visit by the same person is counted as a separate arrival. If a person visits several countries during the course of a single trip, his/her arrival in each country is recorded separately. Consequently, arrivals are not necessarily equal to the number of different persons travelling.

Arrivals data correspond to international visitors to the economic territory of the country of reference and include both tourists and same-day non-resident visitors.

Data may be obtained from different sources: border statistics derived from administrative records (police, immigration, traffic counts, and other types of controls), border surveys and registrations at accommodation establishments.

Arrivals by region

The aggregate of basic indicators does not always correspond to the total of the basic indicators due to the exclusion by some countries of "nationals residing abroad" and of "arrivals from other countries of the world".

Accommodation

Overnight stays refers to the number of nights spent by non-resident tourists in accommodation establishments (guests). If one person travels to a country and spends five nights there, that makes five tourist overnight stays (or person-nights).

Average length of stay refers to the average number of nights spent by non-resident

guests in the country.

Expenditure

Expenditure associated with tourism activity of visitors has been traditionally identified with the travel item of the Balance of Payments (BOP): in the case of inbound tourism, those expenditures associated with non-resident visitors are registered as “credits” in the BOP and refers to “travel receipts”.

The new conceptual framework approved by the United Nations Statistical Commission in relation to the measurement of tourism macroeconomic activity (the so-called Tourism Satellite Account) considers that “tourism industries and products” includes transport of passengers. Consequently, a better estimate of tourism-related expenditures by resident and non-resident visitors in an international scenario would be, in terms of the BOP, the value of the travel item plus that of the passenger transport item.

Nevertheless, users should be aware that BOP estimates include, in addition to expenditures associated with visitors, those related to other types of individuals.

The data published should allow international comparability and therefore correspond to those published by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (and provided by the Central Banks); in the case of a significant difference with data provided to WTO by National Tourism Administrations (NTAs), the NTAs data will be given separately in Annex “Country notes”.

DOMESTIC TOURISM

Indicators are the same as for Accommodation in Inbound Tourism but referred to resident tourists.

OUTBOUND TOURISM

Departures data correspond to tourists and sameday resident visitors outside the economic territory of the country of reference. As in the case of arrivals, departures are not necessarily equal to the number of different persons travelling.

Indicators on expenditure are equivalent to those for Inbound Tourism but registered as “debits” in the BOP’s travel and passenger transport items.

The data published are also provided by IMF and the same previous warning is applicable.

TOURISM INDUSTRIES

Hotels and similar establishments

The number of rooms and bed-places refers to the capacity in hotels and similar establishments for providing temporary accommodation to visitors.

Occupancy rate refers to the relationship between available capacity and the extent

to which it is used. This rate may refer either to use of rooms or of beds. Occupancy rate is based on the number of overnight stays of both resident and non-resident tourists.

Average length of stay refers to both resident and non-resident overnight stays.

7.1.2 Regional level

To the extent that a definition following the NUTS classifications 2 and 3 is applied, data is available from Eurostat, NACE and the ESPON Database for the following categories:

- The capacity of collective tourism accommodation (hotels, campsites etc), for which data is required annually and down to around county level or equivalent (i.e. NUTS 3).
- Guest flows at these collective accommodation establishments, showing arrivals and nights spent in different broad types of accommodation. Most information is again required annually, with data down to NUTS 2. Some information, on arrivals, nights spent and occupancy rates, is available monthly for the country as a whole.

7.2 International tourism statistics

7.2.1 System of tourism statistics (STS) and the tourism satellite account (TSA)

The System of Tourism Statistics (STS) can be seen as a subset of the General Statistical System that secures a description of tourism and the measurement of its economic contribution. UNWTO defines STS as follows:

> *"A System of Tourism Statistics (STS) should be understood, as that part of the General Statistical System providing reliable, consistent and appropriate statistical information on the socio-economic structure and the developments of tourism, integrated within all the economic and social statistics related to other fields, at different territorial levels (state, infra-state and international)."*

The design of the STS should be viewed as the basic coordination framework of all the information produced by all stakeholders in tourism. Concepts, definitions, classifications, indicators and accounting aggregates relating to tourism, designed so as to secure an exhaustive description of the tourism phenomenon in all its aspects (physical, social, economic, etc.) and a

measurement of its economic impact within a context of international comparability are a structural part of the system.

Although it is the countries' responsibility to carry out the development of the STS, the WTO recommends this should follow the basic principles of official statistics approved by the United Nations Statistical Commission (11/15 April 1994). Those principles provide guidelines for establishing and maintaining a credible STS and therefore, the use of such principles should be understood as a necessary condition to maintain users' confidence in tourism statistics and, particularly, to help guaranteeing the integrity, transparency and confidentiality of the individual data and the public access to the available statistics.

Regarding its socio-economic aspect, the STS can be defined as a set of components, of statistical nature, made of the statistical sources themselves and the corresponding data obtained (i.e. statistics drawn from surveys, administrative records, or of a synthetic nature - like the TSA -, etc.), the specific tools, methodological references and instruments used at some stages of the process that the generation of statistics entails (as is the case of concepts, definitions, classifications, databases, etc.), and also the instrumental and organizational resources used in all these processes. As a consequence, the STS encompasses the technical aspects of field operation, the creation of statistical infrastructure, the elaboration of the results, and the completion of work leading to an integration of the data into a system of information.

Users concerned more specifically with the production and analysis of tourism statistics will find additional references in the actual official documents which are entitled "Recommendations on Tourism Statistics" and "Tourism Satellite Account (TSA): Recommended Methodological Framework". These two documents, approved by the United Nations, contain the existing recommendations on tourism statistics. The purpose of the first of these, approved in 1993, was to develop a first set of basic elements of STS, and the second relates to the design of the instrument that today is the unifying framework of most of its components, i.e. the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA), approved in 2000. Both recommendations correspond to the institutional role that the WTO-OMT assumes in statistics: the comparability of economic statistics, the development of international standards and the process of general guidelines.

In order for the STS to be, in its own right, a subsystem of the corresponding General Statistical System, WTO-OMT believes that, besides the TSA, it would be necessary to have also a Tourism Balance of Payments (TBP) because this would be another instrument unifying the referred subsystem, a function that the Balance of Payments performs for the General Statistical System. To some extent, a third unifying element could

be a Tourism Labour Accounting System (LAS-T). A first version of the methodological design of the LAS-T was prepared by ILO and presented by the UNSC in March 2001.

The scheme in Table 4 highlights the structure of the System of Tourism Statistics:

Table 4: System of tourism statistics

1. BASIC STATISTICS
1.1. TOURISM CONSUMPTION
1.1.1. Concepts
1.1.2. Tourism units
1.2. TOURISM SUPPLY
1.2.1. Concepts and units
1.3. PRODUCTION FACTORS
1.3.1. Labour force
1.3.2. Capital
1.3.3. Technical innovations

2. CLASSIFICATIONS RELATING TO TOURISM STATISTICS
2.1. TOURISM SPECIFIC PRODUCTS (List of)
2.2. STANDARD INTERNATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF TOURISM ACTIVITIES (SICTA)

3. TOURISM SATELLITE ACCOUNT (TSA)
3.1. TSA CONCEPTS
3.2. TSA AGGREGATES
3.3. CLASSIFICATIONS FOR TSA
- Tourism characteristic products (List of)
- Tourism characteristic activities (List of)
3.4. TSA TABLES OF RESULTS
3.5. TSA EXTENSIONS
- TSA - Regional
- TSA - Indicators
- TSA - Supranational perspective
- TSA - Functional perspective
- TSA - Institutional perspective
- Tourism Labour Accounting System

4. TOURISM BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

The concepts and units have been developed on the basis of the conceptual framework of the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA). Consequently, the definitions used are linked to this new statistical instrument.

The data collected in the STS are normally collected by the National Statistical Offices and only available at national level and regional level understood as Macro regions: Europe, Americas etc.

The TSA is to be seen from two different perspectives:

- As a new statistical tool including concepts, definitions, aggregates, classifications and tables compatible with international national accounting guidelines which will allow for valid comparisons between regions, countries or groups of countries, and make also these estimates comparable with other internationally recognized macroeconomic aggregates and compilations;
- As a building process to guide countries in the development of their own system of tourism statistics, the main objective being the completion of the TSA, which could be viewed as a synthesis of such a system.

The TSA recommendations should be understood to be the first step in a process of methodological development of this new statistical instrument whose operational character is a synthesis shared in common with National Accounts. Its progressive implementation by countries depends on the development achieved in the corresponding implementation of SNA93.

The TSA is an important information base for the estimation of the economic effects of changes in tourism demand, but is not in itself a technique for impact estimation. Impacts refer to *changes, resulting from specific events or activities,* in the economic contribution and should not be confused with the contribution itself. Contribution measures the size and overall significance of the industry within an economy. Economic impact implies the change in the total economy as a result of such a contribution and needs to allow for extensive interactive effects which will have occurred across the economy. It is possible to undertake an economic impact study of the effects of changes in final demand, but this requires the use of specific economic modelling techniques such as Computable General Equilibrium Modelling.

The structure of the TSA is designed to show the relationship between the demand for products generated by tourism, and their total supply. The process for tourism involves identifying products consumed by visitors, such as accommodation services and meals, and linking these products to the industries that produce them.

Information on the role tourism plays in national economies throughout the world is deficient, and credible data concerning the scale and significance of

tourism are needed. To address this, the UNWTO, in conjunction with the Commission of the European Communities-Eurostat, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and United Nations Statistical Division),has produced the '*Tourism Satellite Account: Recommended Methodological Framework*'.

In the TSA, products are what are purchased by or for visitors. Activities (or industries) produce products. These products are classified as tourism characteristic, tourism connected and tourism specific (related):

- *Tourism characteristic products* are those products, which, in most countries, it is considered, would cease to exist in meaningful quantity or those for which the level of consumption would be significantly reduced in the absence of visitors, and for which statistical information seems possible to obtain
- *Tourism connected products* are a residual category including those that have been identified as tourism specific in a given country, but for which this attribute has not been acknowledged on a world wide basis.
- *Tourism specific products* are the sum of the two previous categories. In some countries these products are called 'tourism related'.

Another category is products which are consumed by visitors but which is not important enough to fall into the above categories. In the TSA, these are aggregated into a single category "Other".

In order to measure demand (products consumed) information is required on purchases by or for visitors. (Fixed capital formation and government collective consumption are not currently included for estimating value added, GDP or employment in the TSA although there is provision for them to be included in separate tables in the TSA.)

Tourism consumption comprises, as well as consumption by leisure visitors, consumption by business visitors relating to a business trip. Such visitors may be conducting business on behalf of themselves or a private or public sector employer. In the System of National Accounts (SNA), such consumption is treated as intermediate consumption, but in the TSA, to fully reflect the full value of tourism demand, it is treated as tourism final consumption.

7.2.2 Concepts and definitions that need specific consideration

The ambition for a future ESPON study must be to use available sources and to go beyond what is currently possible. A number of concepts will then need specific consideration since the definitions of concepts will have implications on data availability. In particular concepts like "Usual environment",

“Residence”, “Forms of tourism”, “Trip” and “Purpose of visit” need consideration.

Usual environment

The concept of usual environment is undoubtedly the basic foundation that supports the conceptual structure of tourism as a scope of analysis in itself and whose precise definition affects the measurement of the variables of trips and visitors and, to a lesser degree, also that of bed-nights. Consequently, it is also relevant to other fields of analysis such as mobility and the regulation of visitor traffic. Therefore, its definition should vary according to the scope of analysis and the territorial perspective used.

In addition, visitor’s expenditure most be considered. The TSA conceptual framework’s analytical power lies precisely in the link between the physical and monetary nature of tourism activity on the demand side. What has to be done then is to include a new variable (of a monetary nature), and consequently, characterize different trips according to their degree of significance in terms of their economic impact.

Although it is not always possible (or even feasible) to design a statistical operation that collects both the number of trips and the corresponding associated expenditure at different sub-national levels, it is inevitable that the measurement of one variable and/or the other will be carried out through statistical operations that use samples of households and surveys of all or part of their members. If this is the case, the design of this type of sources, as in the vast majority of directly collected statistical sources, uses territorial scope as one of the variables of stratification of the sample. Therefore, the municipality would be the most disaggregated territorial administrative unit on which it would be possible to structure an entire set of statistical information in relation to a scope of analysis (tourism, in our case) that needs territorial articulation at various levels.

The above reasoning leads us to specify the different perspectives that would be used to establish different definitions of the concept of usual environment for the purposes of comparability of the number of trips and their corresponding economic valuation:

- the perspective of measuring the economic impacts of tourism activity (in terms of number of trips made by residents in their tourism travel in the national territory, and of the corresponding associated expenditure);
- the administrative delimitation of the territorial scope of reference (NUTS 0, NUTS 3 and NUTS 5/LAU 2);

- the varying economic significance of the trips made in terms of associated expenditure (recurring and non-recurring trips in the course of a year).

If the objective is not comparability but rather a more precise analysis in a specific territorial scope, a different type of definitions would be necessary, such as distance travelled, specific natural environments or others.

From the perspective of the economic measurement of tourism activity, not all trips are equally significant. While there is growing empirical evidence of the great importance of the number of trips of short duration carried out in a recurrent manner throughout the year (normally to a second residence and on weekends) in countries with high population density, a high level of transport infrastructure development, and in general, with a high level of economic development, this does not necessarily imply that these trips have a significant average expenditure in terms of the additional expenditure of these type of visitors at the place visited.

Consequently, an effort would be made to differentiate this type of trips, which do not generate a very significant average turnover (and which in any case would require some kind of allocation procedure in order to be quantified) from those that are not of a recurrent nature (not necessarily of long duration) but that nevertheless generate the bulk of tourism business turnover at least in relation to the companies and establishments belonging to the most significant branches of the tourism industry: accommodation, restaurants, transport, and travel agencies. Moreover, with regard to the measurement of this type of expenditure, not only is their direct measurement feasible through surveys of those who make them, but it is also feasible to cross-reference them with other sources of information such as the turnover of the establishments mentioned.

Concept of residence

The ILO has just approved a new definition of the concept of residence, which should be taken into account in any kind of household survey and not just in household budget surveys. The provisional definition is as follows: “the membership of a household consists of all persons usually resident in the household, where usual residence should be defined in a manner consistent with the provisions in the latest version of the *Principles and recommendations for population and housing censuses of the United Nations*. A minimum duration of 6 months may be used as one of the criteria for determining usual residence”. This greater flexibility provided by the possibility of considering household members as not sharing the same residence in a given year is of special relevance at both the national and regional levels.

Forms of tourism

The existence of a new type of visitor (“internal visitors from the rest of the national territory”) obliges to adapt the different forms of tourism in the following way:

- “internal” regional tourism consumption: this covers consumption by internal visitors who are resident in the region (or territorial level in question);
- “receiving” regional tourism consumption: this covers consumption in the region by visitors who are not resident in the country plus that by resident visitors from the rest of the national territory;
- “generating” regional tourism consumption: this covers consumption by residents from the region but outside it, that is, in other regions of the country in question and in the rest of the world;
- “interior” regional tourism consumption: this covers “internal” plus “receiving” regional tourism consumption.

Concept of trip

This is a key variable for the analysis of both tourism and mobility; all the more if a regional perspective is used. It is considered necessary to define it in terms of stages of the trip (stops, same-day travel, overnights, etc.). If a system of household surveys is used, it would be advisable to use travel diaries (which would be analogous to the expenditure logs used in household budget surveys), techniques similar to that of time use, which approximate the succession of activities carried out in the course of a tourism itinerary, or any other system that makes it possible to reconstruct the different characteristics of the trip made.

A unique trip, taking a traveller outside his/her usual environment might have more than one impact on a unique geographical level. The string of impacts will depend on how the trip is taking the traveller from his/her point of origin to his/her point of destination, (which means of transportation, with or without stops and overnights, ..) and on how the breakdown of "regions" is defined.

Looking at a trip from the point of view of the traveller, who is usually requested to define it using the further point from his/her point of departure might be very different than looking at it from the perspective of the places visited. There is no additivity. How do we reconcile the different sources? This is particularly important, as certain areas are principally "transit" areas for visitors, heading to other final destinations. Nevertheless, these areas

are experiencing a tourism activity, and might try to act on these flows of visitors in order for persuade them to stay.

We understand that it would be necessary to define “trip stages” at both the national and regional levels and to suggest a practicable approximation at least for the case of tourists: if, for example, this is not included in the questionnaire of the national survey on the tourism behaviour of residents, it would be impossible to use it at the regional level. The experience of Australia in this respect is especially relevant. As L. Jonson (200x) notes when referring to the Bureau of Tourism Research expenditure methodology for estimating regional data related to international visitors,

> *“while national data on international visitor expenditure has been available for some years, information on the distribution of this expenditure amongst Australia’s regions has not. As a single trip will often involve several destinations, regional expenditure estimates cannot simply be produced by aggregating survey responses. Instead, numerous assumptions need to be made if total trip expenditure is to be allocated amongst the regions visited on the trip.*
>
> *Recognising this gap, the BTR recently developed a modelling approach, which was first applied to data from the 1997 IVS to produce consistent estimates of expenditure by international visitors at the State/Territory and regional level. The model uses survey data on total trip expenditure as well as data on expenditure in a randomly selected location. In very general terms, this modelling approach allocates foreign visitor expenditure to regions on the basis of where each night was spent and relative costs in the region.”*

A modelling approach should also need to determine which stratification levels would prove more adequate in order to distribute the total expenditure across the regions or places visited, and decide whether it is an approach based on variations of average expenditure by type of space (seaside, mountain, countryside, etc…) or by segments of tourist markets (luxury tourism, cruise tourism, skiing holidays, MICE market, etc…).

Compared to this case, the experience of Spain is quite different, as the national sources themselves that were used for the measurement of arrivals by non-residents and the corresponding associated expenditure, as well as that relative to the tourism behaviour of Spanish residents all had a regionalized sample precisely to allow greater quality in the estimates of tourism expenditure in the respective regions visited.

Purpose of the visit

If a person has more than one stopover in a tourism region, they may report more that one reason for visiting the region. Main purpose for the region is defined as the purpose which is associated with the largest number of nights in the region.

It is important to recognize that for a particular region, purpose of the visit need not be the same as the main purpose of the trip. Consider an international visitor who comes to the UK for the main purpose of conducting business in London, but also spends a week in the Highlands on holidays. That person's expenditure would contribute to England's business estimate and Scotland's holiday estimate.

One important aspect is identifying other motives aside from the main purpose of the trip, as well as the different activities visitors engage in during their stay. This information can be useful for accurately estimating length of stay and average expenditure in certain tourism segments (such as meetings tourism, sporting events, etc.). These cases are probably of greater interest to RTAs than to NTAs.

7.3 Filling the gaps

As part of the TSA development project, the UNWTO has developed some initiatives to fill different type of information gaps in tourism statistics providing general guidelines in order to:

- measure arrivals and associated expenditures of non-residents by developing a model border surveys (probably less relevant for an integrated Europe);
- measure domestic tourism comparable data by implementing a tourism module in Household Income/Expenditure Surveys;
- use administrative data jointly with survey data at national borders, create a statistical universe of non-resident visitor.

All these initiatives both complement and supplement the System of Tourism Statistics as developed in most countries both at the national as well as subnational level. Special Attention in the first two initiatives has been placed in order that the measurement of some key characteristics of activity of visitors both in inbound and domestic tourism generates equivalent data.

Information gaps may be met by adding questions to existing surveys, using administrative data, or using data modelling techniques:

- *Modules or supplementary surveys*: are questions added to an existing survey to provide information on particular aspects of tourism or particular topics of interest (like WTO's tourism module proposals for domestic tourism (http://www.ilo.org/)). The results from supplementary questions can then be analysed in conjunction with data already collected in the base survey. For effective implementation of supplementary surveys a framework for developing and implementing supplementary surveys needs to be in place. This framework should include:
    - a requirement for evaluation of alternative data sources, including administrative records. If the information is already available, a supplementary survey would not be required;
    - criteria for assessing proposals for supplementary survey (for example, the supplementary survey shall not undermine the goodwill and value of the base survey);
    - checklists for assessing impact, including effect on respondent burden;
- *Administrative data*: presents a number of advantages:
    - since they already exist, costs of direct data collection and further burden on respondents are avoided;
    - they are usually available for the complete universe, and hence, they are most of the time not constrained by sampling error limitations;
    - they can be used in numerous ways in the production of statistical outputs, such as the creation and maintenance of frames and the replacement of statistical collection.

  As well as direct production of statistics from the data, a number of options exist whereby administrative datasets could be extended through integration with each other or with survey data.

  However, the use of administrative records may raise concerns about the privacy of the information in the public domain. These concerns are even more important when the administrative records are linked to other sources of data. What the administrative data is used for needs to be carefully considered.

  The main disadvantage is the difficulty involved in comparing data across countries, since both definitions may be different for the indicators as well as for the regional delimitations.
- *Data modelling techniques* are used extensively to derive synthetic estimates when the cost of obtaining small area statistics from a

survey is too great. Synthetic estimates are achieved through the development and use of sophisticated statistical modelling and estimation techniques which integrate data from two or more sources. Each data source brings both strengths and weaknesses to the modelling process. Survey data are often restricted in their capacity to produce reliable estimates due to the restrictions of sample size whereas administrative data may bring good geographic coverage but may exclude certain groups of people from the population. Subtle changes within the population of a region may not always be recognized by the assumptions made in the modelling process, therefore synthetic estimates should always be used with care and movements over time should be used rather than absolute values generated by any modelling process.

Information may also be generated by the regulatory authorities of the different types of traffic, from other sources of an administrative nature (Such as Social Security records). However, there are other sources that are especially useful for the regional analysis of tourism activity: Credit and bank cards, Toll payments on motorways, Fiscal sources (VAT, Business Income forms, Employers Returns Tax, Municipal administration sources in the case of touristic municipalities.

In 2004, a guidebook was developed on “Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations” to help tourism managers obtain and use the best information possible in support of better decision making regarding sustainable development for tourism.

In the guidebook an extensive number of indicators are described for the purpose of monitoring sustainable development. Both quantitative measurements as well as qualitative measurements have been used as means to portray indicators.

Concerning the links between the definition on sustainable tourism development and data, many existing data sources can be adapted as indicators measuring sustainability.

A sample of Baseline indicators has been developed as a suggested minimal set to be considered by destinations and which can allow comparison with other destinations. One example here is Tourism seasonality, where baseline indicators are: Tourist arrivals by month or quarter (distribution throughout the year); Occupancy rates for licensed (official) accommodation by month (peak periods relative to low season) and % of all occupancy in peak quarter or month); % of business establishments open all year; Number and % of tourist industry jobs which are permanent or full-year (compared to temporary jobs).

8 Tourism trends at national level

In the final report, this chapter will present a discussion on the state of tourism at the European, national and regional levels across the ESPON space. Both the demand side and the supply side of tourism will be discussed and the spatial impact of tourism for different kinds of regions analysed. The analysis is planned to be developed along the following steps:

1. The regions in which the “tourism industry” has the largest impact will be calculated on the basis of employment and economic impact. This will enable us to determine regions within countries where tourism-related sectors are over-represented compared to the national average. Country by country calculations helps to avoid confusion caused by structural differences in employment as well as in data availability and data definitions.
2. Accommodation capacity (NUTS 3) and number of guests (NUTS 2) is used to calculate the absolute size of the sector as well as the tourist density per population and accommodation per population comparatively for regions in Europe. The European-level data is then linked with the national data to produce a regional tourism indicator for all ESPON regions.
3. A typology of regions is produced, based on this indicator and on destination characteristics like purpose of visits (business/leisure etc.), location (mountain/coast/urban etc.), attraction (skiing/shopping etc.), seasons (summer/winter etc.).
4. The spatial impacts are further discussed through an analysis where the tourism index and the typologies are discussed together with data from the ESPON database like population development, GRP, employment, unemployment, accessibility, hazards etc.

For this interim report, only a short overview of trends at the European level is included, as identified and described by UNWTO in their publications: *Tourism Market Trends* and the *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer* (chapter 8.1), together with an overview of the information provided by the TourMIS database (chapter 8.2) and a description of regionalised tourism statistics from Denmark (chapter 8.3).

Taken together, these inputs both give a picture of the development of tourism and of the challenges of measurement at the regional level.

8.1 Travel patterns in Europe

The Tourism Market Trends is an annual publication, whereas the UNWTO Barometer is produced three times a year.

8.1.1 Arrivals

Europe, which has averaged 3.6% increases in international arrivals from 1990 – 2000, experienced a dramatic fall in tourist arrivals after 0911 (Northern Europe ended that year with minus 5.9%) and it was not until 2004 that a rebound was seen. In 2005 Europe experienced a 4% increase in arrivals. 4% is 0.1% lower than 2004 but still above average growth rate as forecasted in the WTO 2020 Vision, i.e. 1.9-3.6% (for the Mediterranean) and 3.7%-4.6% (for Northern Europe).

Southern and Mediterranean Europe tripled their growth compared to 2004 results, while 2004 winners: Central and Eastern Europe registered a marked slowdown from 11% to 4%.

Northern Europe experienced a 7% growth, while Western Europe was down to 2%. Among the Nordic Countries, Sweden performed best while Denmark was the only country to experience a decline.

Frances results masks differences within the country. Cities affected by autumn riots had poor results while Nice after several tough years had a growth of 5% mainly due to a loyal British market and the return of the US and Asian Markets.

One major trend when looking at arrivals is that arrivals from long-haul travel have picked up which seems to have favoured in particular old mature destinations.

8.1.2 Expenditures

France is expecting an increase in tourism receipts because of an increase in tourists from long-haul markets like the US and Japan, but figures for 2005 are still a bit sketchy.

8.1.3 Country of origin

A few highlights:

France and the Netherlands saw better than average results for long-haul markets. Expectations on an increase in Chinese tourists were not met.

After several tough years, the Japanese market seems to recover, but it is led by a generation 50+.

Italy appears to have done well in two important emerging source markets: China and Russia.

8.1.4 Purpose of visit

In the majority of cases (2/3) the purpose of visit to Europe is leisure, recreation and holidays. However this category has decreased in weight in favour of tourists who visit Europe for business and professional purposes.

Europe is characterized by a slightly larger share of “business and professional” visitors than other parts of the world.

Austria, Netherlands and Germany experienced growth in the MICE segment whereas Belgium had a decline due to the temporary closure of Palais de Congrés.

Urban tourism was the strongest segment in 2005.

The new Japanese traveller is above all interested in experiencing the local lifestyle at the destination they visit.

Looking at trends in investment, it seems like wellness/spa tourism is likely to increase.

8.1.5 Length of stay

Tendency to shorter stays due to fragmentation of holidays and the upcoming of new products like city-breaks, events, but Eastern Europe has seen an increase in the length of stay probably due to the fact that when tourists get to know the destinations and the product improves, they tend to spend more days at the destination.

Spain is attracting elderly and longer staying tourists.

8.1.6 Mode of transport

The growth in low-cost airlines continues to have the greatest impact on the travel patterns.

Air travel is picking up on road transport which is still by far the most popular mode of transport in Europe.

Low-cost airlines have in particular benefited secondary airports and city-tourism to the detriment of rural areas and accommodation categories like bed and breakfast. Furthermore to some countries like Hungary new low-cost airlines result in competition for domestic tourism and there are concerns that some airports will turn into hubs diverting tourists from

staying in the destination. However low-cost airlines have been a major factor behind the success stories in Central and Eastern Europe.

High speed trains affect mostly domestic tourism as long as the railway companies mainly operate nationally. But wherever new high speed routes are constructed they represent serious competition to air transport

8.1.7 Types of accommodation used

Due to the increase in urban tourism, hotels based in the cities are performing well. At the same time boutique hotels have experienced stronger growth compared to normal hotels.

There is a relative increase in demand for conventional non-hotel accommodation. There is growing interest in accommodation in historical buildings. Cruises are up.

8.2 The TourMIS database

Tourism related data with European scope in TourMIS capture national and city tourism statistics available by the respective national or regional statistical office. The data is entered by more than 150 tourism managers from almost all European countries. These users (data inputers) have special data entry rights which allow them to maintain their statistics in the database. The system has an automatic procedure which reminds the data inputers by email in case they forget to update their statistics in time.

Today, TourMIS (www.tourmis.info) provides free access to market research information for more than 8,000 tourism managers, researchers, and students from all over the world and plays an important role in exchanging experiences among the participating users. Since its official Internet launch in 1999, the number of international inquiries and users was growing steadily up to more than 100,000 inquiries in 2005. The growing proportion of tourism professionals registered in TourMIS is indicating that the system is increasingly being used by tourism managers in Europe.

Tourism managers use TourMIS to generate "reports" that contain rows and columns of numbers. The strengths of the TourMIS database are its attributes to provide:

- very topical information (monthly data is entered immediately when it becomes available in the different destinations);
- its intention to distinguish between different definitions following the recommendations of UNWTO;

- it's capability to provide meta-information (annotations concerning the definitions and methodologies associated to the data) along with the data;
- it's objective to support the information needs of tourism managers (e.g. Tourism managers have the chance to discuss and decide on further system developments during regular TourMIS seminars organized by the European Travel Commission and European Cities Tourism);
- TourMIS consists of the largest regularly maintained database on city tourism statistics – currently there are data available for approximately 100 European cities.
- TourMIS also includes information on bednights and arrivals for 54 markets, including data on domestic tourism flows.

The weaknesses of the TourMIS database are:

- Spatial information is available for countries (NUTS 0) and cities only. Cities are frequently not corresponding to the NUTS classification.
- All data entries are organized voluntarily by interested tourism managers. If the official destination marketing organization is not interested (or not capable enough) data will be missing; Hence, some (presumably important) European cities are not represented in the database.
- Although TourMIS is intensively used by the industry and is supported by its pan-European representatives (European Travel Commission, European Cities Tourism), it is currently not officially acknowledged by UNWTO or Eurostat.

Below there are a series of examples for national and city tourism statistics available in TourMIS.

Table 5: Executive report on national tourism statistics (provided by ETC members) generated automatically based on the latest available information in TourMIS (generated on May 26, 2006)

Tourism in Europa

Trends in Total Europe (1)

Year 2006 (in % p.y.)

Market	Arrivals	Bednights	(4)
Total foreign	**-3,6**	**3,0**	8/9
Germany	-10,9	-14,0	8/9
United Kingdom	3,0	4,0	7/9
France	5,8	6,8	8/9
Netherlands	1,2	5,0	8/9
Italy	3,1	0,7	8/9
United States	6,5	4,2	8/9
Japan	-10,7	-4,1	7/8

Latest trends in European destinations (2)

Total foreign 2006 (in % p.y.)

Destination	Arrivals	Bednights	Period (5)
Austria	-4,3	-6,0	1-3/1-3
Bulgaria	0,4	-	1-4
Cyprus	-3,9	-	1-4
Estonia	-6,0	-1,2	1-3/1-3
Finland	-	14,5	1-2
Hungary	-4,2	-8,1	1-3/1-3
Malta	-3,4	-9,6	1-3*/1-3*
Norway	-	3,0	1-3
Portugal	-	13,0	1-2*
Slovenia	5,0	5,0	1-4/1-4
Sweden	-	5,3	1-3
United Kingdom	2,0	-	1-3*

Performance during the last 10 years (3)

Total foreign and domestic (in % p.y.)

	Arrivals	Bednights	(4)
2005	1,9	1,9	8/12
2004	4,1	0,8	14/19
2003	1,1	-0,1	18/22
2002	2,9	1,7	17/21
2001	1,3	1,4	16/20
2000	4,8	3,1	16/20
1999	2,4	4,3	18/23
1998	3,9	3,2	16/20
1997	6,1	3,8	14/19
1996	3,3	-0,1	15/20

Total foreign (in % p.y.)

	Arrivals	Bednights	(4)
2005	5,7	3,2	9/8
2004	7,1	0,5	19/20
2003	1,3	0,8	22/23
2002	2,4	2,5	23/23
2001	1,6	2,6	22/22
2000	6,4	0,8	24/23
1999	2,5	3,7	26/25
1998	5,3	4,8	23/23
1997	6,2	4,2	22/22
1996	3,0	-0,2	22/22

Total domestic (in % p.y.)

	Arrivals	Bednights	(4)
2005	3,5	-1,5	4/6
2004	4,0	-0,3	12/17
2003	3,2	0,8	17/21
2002	2,6	-0,1	16/21
2001	2,2	1,1	14/20
2000	1,5	1,4	14/20
1999	5,2	3,7	15/21
1998	3,4	3,1	15/19
1997	5,3	4,0	13/18
1996	2,3	0,7	13/18

Notes

(1) Mean value (median) of latest reported change rates.

(2) Relative change compared to the same period in the previous year.

(3) Mean change rate (median) compared to previous year.

(4) Bednights/Arrivals = Number of destinations TourMIS could calculate a change rate.

(5) * = Estimate

Table 6: Executive report on city tourism statistics (provided by ECT members) generated automatically based on the latest available information in TourMIS (generated on May 26, 2006)

City tourism in Europe

January - February 2006 in +/- % (1)

	Foreign	Domestic	Total	(2)
Bednights	9,1 ↑	3,5 ↑	7,9 ↓	22/23/28
Arrivals	9,3 ↑	4,8 ↑	6,9 ↓	23/24/27

Performance of Cities in Europe

Bednights: January - February 2006

	(4)	absolute	% p.y.
Berlin	NA	1.755.250	9,2 ↑
Barcelona	NA	1.729.540	12,0 ↓
Munich	NG	1.039.208	1,5 ↓
Vienna	NAS	1.020.592	10,0 ↑
Hamburg	NA	854.472	12,4 ↓
Stockholm	NA	640.367	8,6 ↓
Budapest	NA	600.697	-3,1 ↓
Copenhagen	NGS	546.840	13,7 ↑
Zurich	NA	414.410	4,4 ↑
Valencia	NG	379.092	25,6 ↓
Helsinki	NA	336.508	6,6 ↓
Dresden	NA	273.851	14,9 ↑
Salzburg (City)	NA	215.493	15,4 ↑
Tallinn	NA	212.480	11,4 ↓
Innsbruck	NA	181.061	-9,2 ↑
Bilbao	NG	123.071	1,2 ↑
Malmö	NG	105.172	1,3 ↓
Zagreb	NA	104.610	7,2 ↓
Tampere	NA	102.229	11,5 ↓
Turku	NA	83.990	6,8 ↑
Graz	NA	81.945	4,1 ↓
Linz	NA	80.257	3,6 ↓
Dubrovnik	NA	42.750	1,4 ↑
Klagenfurt	NA	33.940	16,4 ↑
Olomouc	NA	26.086	6,1 ↓
Bregenz	NA	20.512	9,4 ↓
St. Pölten	NA	12.231	3,8 ↑
Eisenstadt	NA	3.516	30,7 ↑

Development during the last 12 months

Domestic + Foreign	Arrivals	Bednights	(3)
February 2006	6,0	7,1	27/28
January 2006	7,8	8,5	27/28
December 2005	5,7	9,2	31/28
November 2005	5,5	4,8	31/29
October 2005	5,4	4,7	31/29
September 2005	5,1	5,6	31/29
August 2005	6,8	12,4	32/30
July 2005	3,4	4,7	32/30
June 2005	6,3	7,9	32/31
May 2005	3,8	5,9	33/32
April 2005	7,1	8,2	33/32
March 2005	1,5	6,4	33/33

Trends in Important Markets

January - February 2006

Market	Arrivals	Bednights	(3)
France	2,4 ↑	5,2 ↓	24/26
Germany	5,6 ↑	10,3 ↓	24/26
United Kingdom	0,5 ↑	2,3 ↑	23/26
Italy	-0,5 ↑	-3,1 ↑	24/26
Netherlands	8,8 ↑	9,8 ↑	24/26
Spain	7,3 ↓	17,3 ↓	23/25
Sweden	4,3 ↓	4,4 ↓	21/25
Europe	5,6 ↓	5,6 ↓	24/25
United States	7,5 ↓	8,8 ↓	22/24
Japan	-3,6 ↓	-1,9 ↓	22/24

Notes

↓ ↑	Change compared to periode January - January 2006
(1)	Mean change rate (median) compared to previous year.
(2)	Foreign/Domestic/Total = Number of cities in this sample.
(3)	Arrivals/Bednights = Number of cities in this sample.
(4)	Definition(s):
AD	Arrivals of visitors (incl. day visitors)
ADS	Arrivals of visitors (incl. day visitors) in greater city area
AZ	Arrivals in all forms of accommodation (incl. VFR)
AZS	Arrivals in all forms of accommodation (incl. VFR) in greater city area
AA	Arrivals in all accommodation establishments
AAS	Arrivals in all forms of accommodation in greater city area
AG	Arrivals in hotels and similar establishments
AGS	Arrivals in hotels and similar establishments in greater city area
NZ	Bednights in all forms of accommodation (incl. VFR)
NZS	Bednights in all forms of accommodation (incl. VFR) in greater city area
NA	Bednights in all accommodation establishments
NAS	Bednights in all forms of accommodation in greater city area
NG	Bednights in hotels and similar establishments
NGS	Bednights in hotels and similar establishments in greater city area

Table 7: National tourism statistics (provided by ETC members) for 2005: Table presents a summary of most commonly used definitions (generated on May 26, 2006)

National tourism statistics of the European Travel Commission
Market: Total foreign and domestic
Period: 2005

	Bednights				Arrivals			
ETC destinations	absolute	Note	+/-	% p.y.	absolute	Note	+/-	% p.y.
Austria	119.241.539	NA	1.990.458	1,7	29.337.323	AA	870.971	3,1
Cyprus	15.058.319	NA	341.050	2,3	2.218.786	AA	31.944	1,5
Czech Rep.	40.320.477	NA	-460.231	-1,1	12.361.793	AA	142.104	1,2
Denmark	42.054.961	NA	-148.483	-0,4				
Estonia	4.110.116	NA	352.401	9,4	2.071.707	AA	149.581	7,8
Finland	17.070.502	NA	358.283	2,1	9.040.945	AA	76.869	0,9
Hungary	19.334.750	NA	19.334.750		6.933.142	AA	6.933.142	
Ireland Rep	11.856.000	NG	-8.984.000	-43,1	6.762.716	AT	-7.221.833	-51,6
Norway	25.946.303	NA	1.014.769	4,1				
Portugal	35.520.654	NG	1.380.073	4,0				
Slovakia	10.732.754	NA	-15.783	-0,1	3.428.083	AA	183.598	5,7
Slovenia	7.572.584	NA	-16.153	-0,2	2.395.010	AA	53.729	2,3
Sweden	44.940.256	NA	2.274.265	5,3				
Switzerland	32.943.736	NG	32.943.736		13.802.796	AG	13.802.796	

AV = Arrivals of visitors at frontiers
AT = Arrivals of tourists at frontiers
AA = Arrivals in all accommodation establishments
AG = Arrivals in hotels and similar establishments
NA = Bednights in all accommodation establishments
NG = Bednights in hotels and similar establishments

Notes:
ad Denmark: Monthly data before 2004 do not include holiday houses.
ad Finland: All figures related to accommodation facilities are preliminary since 2004.
ad Hungary: Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office, Hungarian National Tourist Office
ad Slovenia: Source: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (Capacities for August)
ad Sweden: Source: Swedish Tourist Authority/Statistics Sweden
ad Switzerland: Arrivals= Arrivals at point of accomodation

Table: ETC-J6

Table 8: City tourism statistics (provided by ECT members) for 2005: Table presents a summary of most commonly used definitions (generated on May 26, 2006)

City tourism statistics compiled by European Cities Tourism
Market: Total foreign and domestic
Period: 2005

	Bednights				Arrivals			
Cities	absolute	Note	+/-	% p.y.	absolute	Note	+/-	% p.y.
Aachen	799.584	NA	799.584		361.783	AA	361.783	
Augsburg	461.467	NA	1.655	0,4	274.337	AA	-448	-0,2
Barcelona	12.198.243	NA	586.505	5,1	5.487.564	AA	400.877	7,9
Belgrade	1.166.771	NGS	1.258	0,1	521.171	AD	-196.545	-27,4
Berlin	14.620.315	NA	723.955	5,2	6.464.522	AA	304.555	4,9
Bilbao	1.021.494	NG	56.821	5,9	550.264	AG	31.970	6,2
Bonn	1.159.506	NA	95.257	9,0	606.267	AA	51.504	9,3
Bregenz	264.549	NA	-2.550	-1,0	148.669	AA	-2.525	-1,7
Budapest	6.536.950	NA	501.129	8,3	2.577.371	AA	239.189	10,2
Cardiff	1.540.000	NA	157.000	11,4	694.000	AA	17.000	2,5
Copenhagen	4.719.457	NGS	269.708	6,1				
Dijon					809.431	AG	59.689	8,0
Dresden	2.949.215	NA	310.195	11,8	1.346.787	AA	111.461	9,0
Dublin	21.638.000	NZS	1.197.000	5,9	4.991.000	AZS	143.000	2,9
Dubrovnik	1.887.619	NA	287.339	18,0	465.363	AA	79.853	20,7
Eisenstadt	49.427	NA	7.319	17,4	26.316	AA	2.531	10,6
Gijón	674.710	NG	81.475	13,7	285.400	AG	20.256	7,6
Göteborg	2.963.682	NGS	236.830	8,7				
Graz	729.029	NA	11.066	1,5	381.054	AA	29	0,0
Hamburg	6.435.106	NA	523.642	8,9	3.450.864	AA	203.816	6,3
Heidelberg	929.765	NA	29.274	3,3	532.067	AA	10.645	2,0
Helsinki	2.555.310	NA	57.141	2,3	1.425.733	AA	17.057	1,2
Innsbruck	1.206.104	NA	34.315	2,9	664.930	AA	-16.222	-2,4
Klagenfurt	360.456	NA	16.617	4,8	165.041	AA	595	0,4
La Coruna					634.674	AA	-49.872	-7,3
Linz	686.938	NA	39.455	6,1	372.746	AA	3.922	1,1
London	119.600.000	NZS	900.000	0,8	25.800.000	AZS	-400.000	-1,5
Luxembourg City	801.914	NA	50.161	6,7	403.339	AA	33.773	9,1
Malmö	925.016	NG	63.443	7,4				
Munich	8.355.517	NG	668.284	8,7	4.122.156	AG	377.756	10,1
Münster	1.085.130	NA	33.102	3,1	478.291	AA	36.629	8,3
Novi Sad					67.646	AG	67.646	
Nürnberg	1.956.393	NA	81.108	4,3	1.072.980	AA	50.287	4,9
Olomouc	231.335	NA	15.948	7,4	111.692	AA	2.425	2,2
Paris	33.664.075	NG	2.086.262	6,6	15.399.820	AG	207.263	1,4
Prague	11.204.950	NA	538.321	5,0	4.108.565	AA	244.576	6,3
Regensburg	660.176	NA	22.964	3,6				
Reykjavik	886.668	NA	56.150	6,8	389.753	AA	19.272	5,2
Salzburg (City)	1.884.864	NA	42.954	2,3	1.047.029	AA	18.339	1,8
St. Etienne	445.466	NA	14.260	3,3	247.897	AA	-11.200	-4,3
St. Pölten	107.404	NA	6.939	6,9	52.692	AA	1.793	3,5
Stockholm	5.024.135	NA	371.095	8,0	2.651.889	AA	204.923	8,4
Tallinn	1.938.045	NA	249.188	14,8	1.130.570	AA	67.991	6,4
Tampere	735.577	NA	-6.025	-0,8	491.265	AA	23.418	5,0
Tarragona	1.215.215	NA	244.035	25,1	355.853	AA	81.711	29,8
Turku	705.786	NA	14.980	2,2	423.502	AA	17.610	4,3
Valencia	2.490.060	NG	318.676	14,7	1.286.962	AG	162.521	14,5
Vienna	9.476.164	NAS	394.295	4,3	4.088.415	AAS	190.195	4,9
Weimar	543.239	NA	64.425	13,5	276.941	AA	28.738	11,6
Würzburg	638.685	NA	545	0,1	382.543	AA	-14.028	-3,5
Zagreb	897.116	NA	155.866	21,0	487.558	AA	88.493	22,2
Zurich	2.990.916	NA	110.655	3,8	1.673.277	AA	54.550	3,4

Table 9: Comparative Analysis supported by TourMIS: Example for Berlin benchmarking its performance with other European cities available in TourMIS (generated on May 26, 2006)

City tourism statistics compiled by European Cities Tourism
Information: Bednights in all accommodation establishments
Period: 1985 - 2005

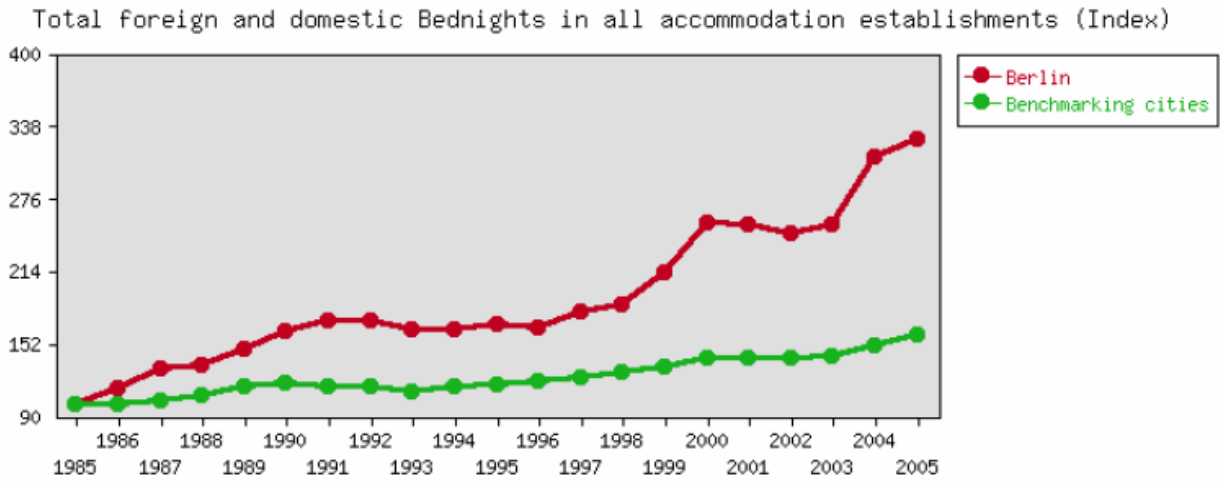
	Berlin			Benchmarking cities (1)		
Period	absolute	% p.y.	Index	% p.y. (2)	Index	Number (3)
1985	4.474.100	13,7	100	2,1	100	55
1986	5.060.207	13,1	113	-0,0	99	57
1987	5.799.126	14,6	129	3,3	103	61
1988	5.980.432	3,1	133	3,9	107	61
1989	6.580.546	10,0	147	7,1	115	64
1990	7.243.638	10,1	161	3,3	118	67
1991	7.667.706	5,9	171	-3,2	114	70
1992	7.661.052	-0,1	171	-0,1	114	73
1993	7.292.337	-4,8	162	-3,5	110	78
1994	7.343.791	0,7	164	3,5	114	78
1995	7.529.639	2,5	168	2,0	116	86
1996	7.397.623	-1,8	165	1,7	118	85
1997	7.988.748	8,0	178	2,8	122	85
1998	8.268.011	3,5	184	4,4	127	89
1999	9.477.402	14,6	211	3,7	132	95
2000	11.412.925	20,4	255	5,3	139	99
2001	11.345.295	-0,6	253	0,0	139	98
2002	11.015.564	-2,9	246	-0,2	139	93
2003	11.329.459	2,8	253	0,9	140	86
2004	13.896.360	22,7	310	6,8	149	75
2005	14.620.315	5,2	326	6,0	158	48

(1) = Aachen, Aix-en-Provence, Amsterdam, Augsburg, Baden-Baden, Barcelona, Basel, Belgrade, Bergen, Berlin, Bern, Bilbao, Bologna, Bonn, Bordeaux, Bratislava, Bregenz, Bremen, Brussels, Budapest, Cagliari, Cardiff, Cologne, Copenhagen, Dijon, Dresden, Dublin, Dubrovnik, Düsseldorf, Edinburgh, Eisenstadt, Florence, Frankfurt, Freiburg, Geneva, Genua, Ghent, Gijón, Glasgow, Graz, Göteborg, Hamburg, Hannover, Heidelberg, Helsinki, Innsbruck, Jersey, Karlsruhe, Klagenfurt, La Coruna, Lausanne, Leipzig, Linz, Lisbon, Ljubljana, London, Lucerne, Luxembourg City, Lyon, Lübeck, Madrid, Malmö, Manchester, Mannheim, Marseille, Milan, Montpellier, Munich, Münster, Nice, Nürnberg, Olomouc, Oslo, Padua, Paris, Porto, Potsdam, Prague, Regensburg, Reykjavik, Rome, Rostock, Rotterdam, Salzburg (City), Saragossa, Seville, Sintra, Split, St. Etienne, St. Gallen, St. Pölten, Stockholm, Stuttgart, Tallinn, Tampere, Tarragona, Trier, Turin, Turku, Valencia, Venice, Verona, Vicenza, Vienna, Warsaw, Weimar, Würzburg, Zagreb, Zurich.

(2) = Mean change rate (median) compared to previous year.
(3) = Number of cities in this sample.

Table: ECT-J9

Figure 2: Comparative analysis for Berlin



8.3 Case Denmark: National and Regional Tourism Trends

8.3.1 Developing national and regional Tourism Satellite Accounts for Denmark

Since the mid 1990s Denmark has developed and been using a model for measuring tourism trends and the economic and employment impacts of tourism, the so called TØBBE model, based on collected data concerning basic tourist characteristics and expenditures. The model has gradually been adjusted to be in compliance with the Tourism Satellite Accounts. Departing from this model, Denmark in the recent years has been among the pioneering countries to attempt developing regional TSAs.

Principles for developing regional TSA

The development of Danish Regional TSAs is based on the three principles outlined by the OECD and WTO for the tourism satellite accounts:

- *Industrial sectors should be consistent with the national account*. The selection of TSA industrial sectors should be based on recognised national economic sector accounts and Standard International Classification of Tourism Activities (SICTA). In the case of the Danish national accounts, the industrial sector is classified into 132 standard

sectors. However, they are built up from about 800 detailed industrial branches.

- *Tourism industries should be comparable with other industries.* Once the tourism industries are identified, one should be able to compare them with other conventional industries. For example, one should be able to compare labour productivity between a tourism industry and agricultural industry.
- *Regional data should be balanced between the supply and demand at commodity level.* Regional TSA will be based on both regional production account and national make and use tables. The national make and use tables are transformed to regional make and use tables by using the regional production accounts or the regional primary income as the distribution keys.

The principle of making regional TSA is to make a tourism supply and demand balance at the commodity level. This is called the "top-down method", as it is based on the national statistical data. Due to the fact that tourism satellite account is a special account and a large amount of tourism information does not exist in the national accounts, the tourism survey data are therefore used to supplement the national accounts data. This is called the »bottom-up method«. The tourism demand estimation should also be consistent with the national accounts.

The key words for developing regional TSA are: regional statistical data with reliable statistical sources, comparable with other industries and consistent with the national accounts. Besides, regional tourism statistics should be produced at a regular basis and should be presented within macroeconomic frameworks.

Procedures in developing Danish regional TSA

The Danish R-TSA is developed in the following nine steps:

1. *Identifying the tourism-specific products (TSP).* A set of commodities and services within the national make-use tables is identified as tourism-specific products. The national make-use tables in Denmark have as many as about 2,800 commodities and services. About 32 commodities and services are identified as the tourism-specific products according to the TSA documents from Eurostat/OECD/WTO/UN.
2. *Identifying the tourism branches.* Regional primary income and employment data with detailed branch break-down (by about 800 branches) can be obtained from Statistics Denmark. Within these detailed industrial branches we identify about 30 branches as tourism-

related industries. This detailed information serves as a key to distribute the standard industries into more detailed TSA industries. The tourism supply shares within each standard industry are obtained. The selection of detailed tourism industries is the same as the classification of TSP products.

3. *Making a balance between supply and demand by the TSP products.* In the national accounts, make and use tables are balanced at each commodity level. This means that the total supply equals the total demand by each commodity. All the TSP products also obtain a balance between the supply and demand.
4. *Regional tourism data (survey data) is aggregated into national tourism consumption.* The Danish TØBBE data are the regularly surveyed data, part of which is from Statistics Denmark and another part is interviewed by the Denmark National Tourism Organization. The tourism survey data are important data source for compiling the regional TSA, because the national use tables provide only private consumption as the national total. There is neither information of regional private consumption, nor information of regional tourism consumption. The aggregated tourism demand by consumption groups is compared with both the tourism supply and demand from the national accounts.
5. *Estimation of the total tourism demand at national level by the TSP products.* The total national tourism demand at each TSP is estimated by both national make-use tables and tourism demand data. The methodology is called the “mixed method” which is decided by the availability of data.
6. *Regionalising the national make-use tables.* Regionalising the national make-use tables is implemented through the regional production accounts. Danish regional production accounts contain data for regional production value, regional intermediate consumption, gross domestic product at factor costs, and production taxes less subsidies on production, compensation to employees, gross operating surplus and number of employment. From one data source, the national make table contains production data that are broken down by sector and product; from another data source (the regional production accounts), the production data are broken down by sector and region. Combining two data source, regional make-use tables can be compiled.
7. *Making a regional tourism satellite account (R-TSA*). With the help of the detailed regional industrial data and the regional tourism data, the national TSA is distributed into the regional TSA. It has to make sure

during this procedure that supply and demand at the regional level are balanced at all commodity levels.

8. All the regional data including regional tourism statistics are *put into the interregional macroeconomic model* (in the Danish case, it is LINE model).
9. Applying the interregional model and calculating the tourism consequences in the regional economies.

Indicators and output from regional TSA

The main indicators for the regional TSA are, from the supply side:

- Regional supply share
- Regional tourism output
- Regional tourism GVA
- Regional tourism employment

From the demand side:

- Regional tourism demand: it is broken down by tourist types, nationalities and overnight forms.

From both supply and demand side:

- Tourism ratio on supply at each product level
- Tourism value added as percentage of industry total
- Tourism employment as percentage of industry total

Main outputs from the regional TSA are

- Regional inbound tourism consumption by TSP and non-TSP: same-day and overnight tourism consumption
- Regional domestic private tourism consumption by TSP and non-TSP: same-day and overnight tourism consumption
- Regional domestic business tourism consumption by TSP and non-TSP: same-day and overnight tourism consumption
- Regional outbound tourism consumption by TSP and non-TSP: same-day and overnight tourism consumption
- Internal regional tourism consumption
- Regional tourism production accounts: tourism industries and tourism products
- Regional tourism supply and demand, tourism ratios on supply
- Regional tourism employment

Measuring regional economic impacts

The economic impacts of tourism can be measured in relation to either income change or employment change or both. Correspondingly, both income and employment multipliers can be calculated. It is also important to distinguish between impacts in terms of absolute magnitude and impacts in terms of magnitudes relative to the size of the region. The sources of variation in impact are summarised in Table 10.

Table 10: Factors determining the impacts on employment of changes in tourist activity

	Total effects		Direct effects					Derived effects		
	Absolute impacts	Relative impacts	Absolute impacts	Relative impacts	Daily consumption					
	Volume (numbers)	Tourist intensity1)	Volume (numbers)	Tourist intensity 1)	Levels 2)	Com-position 3)	Labour content 4)	Trade	Commuting	Shopping
Urban area	High	Low	High	Low	High	High	Low	High	Low	High
Rural area	Low	Neutral	Low	Neutral	Low	Low	High	Low	Low	Low
Peripheral areas	Low	High	Low	High	Low	Low	High	Low	Variable	High

1) Number of tourists/population
2) Relative daily consumption by type of overnight stays by region
3) Composition of tourists' consumption by type of overnight stays by region
4) Labour content is an employment/gross output ratio

On the horizontal axis direct, derived and total effects are identified. On the vertical axis three types of regions are shown. The total effects are a result of the direct and derived effects. In general, the absolute impacts of a change in tourist activity are likely to be greatest in urban areas, where the volume of tourists is already high because of the size of the local economy. The reverse is true for rural and peripheral regions.

However, in terms of relative impacts on the regional economy changes in tourist activity will affect rural and peripheral areas more. The magnitude of the relative impacts depends upon the relative magnitude of the direct and the derived effects. The magnitude of the direct effects can be decomposed into four factors: Tourist intensity, level of daily consumption for type of overnight stay, composition of tourist activity by type of overnight stay and the employment content of tourist related activity. In relative terms, in urban areas tourist intensity is low, whilst consumption by type of overnight stay is high (for example, daily consumption by hotel guests is higher in

urban areas) and the composition of tourist activity by type of overnight stay is biased (a relatively large share of high expenditure overnight stays, such as hotels). This composition effect results in a higher employment content associated with any change in tourism-related economic activity, despite higher wage levels in urban areas.

The magnitude of the derived effects depends fundamentally on expenditure/income leakages from the regional economy. The first type of leakage is related to trade, which in turn can be divided into two types of commodity: immobile commodities (services), which are not subject to leakage and the mobile commodities (for example food), which are subject to leakage. The level of intraregional supply of mobile commodities determines the magnitude of the derived effects. Urban regions have lower levels of leakage as they have bigger and more diversified economies.

The second type of leakage is associated with commuting. If the labour employed in tourist-related activities and linked industries resides in the same region leakages will be small. If there is substantial inward commuting leakages will be larger. In urban areas leakages will be small, because the level of interregional inward commuting is lower. In peripheral areas the level of leakages depends upon degree of inward commuting and level of employment of seasonal labour, whose primary residence is another region.

The third type of leakage is related to shopping for household private consumption and for intermediate consumption in production. For urban regions both types of shopping will in relative terms be more intraregional for reasons of size and diversity of supply associated with the retail and wholesale sectors. In rural regions leakages are higher as interregional shopping is more general. In peripheral regions leakages are high because of remoteness and isolation.

8.3.2 National tourism trends in Denmark

Based on the TØBBE model, the following features on tourism trends in Denmark for 2004 can be highlighted:

Bednights

- There were 42.2 mill. bednights in Danmark for 2004, which was 1,2 mill. less (-2.9 pct.) than previous year.
- The number of hotel bednights increased while all other types of accommodation declined.
- The number of domestic bednights increased, making the increase over the last decade close to 20%.

- International bednights fell by 6.1 pct, but still makes up 53% of all bednights.
- The number of German bednights in Denmark fell by 10.2 pct, but still make up 62 pct. of all international bednights. Thus the decline in German tourists had a significant impact on tourism in general.
- Northern Jutland was still the largest tourist destination measured in bednights (6.6 mill.).
- 53 pct. of the bednights occurred in the 3rd quarter and July is the busiest month with ¼ of all bednghts in 2004.

Spending

- The turnover from tourism was estimated to 6.3 bill. € in 2004, with 60% coming from foreign tourists.
- The neighbouring markets Germany, Sweden and Norway generated 2/3 of the turnover from foreign tourism.
- The turnover from overnight staying tourists amounted to 5.1 bill €, whereof holiday tourism amounted to 2.5 bill. € and MICE 1.2 bill. €.
- The major part of tourist spending went into accommodation and restaurants (47 pct.).
- The daily average tourist spending was about 61€. MICE-tourists and Japanese tourists had the highest spending.

8.3.3 Regional tourism trends in Denmark

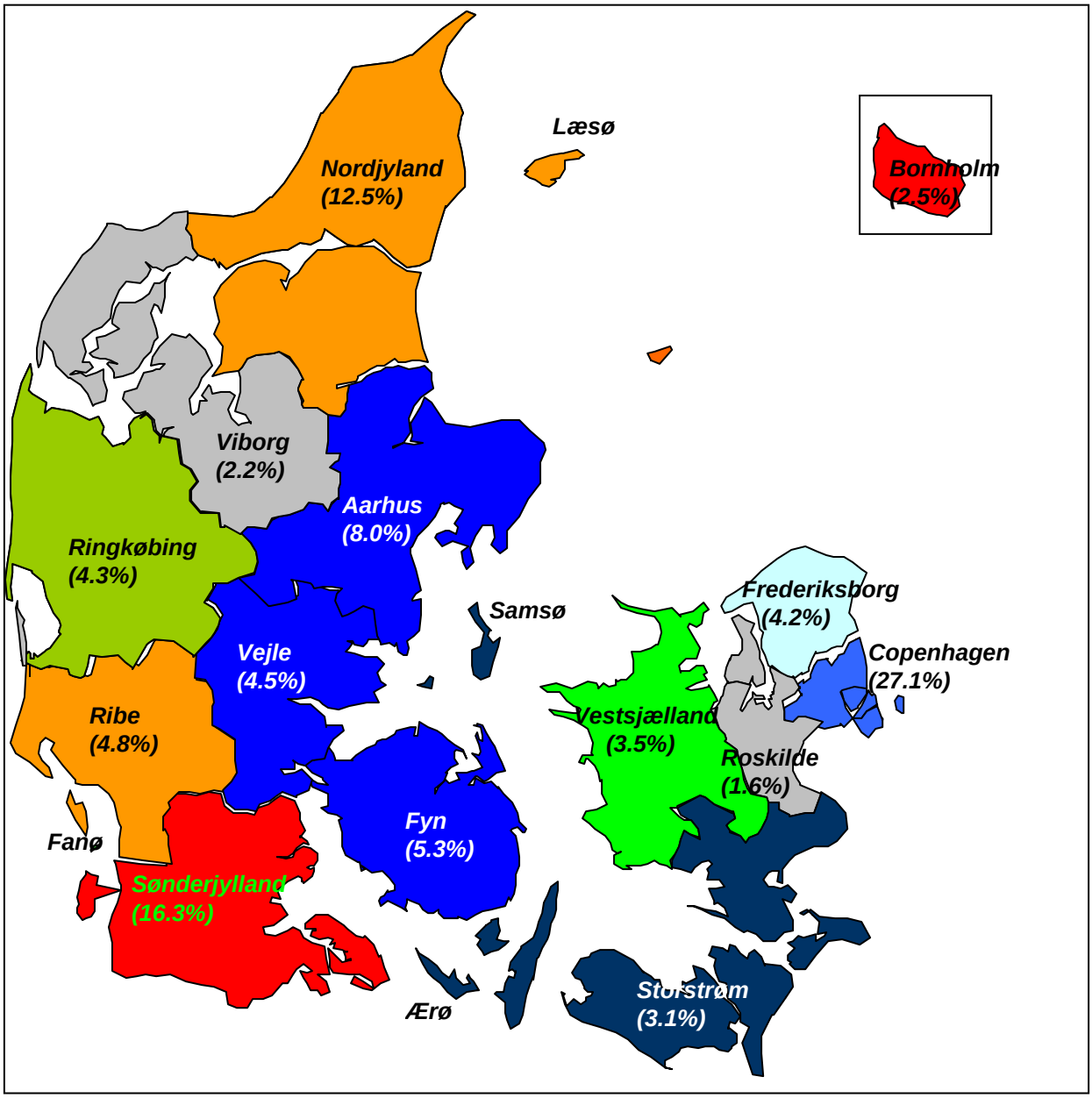
Tourism revenue in Denmark is approximately 6-7 billion € per year, which accounts for about 2% of the national gross output and 4% of the GDP at factor cost. Tourism creates about 70,000 jobs in Denmark, accounting for about 2.5% of total employment. About 47% of the tourism revenue is generated by domestic tourism (including domestic business travel consumption). International overnight tourism contributes with approximately 37.4% of the total tourism revenue, the rest (15.6%) is created by the international same-day visitors (i.e. border shopping).

Tourism revenue in Denmark covers various different forms of accommodation, including hotels for leisure, hotels for business and conference centres, camping sites, holiday centres, summer cottages, as well as visiting families and friends.

Figure 3 shows the 14 regions of Denmark. In 2001, the total tourism revenue was 49 billion DKK (about 6.6 billion €). The Copenhagen region, as the capital and also the economic and cultural centre, accounts for 27% of total tourism revenue. Two peripheral regions such as Sønderjylland and

Nordjylland have also large shares of tourism revenue mainly due to foreign same-day visitors and leisure tourists using summer cottages. Aarhus and Fyn regions, where large cities are located, have also relatively large shares of the total tourism revenue.

Figure 3. Regional shares of tourism revenues in Denmark 2001



Factors that influence the total effect of regional tourism impacts

The size of the region determines the absolute impact of a change in tourism activity. A large region attracts a large number of tourists and engages more employment in tourist service sectors. When the initial absolute tourist numbers are greater in a region, hence, more tourism revenue in this region, it generates more jobs in the tourism-related industries. On the other hand, the relative impact on a regional economy is also an important aspect, as tourism often plays a central economic role in some rural and peripheral regions.

Table 11 presents the factors that explain both absolute and relative impacts of tourism on a region. The vertical axis shows regions at a county level, where inner Copenhagen is defined as one regional unit and the County of Copenhagen is the area surrounding Copenhagen city. These two areas are so close to each other that they are simply treated as one region in the tourism survey data. The Copenhagen Region is presented as one unit at the bottom of the table.

The second column shows regional employment from which the size of the region can be identified. The third column shows total employment that is generated by tourism (i.e. the total tourism impact). It shows that the absolute impact is higher in the urban and relatively larger regions. The reverse is true for rural and peripheral regions where the absolute impact is smaller.

The relative impact on the regional economy is shown in the last two columns: tourism demand as a share of total regional demand and tourism generated employment as a share of regional employment. It can be seen that the peripheral regions, such as Bornholm, Sønderjylland, Nordjylland and Ribe (where Legoland is located) have higher shares of tourism than other regions.

Table 11: Factors explaining the total effect of tourism impacts

	Regional employment [2] (1000)	Tourism generated employment (1000)	Tourism demand as a share of total regional demand (%)	Tourism generated employment as a share of regional employment (%)
Copenhagen[1] *	422.3	12.7	2.81	3.01
County of Copenhagen[1] *	366.1			
Frederiksborg*	156.2	4.0	1.44	2.55
Roskilde	94.1	1.6	0.87	1.70
Vestsjælland	127.7	2.7	1.37	2.13
Storstrøm	106.7	3.3	1.71	3.13
Bornholm	19.2	1.2	7.07	6.45
Fyn *	222.0	5.3	1.30	2.40
Sønderjylland	124.1	4.2	7.01	3.41
Ribe	116.8	3.9	2.26	3.38
Vejle	186.2	4.4	1.35	2.35
Ringkøbing	152.9	3.8	1.47	2.48
Århus *	325.1	6.9	1.34	2.13
Viborg	123.0	2.3	0.97	1.89
Nordjylland *	245.0	8.6	2.75	3.52
Copenhagen Region[1)]	788.4	18.3	2.60	2.32
Denmark	2787.4	70.7	1.72	2.54

Note: * identifies the urban region where there is at least one big city centre.

1 Here Copenhagen is the inner city independent administrative unit, (the Municipalities of Copenhagen and Frederiksberg) whilst the County of Copenhagen is the area surrounding Copenhagen city. These two areas constitute Copenhagen Region. The tourism survey data do not distinguish two Copenhagen regions; all the tourism revenue and number of nights of tourists are simply put into the Municipalities of Copenhagen.

2 Regional employment at place of work by all sectors. The numbers are full-time equivalent jobs.

Factors that influence the direct effect for tourism impact

Table 12 shows factors that explain the direct effect on tourism multipliers. The numbers of tourist nights shown in the second column give a geographical distribution of tourists in Danish regions. Tourists, including the business tourists, mainly stay at hotels in the big cities, while the rural and peripheral regions attract relatively more leisure tourists who tend to stay at summer cottages and camping sites. Tourism intensity represented by the ratio of tourist nights to the regional population is shown in the third column. It reveals the relative importance of tourism in peripheral regions, such as in case of Bornholm, whose tourist to population ratio is 62.5.

Table 12: Factors explaining the direct effects of tourism impacts

	Number of tourist nights (1000) [1]	Tourist nights/ regional population [2]	Share of tourism revenue from hotels in total overnight tourism[3]	Indices of daily spending by holiday hotel guests[4]	Indices of daily spending by business hotel guest [5]	Labour content [6]
Copenhagen city *	10,162	17.2	75.4	1.80	1.46	1.92
County of Copenhagen*	3,639	5.9				2.12
Frederiksborg	5,971	16.1	24.3	1.29	0.82	2.53
Roskilde	1,590	6.8	33.5	0.77	1.24	2.57
Vestsjælland	6,396	21.4	13.9	1.02	0.97	2.84
Storstrøm	6,189	23.8	16.7	0.65	0.71	2.93
Bornholm	2,761	62.5	34.4	0.96	1.02	2.38
Fyn *	7,310	15.5	38.0	1.03	1.18	3.14
Sønderjylland	12,072	47.7	18.3	0.81	0.79	2.81
Ribe	7,320	32.6	18.6	1.01	0.81	2.98
Vejle	4,264	12.1	33.7	0.83	1.13	3.10
Ringkøbing	7,109	25.9	12.2	0.77	0.79	2.53
Århus *	9,575	14.9	33.0	1.05	1.21	2.72
Viborg	3,771	16.1	24.0	1.02	0.83	2.70
Nordjylland *	14,405	29.1	30.7	0.97	1.16	2.97
Copenhagen Region	13,800	20.2	67.7			1.97
Denmark	102,533	19.1	36.3			2.60

Note: * identifies the urban region where there is at least one big city centre.
Tourism data is missing for County of Copenhagen, see note 1 under Table 2.

1 Number of tourist nights includes all forms of tourist accommodations; it also includes foreign same-day trippers.
2 The ratio is calculated by the tourist nights in each region divided by the regional population.
3 This share is calculated from the tourism revenue from four forms of hotel tourists in the region divided by the total tourism revenue in the region from overnight tourists.
4 This index is calculated by the daily spending by hotel holiday guests in the region divided by the same category of the national average.
5 This index is calculated by the daily spending by hotel business guests in the region divided by the same category of the national average.
6 Labour content in the hotel sector is calculated by number of employment at hotel sector in the region divided by the regional gross output (in millions of DKK) in the hotel sector. It represents employment requirements for producing a million DKK of output. It is the inverse of labour productivity.

Examining the composition and level of tourists' daily consumption, it is helpful to understand differences by types of tourists and their daily spending on the region. Column four in Table 3 presents regional tourism revenue from hotel tourists as a share of the total tourism revenue from overnight tourists. It shows that the urban regions have higher shares of hotel tourists than the rural regions, with the exception of Bornholm (34.4%). Bornholm as a peripheral and island region has also a larger share

of business and leisure tourist stays overnight at hotels. The last two columns show the indices of daily spending by hotel holiday guests and business guests, respectively. These indices are calculated from the average daily consumption by the hotel guests in the region divided by the national average consumption of the same category. These indices confirm, as explained in the first section, that tourists (both leisure and business tourists) spend more in the urban regions than in the rural regions, which is why the direct effect is relatively greater in the urban regions.

The last column shows the labour content in production in the hotel sector. A lower labour content reflects normally a higher capital-labour ratio. This is the inverse of productivity, i.e. regional employment in the hotel sector divided by output (in million DKK) in the hotel sector. This shows the number of jobs produced by one million DKK output. When more jobs are derived, labour productivity is lower, and vice versa. Labour content in the rural regions is rel6atively higher than in Copenhagen Region, which means that any increase in direct expenditure at hotels generates more jobs in rural areas as compared with urban areas.

Factors that influence the derived effect for tourism impact

The tourism multiplier is defined as the ratio of the total tourism impact to the direct tourism impact. The total tourism impact is constituted by the direct and derived effects where the derived effects determine the magnitude of tourism multipliers. The factors explaining the derived effect are shown in Table 13.

The second column of the table presents the tourism employment multipliers by region. It is followed by the three columns showing the regional commuting quotients, shopping quotients and trade quotients.

Commuting quotients are calculated by taking the employed persons who both live and work in the region divided by the total employment in the region. When a commuting quotient is close to one, it means that commuting leakage is small. In other words, the employees mainly come from the region itself. When a commuting quotient is much lower than one, the leakage is large. From the table it shows that the commuting quotients are quite different. The urban regions, except Copenhagen, have higher commuting quotients than rural regions, while rural regions, except Bornholm, have lower commuting quotients. Bornholm, as an island region, has fewer possibilities to commute to other regions, while the Copenhagen Region, on the other hand, provides greater opportunities for commuters to get jobs across regions because of better transport facilities.

The shopping quotient is calculated by taking the household private consumption demanded by the residents in the region divided by the total local private consumption in the region. When a shopping quotient is close to one, it means that the shopping leakage is small. In other words, residents shop locally, which will give higher derived effect on the region and the reverse is true. Apart from the Copenhagen Region, the table shows that the shopping leakage is small in most regions.

The trade quotient is calculated from trade demand met locally divided by the total trade demand in the region. When a trade quotient is low it means that local firms demand less from the region itself, instead they demand more from other regions and foreign imports, so that the trade leakage is larger, and the reverse is true. The table shows that all the rural and peripheral regions have large trade leakages, proving that they depend more on other regions than urban regions.

Table 13: Factors explaining the derived effects in regional tourism multipliers

Regions at country level	Tourism employment multiplier [1]	Commuting quotient [2]	Shopping quotient [3]	Trade quotient [4]
Copenhagen city	1.33	0.48	0.90	0.78
County of Copenhagen		0.53	0.86	0.65
Frederiksborg	1.34	0.79	0.91	0.76
Roskilde	1.50	0.69	0.89	0.79
Vestsjælland	1.42	0.89	0.94	0.66
Storstrøm	1.36	0.92	0.96	0.73
Bornholm	1.24	0.97	0.99	0.79
Fyn	1.41	0.96	0.98	0.72
Sønderjylland	1.34	0.94	0.95	0.68
Ribe	1.34	0.88	0.96	0.66
Vejle	1.48	0.86	0.95	0.69
Ringkøbing	1.44	0.91	0.98	0.63
Århus	1.50	0.93	0.97	0.75
Viborg	1.52	0.89	0.95	0.65
Nordjylland	1.31	0.96	0.99	0.74
Copenhagen Region	1.44	0.77	0.97	0.78
Denmark	1.41	0.81	0.94	0.72

Note:

Tourism multiplier is missing for County of Copenhagen, see note 1 under Table 2.

1 Tourism employment multipliers, calculated from the total employment generation divided by the direct employment generated by tourism.

2 The commuting quotient is calculated from the employed persons who both live and work in the region divided by total employment in the region.

3 The shopping quotient is calculated from household private consumption purchased by the residents in the region divided by the total household private consumption in the region.

4 The trade quotient is calculated from the shares of total interregional trade demand met by the local production in the region.

The table above shows the relationships between tourism employment multipliers and these three quotients. Copenhagen is a major economic centre and has a large share of tourism revenue. It might be expected to have a relatively large tourism multiplier; however, the multiplier for Copenhagen city is 1.34, lower than the national average (1.41). This can be explained by the lower commuting and shopping quotients in Copenhagen. More than half of the employment in Copenhagen is in-commuters, and only 83% of local private consumption has been shopped for in Copenhagen. Therefore, the commuting and shopping leakages are larger in Copenhagen city. On the other hand, the trade quotient of Copenhagen is higher than in all other regions, showing that Copenhagen is also a trade centre.

The tourism multiplier (1.24) of the island of Bornholm is relatively low, as expected. The size of economy on Bornholm is smaller than other regions and it is a relatively isolated island – a peripheral region in Denmark. On the other hand, Bornholm has relatively high commuting and shopping quotients, so these kinds of leakages are smaller, but the trade leakage is relatively large on Bornholm.

Calculation of induced effects within the model includes more factors than trade, commuting and shopping shown in Table XX. These factors are related to income generation, factors which vary between regions and which affect the sizes of multipliers. For example, in low income regions, such as Bornholm and North Jutland, changes in income transfers as employment increases or decreases provide a greater level of coverage of income changes related to employment, reducing the multiplier effects. Thus, the automatic stabilisation effect of welfare state income transfers is stronger in low income areas. As hypothetical extreme case, the induced income effect will be zero if unemployment insurance compensates fully for income loss associated with unemployment

Table 14 shows the tourism multipliers for four small Danish islands. These islands are located relatively far away from the mainland, with one exception, and their commuting and trade leakages are relatively large. In addition, product variety of the island economies is also limited. The size of the economy and the trade and commuting leakages cause the small multipliers on the islands. However, this does not necessarily mean that tourism is not important on the islands. In the relative terms, tourism still plays a more important role on the island economies, as tourism is a relatively important sector in the areas.

Table 14: Factors explaining the derived effect for tourism multipliers on islands

Island	Tourism employment multiplier	Commuting quotient	Shopping quotient	Trade quotient	Regional employment
Fanø	1.07	0.48	0.90	0.78	1,008
Læsø	1.20	0.53	0.86	0.65	962
Samsø	1.38	0.79	0.91	0.76	1,904
Ærø	1.18	0.91	0.99	0.55	2,603

Note: The definition of the columns is the same as in Table 13.

9 Proposals for an ESPON II research project

The final report will as a conclusion make a draft Terms of Reference for an ESPON 2 study of the spatially relevant aspects of tourism. This ToR will be developed in two alternatives, one within a € 500,000 budget and one within a € 1 mill. budget.

Only some first ideas on these two ToRs are presented here.

9.1 Introduction - tourism within the scope of regional planning

Within the EU like most developed parts of the world, the last few decades have witnessed major shifts in various economic sectors. For instance, in numerous regions there has been large scale decline in primary activities like fishing and agriculture. The manufacturing sector has also witnessed major restructuring as traditional sectors like the steel industry or shipbuilding have all but been eclipsed.

Within such a climate it is evident that tourism has often appeared as a measure to curb decline in regions that have suffered from the loss of their traditional economic base. Whether these regions are predominantly rural or urban, policymakers have readily embraced tourism as a universal remedy for job creation and the creation of wealth. In many cases the very fabrics of these regions' past (industrial stock or agricultural buildings) have been transformed into visitor-oriented infrastructure.

Thus, we can see that tourism within most ESPON countries is regarded as a way to ensure that regions within these countries can regenerate, maintain, or even enhance their economic base. But if tourism is going to feature as one of the economic underpinnings of these European regions it is obvious that we need to gain a better handle as to how this sector affects host destinations.

For instance, what is the extent of the impacts of tourism on issues such as job creation or contribution to regional domestic product? Is it true that most jobs that are generated from tourism are seasonal, low skilled and low paid? How does tourism affect the natural and built environment in regions where it develops?

All too often the sector's proponents argue that tourism is a clean industry and certainly one that has far fewer negative impacts than manufacturing or logging. Is this always the case? Evidence thus far demonstrates that there

have been many instance of poor tourism development and this has created environmental havoc in host destinations. Then there are the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. What impacts does tourism have on the demographic profile of a destination? Is it true that tourism may lead to widescale removal of local populations who can no longer afford the cost of housing?

Within the scope of this project it is recognized that tourism is just one component of a complex system that affects spatial planning within the EU's numerous regions. Changes in any aspect of this system (such as steps that affect particular sectors like transportation, environment, or migration) will undoubtedly have an impact on tourism sector but by the same token the introduction of tourism or changes to this sector within a particular region will have numerous effects on various other sectors. Two examples:

If a new infrastructural project is put into place (such as the construction of a bridge) in order to enhance the accessibility of a remote area this step will undoubtedly have an impact on various sectors including tourism. For instance, the bridge may lead to the remote area becoming a popular tourist destination overnight. If unchecked, the growth of tourism will likely cause a number of problems.

A rural area that has suffered widescale agricultural decline provides incentives for the establishment of agrotourism. If tourism takes off it may lead to positive impacts for various other sectors including the local food industry.

So, in final analysis while tourism appears to be the lifeline for the generation of regional economic growth in the face of widescale economic restructuring, this sector cannot and should not be examined in isolation from other activities. The approach within the ESPON project should be one that examines tourism not for its own sake but instead analyzes the sector within a holistic framework. Such a comprehensive approach will analyze tourism's interplay with sectoral issues (e.g., the environment, accessibility, migration) and policy instruments (e.g., transportation policies, policies on the environment, structural funding).

Based on these pertinent points and the review of concepts, definitions and data in this report, we suggest two preliminary alternatives for a future ESPON project.

9.2 Alternative 1 – improved analysis through the use of national statistics and research

The proposals put forward revolve around the same topics and questions. These are:

- Gauging the importance of tourism within regional economies.

- How large is tourism (employment wise, income generation)? Where in the ESPON space is tourism particularly important?
- How does tourism affect – negative and positive - other sectors? (e.g., transportation sector, manufacturing).
- How do policies in various sectors affect tourism?
- How do various sectoral issues such as changes in the environment affect tourism?
- What are the spatial / land use implications of tourism?
- In what way does tourism play out territorially in various types of regions (e.g., islands, agricultural areas, cities)?
- How does tourism affect the existing fabric of different settlements?

This first alternative is based on a budget of € 500.000, and will allow for improving the analysis initiated in this report by analysing existing data and closing the existing data gaps. This would be done through a network of subcontractors covering all ESPON countries, i.e. making it possible to access national reports and national policy responses.

9.3 Alternative 2 – scenarios and the interrelationship with spatial policies

The second alternative is based on a budget of € 1.000.000 which will allow for a much more in-depth and elaborate analysis of the inter-relationship and impacts between policies/economic sectors and tourism. This would be carried out through a wider and more active network of subcontractors, working on for instance integrating a pan-European survey.

Furthermore, this more substantial alternative would make it possible to employ various scenario methodologies, relating tourism development to impacts of, for instance, future infrastructural development, changes in energy prices, climate, demographic changes etc.

A case in point is the increasing importance of migration, as expressed through the growth in tourism flows between the countries/regions of tourist origin and destination. There is a need to explain such tourism flows with an econometric method and explore the factors that influence a rise or a fall in the tourism flows. The factors can be found from both demand and supply sides. The implication for this investigation is to link the social-economic factors with tourism development trends.

During the last three decades, Europe has experienced radical changes, such as the ending of the Cold War and the fall of the Berlin Wall; the transition of the Central and Eastern European countries; EU enlargement from EEC12, EU15 to EU25. Following these changes, tourism flows has increased considerably due to a larger common border in the EU countries, abolishment of Visa regulations and economic development.

The data base for tourism statistics within the ESPON countries (preferably for NUTS 3 regions) and general economic statistics must be set up for this purpose. The tourism statistics should include number of arrivals and tourism receipts between the countries and at regional level the number hotels rooms, tourism employment, etc.

The general economic statistics should include the main economic indicators, such as population, GDP and GDP growth rates, import and exports, exchange rates, and distance between these countries and price level. Other variables might also be needed, such as passenger flows between the EU 29 countries, investment in infrastructure and tourism facilities, etc. Time series would be needed from data covering the period from 1980 to 2005.

Such an analysis would demonstrate the inter-relationship and implications between tourism development and spatial development, and thus high-lighting potential policy issues.

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Annexes

Annex 1 – Standard International Classification of Tourism Activities (SICTA)

SICTA TABLE

1	2	3	4	5	Category
ISIC division	ISIC Group	Class Main-sub		"T" for subclasses dedicated to tourism; "P" for part involvement in tourism	Name
A					AGRICULTURE
B					FISHING
C					MINING AND QUARRYING
D					MANUFACTURING
E					ELECTRICITY, GAS AND WATER SUPPLY
F					CONSTRUCTION
45					CONSTRUCTION
		4500-1		T	COMMERCIAL FACILITIES-HOTELS, RETAIL, ETC.
		4500-2		T	RECREATIONAL FACILITIES-SKI AREAS, GOLF COURSES
		4500-3		T	CIVIL WORKS-TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES, TERMINALS, DAMS
		4500-4		T	RESORT RESIDENCES-SECOND HOMES, WEEK-END HOMES
G					WHOLESALE AND RETAIL
50					SALE MAINTENANCE OF MOTOR VEHICLES AND FUELS
	501	5010		P	MOTOR VEHICLES SALES
	502	5020		P	MOTOR VEHICLE MAINTENANCE AND REPAIR

	503	5030	P	SALE OF MOTOR VEHICLE PARTS AND ACCESORIES
	504	5040	P	SALE, MAINTENANCE AND REPAIR OF MOTORCYCLES
	505	5050	P	RETAIL SALE OF MOTOR VEHICLES FUELS
	521			NON-SPECIALIZED RETAIL TRADE
		5211	P	RETAIL FOOD SALES
		5219	P	OTHER NON-SPECIALIZED RETAIL TRADE
	522			RETAIL SPECIALIZED FOOD SALES
		5220	P	RETAIL FOOD SALES
	523			OTHER RETAIL, SPECIALIZED
		5231	P	RETAIL SALES, PHARMACEUTICALS
		5232	P	RETAIL SALE OF TEXTILES, CLOTHING, FOOTWARE AND LEATHER GOODS
		5232-1	P	RETAIL SALE OF TRAVEL ACCESORIES, TEXTILES
		5232-2	P	RETAIL SALE OF TRAVEL ACCESSORIES, CLOTHING
		5232-3	P	RETAIL SALE OF TRAVEL ACCESSORIES, FOOTWARE AND LEATHER GOODS
		5232-4	T	RETAIL SALE OF TRAVEL ACCESSORIES, LUGGAGE
		5232-5	T	OTHER RETAIL SALE OF TRAVEL ACCESSORIES IN SPECIALIZED STORES
		5239	P	OTHER RETAIL SALES IN SPECIALIZED STORES
		5239-1	T	RETAIL SALES, SKIN-DIVING AND SCUBA EQUIPMENT
		5239-2	T	RETAIL SALES, SKY EQUIPMENT
		5239-3	T	RETAIL SALES, CAMPING AND HIKING EQUIPMENT
		5239-4	P	RETAIL SALES, HUNTING AND FISHING EQUIPMENT
		5239-5	P	PHOTOGRAPHIC SALES AND SERVICES
		5239-6	T	RETAIL SALES, GIFT AND SOUVENIR SHOPS
		5239-7	P	RETAIL SALES OF OTHER TRANSPORT VEHICLES

	524	5240	P	RETAIL SALES OF SECOND-HAND GOODS
		5240-1	P	RETAIL SALES, ANTIQUES
	525			RETAIL SALES NOT IN SHOPS
		5252	P	RETAIL SALES IN STALLS AND MARKETS
H				HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS
55				HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS
	551	5510	T	HOTELS, CAMPING SITES AND OTHER COMMERCIAL ACCOMMODATIONS
		5510-1	T	HOTELS AND MOTELS WITH RESTAURANTS
		5510-2	T	HOTELS AND MOTELS WITHOUT RESTAURANTS
		5510-3	T	HOSTELS AND REFUGES
		5510-4	T	CAMPING SITES, INCLUDING CARAVAN SITES
		5510-5	T	HEALTH-ORIENTED ACCOMMODATION
		5510-9	T	OTHER PROVISIONS OF LODGING, N.E.C.
	552	5520	P	RESTAURANTS, BARS AND CANTEENS
		5520-1	P	BARS AND OTHER DRINKING PLACES
		5520-2	P	FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANTS
		5520-3	P	FAST FOOD RESTAURANTS AND CAFETERIAS
		5520-4	P	INSTITUTIONAL FOOD SERVICES, CATERERS
		5520-5	P	FOOD KIOSKS, VENDORS, REFRESHMENT STANDS
		5520-6	P	NIGHT CLUBS AND DINNER THEATERS
I				TRANSPORT, STORAGE AND COMMUNICATIONS
60				LAND TRANSPORT, TRANSPORT VIA PIPELINES
	601	6010	P	TRANSPORT VIA RAILWAYS
		6010-1	T	INTERURBAN RAIL PSGR SERVICES
		6010-2	T	SPECIAL RAIL TOUR SERVICES
	602			OTHER LAND TRANSPORT
		6021	P	OTHER SCHEDULED PSGR LAND SERVICE
		6021-1	T	SCHEDULED INTERURBAN BUSES
		6021-2	T	LONG DISTANCE TOUR BUSES
		6021-3	P	SCHEDULED LOCAL AND METROPOLITAN TRANSIT

				SERVICES
		6021-4	P	SPECIALIZED SCHEDULED VEHICLES
		6022	P	OTHER NON-SCHEDULED PSGR LAND TRANSPORT
		6022-1	P	TAXIS
		6022-2	P	CHAUFFEURED VEHICLES
		6022-3	T	LOCAL TOUR VEHICLES
		6022-4	P	CHARTER BUSES, EXCURSIONS (SAME-DAY VISITS)
		6022-5	P	MAN OR ANIMAL-DRAWN VEHICLES
61				WATER TRANSPORT
	611	6110	P	SEA AND COASTAL WATER TRANSPORT
		6110-1	T	CRUISE SHIPS
		6110-2	T	SHIP RENTAL W/CREW
	612	6120	P	INLAND WATER TRANSPORT
		6120-1	T	INLAND WATER PSGR TRANSPORT W/ACCOMMODATION
		6120-2	T	INLAND WATER LOCAL TOURS
		6120-3	P	INLAND WATER TAXIS, FERRIES
62				AIR TRANSPORT
	621	6210	T	SCHEDULED AIR TRANSPORT
		6210-1	T	SCHEDULED AIR PSGR TRANSPORT
	622	6220	T	NON-SCHEDULED AIR TRANSPORT
		6220-1	T	NON.SCHEDULED AIR PSGR TRANSPORT
		622-2	T	AIRCRAFT RENTAL CREW
63				SUPPORTING AND AUXILIARY TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES
		6303	P	OTHER SUPPORTING TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES
		6303-1	T	OTHER SUPPORTING LAND TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES
		6303-2	T	OTHER SUPPORTING WATER TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES
		6303-3	T	OTHER SUPPORTING AIR TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES

		6304	T	TRAVEL AGENTS, TOUR OPERATORS AND GUIDES
		6304-1	T	TRAVEL AGENTS
		6304-2	T	TOUR OPERATORS, PACKAGERS AND WHOLESALERS
		6304-3	T	TICKET OFFICES NOT A PART OF TRANSPORT COMPANIES
		6304-4	T	GUIDES
J				FINANCIAL INTERMEDATION
65				FINANCIAL INTERMEDATION NOT INSURANCE/PENSIONS
	651			MONETARY INTERMEDIATION
		6519	P	OTHER MONETARY INTERMEDIATION
		6519-1	P	EXCHANGE OF CURRENCIES
	659			OTHER FINANCIAL INTERMEDIATION
		6592	P	OTHER CREDIT GRANTING
	660			INSURANCE AND PENSION FUNDING
		6601	P	LIFE INSURANCE
		6601-1	T	TRAVEL INSURANCE
		6603	P	NON-LIFE INSURANCE
K				REAL ESTATE, RENTING AND BUSINESS ACTIVITIES
70				REAL ESTATE ACTIVITIES
	701			REAL ESTATE ACTIVITIES WITH OWN OR LEASED PROPERTIES
		7010	P	BUYING OR SELLING OF OWN OR LEASED PROPERTY
		7010-1	T	BUYING OR SELLING OF OWN OR LEASED TOURISM PROPERTY
	702			REAL ESTATE ACTIVITIES ON A FEE OR CONTRACT BASIS
		7020	P	LETTING OF OWN OR LEASED PROPERTY
		7020-1	T	LETTING OF OWN OR LEASED TOURISM PROPERTY

	703			REAL ESTATE AGENCIES
		7030	P	REAL ESTATE AGENCIES
		7030-1	T	REAL ESTATE AGENCIES FOR TOURISM PROPERTIES
		7030-2	T	TOURISM PROPERTY MANAGEMENT
71				RENTING OF MACHINERY AND EQUIPMENT W/O OPERATORS
	711			RENTING OF TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT
		7111	P	RENTING OF LAND TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT
		7111-1	T	AUTOMOBILE RENTAL
		7111-2	T	MOTORCYCLE RENTAL
		711-3	T	RECREATIONAL VEHICLE, CAMPER CARAVAN REAL
		7113	P	RENTING OF AIR TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT
		7113-1	T	RENTING OF AIR TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT FOR PERSONAL USE
	713	7130	P	RENTING OF PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD GOODS
		7130-1	T	RENTAL OF WATER CRAFT AND RELATED FACILITIES
		7130-2	P	RENTAL OF HORSES
		7130-3	T	RENTAL OF BICYCLES
		7130-4	T	RENTAL OF SKI EQUIPMENT
		7130-5	T	RENTAL OF TOURIST-RELATED GOODS, NOT ELSEWHERE CLASSIFIED
73				RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
	732	7320	P	R&D IN SOCIAL SCIENCES
		7320-1	T	TOURISM RESEARCH
74				OTHER BUSINESS ACTIVITIES
	741			LEGAL, ACCOUNTING, BOOK-KEEPING & AUDITING, TAX CONSULTANCY, MARKET RESEARCH POLLING, BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT CONSULTANCY
		7413	P	MARKET RESEARCH AND POLLING
		7413-1	T	TOURISM MARKET RESEARCH

		7414	P	BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT CONSULTANCY ACTIVITIES
		7414-1	T	TOURISM BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT CONSULTACY SERVICES
	742			ARCHITECTURAL, ENGRING & OTH TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES
		7421	P	ARCHITECTURE AND ENGINEERING
		7421-1	T	TOURISM ARCHITECTURE AND ENGINEERING
	743	7430	P	ADVERTISING
		7430-1	T	TOURISM ADVERTISING
	749			BUSINESS ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
		7494	P	PHOTOGRAPHIC ACTIVITIES
		7494-1	T	PASSPORT PHOTOGRAPHERS
		7499	P	OTHER BUSINESS ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
		7499	P	TRANSLATION SERVICES
L				PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
75				PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION & DEFENCE; COMPULSORY SOCIAL SECURITY
	751			ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE
		7511	P	GENERAL PUBLIC PUBLIC SERVICE ACTIVITIES
		7511-1	P	CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATION
		7511-2	P	TAXATION, FEES, FINES, TARIFFS
		7511-3	T	INFORMATION BUREAUS
		7512	P	ACTIVITIES OF SERVICE AGENCIES
		7512-1	P	PROVISION OF TRANSPORT-RELATED FUNCTIONS
		7512-2	P	PROVISION OF CULTURAL, RECREATIONAL SERVICES
		7513	P	BUSINESS REGULATION
		7513-1	T	TOURISM ADMINISTRATION
		7513-2	T	REGULATION OF PRIVATE TRANSPORT ACTIVITIES
		7513-3	P	FISHING, HUNTING REGULATION

		7513-4	P	REGIONAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION
		7513-5	P	PROVISION OF TRANSPORT INFRASTRUCTURE
	752			PROVISION OF SERVICES TO THE COMMUNITY
		7521	P	FOREIGN AFFAIRS
		7521-1	T	VISA ISSUANCE, CONSULAR AFFAIS
		7523	P	PUBLIC ORDER AND SAFETY
		7523-1	T	SPECIAL POLICE, BORDER GUARDS, AIRPORT SECURITY
M				EDUCATION
80				EDUCATION
	803	8030	P	HIGHER EDUCATION
		8030-1	T	HOTEL SCHOOLS
		8030-2	T	TOURISM EDUCATION PROGRAMMES
		8030-3	T	RECREATION AND PARK SCHOOLS
		8030-4	T	TOURISM-RELATED EDUCATION, N.E.C.
	809	8090	P	ADULT EDUCATION
		8090-1	P	DRIVING INSTRUCTION
		8090-2	T	SKI INSTRUCTION
		8090-3	P	SWIMMING, SCUBA INSTRUCTION
		8090-4	P	FLYING INSTRUCTION
		8090-5	P	BOATING INSTRUCTION
		8090-9	T	TOURIST INSTRUCTION, N.E.C.
N				HEALTH AND SOCIAL SERVICES
O				OTHER COMMUNITY, SOCIAL AND PERSONAL SERVICES
91				ACTIVITIES OF MEMBERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS N.E.C.
	911			ACTIVITIES OF BUSINESS, EMPLOYERS, AND PROFFESIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
		9111	P	ACTIVITIES OF BUSINESS AND EMPLOYER ORGS
		9111-1	T	VISITOR AND CONVENTION BUREAUS

		9112	P	ACTIVITIES OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
		9112-1	T	ACTIVITIES OF TOURISM-RELATED PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
	912	9120	P	ACTIVITIES OF TRADE UNIONS
		9120-1	T	ACTIVITIES OF TOURISM INDUSTRY-RELATED TRADE UNIONS
	919			ACTIVITIES OF OTHER MEMBERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS
		9199	P	ACTIVITIES OF OTHER MEMBERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS
		9199-1	T	TRAVEL CLUBS
		9199-2	T	TRAVELERS AID SOCIETIES
92				RECREATIONAL, CULTURAL AND SPORTING ACTIVITIES
	921			MOTION PICTURES, RADIO, TV AND OTHER ENTERTAINMENT
		9212	P	MOTION PICTURE PROJECTION
		9213	P	RADIO AND TELEVISION ACTIVITIES
		9214	P	DRAMATIC ARTS, MUSIC AND OTHER ART ACTIVITIES
		9215	P	OPERATION OF TICKET AGENCIES
		9219	P	OTHER ENTERTAINMENT ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
		9219-1	P	AMUSEMENT PARKS
		9219-2	P	OTHER ENTERTAINMENT ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
	923			LIBRARIES, ARCHIVES, MUSEUMS AND OTHER CULTURAL ACTIVITIES
		9231	P	LIBRARY AND ARCHIVE ACTIVITIES
		9232	P	MUSEUM ACTIVITIES AND PRESERVATION OF HISTORIC SITES AND BUILDINGS
		9232-1	P	MUSEUMS OF ALL KINDS AND SUBJECTS
		9232-2	P	HISTORICAL SITES AND BUILDINGS
		9233	P	BOTANICAL AND ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS AND NATURE RESERVE ACTIVITIES

		9233-1	P	BOTANICAL AND ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS
		9233-2	P	NATURE AND WILDLIFE PRESERVES
	924			SPORTING AND OTHER RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES
		9241	P	SPORTING ACTIVITIES
		9241-1	P	PHYSICAL FITNESS FACILITIES
		9241-2	P	OPERATION OF SPORTING FACILITIES
		9241-3	P	ACTIVITIES RELATED TO RECREATIONAL HUNTING
		9241-4	P	OTHER SPORTING ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
		9249	P	OTHER RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES
		9249-1	P	OPERATIONS OF RECREATION PARKS AND BEACHES
		9249-2	P	ACTIVITIES RELATED TO RECREATIONAL FISHING
		9249-3	P	GAMBLING AND BETTING OPERATIONS, CASINOS
		9249-4	P	OPERATION OF RECREATIONAL FAIRS AND SHOWS
		9249-5	P	OPERATION OF SKI LIFTS
93	930			OTHER SERVICE ACTIVITIES
		9309	P	OTHER SERVICE ACTIVITIES, N.E.C.
		9309-1	P	PORTERS, VALET PARKING SERVICES, DOORMEN
P				PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS WITH EMPLOYED PERSONS
Q				EXTRA-TERRITORIAL ORGANIZATIONS AND BODIES
99	990	9900	P	EXTRA-TERRITORIAL ORGANIZATIONS AND BODIES
		9901-1	T	INTERNATIONAL TOURISM BODIES

Annex 2 – List of tourism-specific products

List of tourism-specific products

(related to visitor consumption)

CPC/code	Title
63110.0	Hotel and motel lodging services
63191.0	Holiday centre and holiday home services
63192.0	Letting services of furnished accommodation
63193.0	Youth hostel services
63194.0	Children's training and holiday camp services
63195.0	Camping and caravanning site services
63199.1	Sleeping-car and similar services in other transport media; hall residence of students
63210.0	Meal-serving services with full restaurant services
63220.0	Meal-serving services in self-service facilities
63290.0	Other food-serving services
63300.0	Beverage-serving services for consumption on the premises
64111.1	Scheduled rail services of passengers
64111.2	Non-scheduled rail services of passengers
64112.0	Urban and suburban railway transport services of passengers
64211.0	Urban and suburban scheduled road transport services of passengers
64212.0	Urban and suburban special purpose scheduled road transport services of passengers
64213.0	Interurban scheduled road transport services of passengers
64214.0	Interurban special purpose scheduled road transport services of passengers
64219.1	Scheduled ski-hills services
64219.2	Teleferics-funicular services
64221.0	Taxi services
64222.0	Rental services of passenger cars with operator

64223.0	Rental services of buses and coaches with operator
64224.0	Road transport services of passengers by man- or animal-drawn vehicles
65111.0	Coastal and transoceanic water transport services of passengers by ferry
65119.1	Other coastal and transoceanic scheduled water transport services of passengers
65119.2	Other coastal and transoceanic non-scheduled water transport services of passengers
65119.3	Cruise ship services
65119.4	Passenger services on freight vessels
65130.1	Rental services of passenger vessel for coastal and transoceanic water transport with operator
65140.0	Towing and pushing services on coastal and transoceanic waters
65211.0	Inland water transport services of passengers by ferries
65219.1	Scheduled inland water transport services of passengers
65219.2	Sightseeing excursion services
65219.3	Cruise services
65230.0	Rental services of inland water passenger vessels with operator
65240.0	Towing and pushing services on inland waters
66110.0	Scheduled air transport services of passengers
66120.1	Non-scheduled air transport services of passengers
66120.2	Sightseeing services, aircraft or helicopter
66400.0	Rental services of aircraft with operator
67300.0	Navigational aid services
67400.0	Supporting services for railway transport
67510.0	Bus station services
67520.1	Highway operation services
67520.2	Bridge and tunnel operation services
67530.1	Parking of passenger terminal transport
67590.0	Other supporting services for road transport
67610.0	Port and waterway services (excluding cargo handling)
67630.0	Vessel salvage and refloating services

67690.1	Vessel fuelling services
67690.2	Maintenance and upkeep services to private recreation passenger services
67710.0	Airport operation services (excluding cargo handling)
67790.0	Other supporting services for air or space transport
67811.0	Travel agency services
67812.0	Tour operator services
67813.0	Tourist information services
67820.0	Tourist guide services
71100.1	Travel card services
71100.2	Travel loan services
71100.3	Vehicle loan services
71311.1	Travel life insurance services
71320.1	Travel accident insurance services
71320.2	Travel health insurance services
71331.1	Private motor vehicle insurance services
71334.1	Passenger's aircraft of own use insurance services
71334.2	Passenger's vessel of own use insurance services
71339.1	Travel insurance services
71552.0	Foreign exchange services
72211.1	Support services to time-share activities
73111.0	Leasing or rental services concerning cars and light vans without operator
73114.1	Leasing or rental services concerning campers/motor homes without operator
73115.1	Leasing or rental services concerning passenger vessels without operator
73116.1	Leasing or rental services concerning passenger aircraft without operator
73240.1	Non-motorized land transport equipment leasing or rental services
73240.2	Winter sports equipment leasing or rental services
73240.3	Non-motorized air transport equipment leasing or rental services
73240.4	Water sports and beach equipment leasing or rental services
73240.5	Camping equipment leasing or rental services

73240.6	Saddle horse leasing or rental services
73290.1	Photographic camera rental services
83811.1	Passport/visa photo services
83820.0	Photography processing services
83910.0	Translation and interpretation services
84510.0	Library services
84520.0	Archive services
85970.0	Trade fair and exhibition organization services
87141.0	Maintenance and repair services of motor vehicles
87142.0	Maintenance and repair services of motorcycles and snowmobiles
87143.0	Maintenance and repair services of trailers, semi-trailers and other motor vehicles not elsewhere classified
87149.1	Maintenance and repair services of leisure vessels of own use
87149.2	Maintenance and repair services of leisure aircraft of own use
87290.1	Maintenance and repair services of other goods not elsewhere classified
91131.1	Fishing license services
91131.2	Hunting license services
91210.1	Passport issuing services
91210.2	Visa issuing services
92900.1	Language instruction services
92900.2	Operating license training services
96151.0	Motion picture projection services
96230.0	Performing arts facility operation services
96310.0	Services of performing artists
96411.0	Museum services except for historical sites and buildings
96412.0	Preservation services of historical sites and buildings
96421.0	Botanical and zoological garden services
96422.0	Nature reserve services including wildlife preservation services
96510.0	Sports and recreational sports event promotion and organization services

96520.1	Golf course services
96520.2	Ski fields operation services
96520.3	Race circuit
96520.4	Services of riding academies
96520.5	Recreation park and beach services
96590.1	Risk sport and adventure
96620.1	Sports school services
96620.2	Guide services (mountain, hunting and fishing)
96910.1	Theme park services
96910.2	Amusement park services
96910.3	Fair and carnival services
96920.1	Casino services
96920.2	Slot machine services
97230.1	Fitness centre services
97230.2	Sauna/steam bath services
97230.3	Massage services
97230.4	Spa services
97910.0	Escort services
99000.0	Services provided by extraterritorial organisations and bodies
62121.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of fruit and vegetables
62122.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of dairy products, eggs and edible oils and fats
62123.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of meat, poultry and game
62124.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of fish and other seafood
62125.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of sugar confectionery and bakery products
62126.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of beverages
62128.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of tobacco products
62132.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of tents and camping goods
62133.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of articles of clothing, articles of fur and clothing accessories

62134.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of footwear
62142.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of radio and television equipment, musical instruments and records, music scores and tapes
62151.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of books, newspapers, magazines and stationery
62152.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of photographic, optical and precision equipment
62154.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of watches, clocks and jewellery
62155.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of sports goods, including bicycles
62156.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of leather goods and travel accessories
62159.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of souvenirs
62175.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of perfumery articles, cosmetic articles and toilet soaps
62181.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of motor vehicles, motorcycles, snowmobiles and related parts and accessories
62182.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of other transport equipment, except bicycles
62184.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of computers and packaged software
62191.1	Non-specialized store retail trade services of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels and related products
62221.1	Specialized store retail trade services of fruit and vegetables
62222.1	Specialized store retail trade services of dairy products, eggs and edible oils and fats
62223.1	Specialized store retail trade services of meat, poultry and game
62224.1	Specialized store retail trade services of fish and other seafood
62225.1	Specialized store retail trade services of sugar confectionery and bakery products
62226.1	Specialized store retail trade services of beverages
62228.1	Specialized store retail trade services of tobacco products
62232.1	Specialized store retail trade services of tents and camping goods
62233.1	Specialized store retail trade services of articles of clothing, articles of fur and clothing accessories
62234.1	Specialized store retail trade services of footwear
62242.1	Specialized store retail trade services of radio and television equipment, musical instruments and records, music scores and tapes

62251.1	Specialized store retail trade services of books, newspapers, magazines and stationery
62252.1	Specialized store retail trade services of photographic, optical and precision equipment
62254.1	Specialized store retail trade services of watches, clocks and jewellery
62255.1	Specialized store retail trade services of sports goods, including bicycles
62256.1	Specialized store retail trade services of leather goods and travel accessories
62259.1	Specialized store retail trade services of souvenirs
62275.1	Specialized store retail trade services of perfumery articles, cosmetic articles and toilet soaps
62281.1	Specialized store retail trade services of motor vehicles, motorcycles, snowmobiles and related parts and accessories
62282.1	Specialized store retail trade services of other transport equipment, except bicycles
62284.1	Specialized store retail trade services of computers and packaged software
62291.1	Specialized store retail trade services of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels and related products