

# **Peace and Tourism vs. Tourism and Peace: Conceptual Issues**

Youngsun Shin

Assistant Professor , Honam University , 59-1, Seobong-Dong, Gwangsan-Gu, Gwangju, 506-714 ,South Korea

## **Abstract:-**

This study clearly demonstrates that a close connection has been observed in many parts of the world between various forms of peace through tourism and tourism through peace. "The relationship between tourism and peace" issue as was found in the literature concentrates mainly on with the socio-psychological attitudes towards tourism, although economic studies measuring the impact of peace on tourism are relatively few. Moreover, while it may be overstating reality to argue that tourism is necessarily a force for peace, it may be that this particular type of tourism is a precursor to and a positive influence on the improvement of diplomatic relations between divided nations, and may ultimately lead to the establishment of more conventional tourism between these units as their relations improve.

**Key Words:** Peace and tourism, tourism and peace, political boundaries, peace promoter

## **INTRODUCTION**

According to Euro monitor, a consultancy, average tourist spending in 1996 was \$559 per person. That figure is expected to grow by 8% a year until 2000, slightly faster than in the past few years. However, the economic effects go far beyond direct receipts. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), an industry lobby group, calculates figure that takes in not only direct spending but all the knock-on effects as well. Allowing for all indirect effects, the council puts the total economic value of goods and services attributable to tourism in 1996 at \$3.6 trillion, or 10.6% of gross global product. It estimates that tourism sustains more than one in ten jobs around the world, providing work for 255 million people, and could create another 130 million places by 2006 (Economist, 1997). In 1999 Travel and Tourism generated, directly and indirectly, across the global economy: 11% of GDP, 200 million jobs, 8% of total employment, and 5.5 million new jobs per year until 2010 (WTTC, 1995). The growth of tourism is due both to social factors that boost demand and to technology that makes the travel possible. Demand for tourism is determined mainly by wealth. Growing wealth will continue to produce new tourists as vast numbers of people in developing countries join the middle classes.

Tourism thrives wherever politics allows it, and politics has recently caused many barriers to fall (Economist, 1997). Therefore, research on this study could be expanded but it is generally recognised that peace is a precondition for tourism. This provides an important background and a starting point for examining the development of tourism in one of the key areas of world instability.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Peace and tourism**

Tourism plays a major role in international relations and world peace (Matthews, 1978). The year 1986 was declared by the United Nations as the "International Year of Peace". In 1981, the WTO (World Tourism Organisation) Manila Declaration emphasised the importance of tourism in preparing for and safeguarding peace describing it as "a vital force for peace" and a "moral and intellectual basis for international understanding and interdependence" (WTO). The role of tourism as an Ambassador and means of understanding and peace between people has been recognised by many international bodies such as the United Nations. Likewise, the role of tourism as a promoter of national integration, international understanding, goodwill and peace is widely recognized by national governments and political science and tourism scholars (Yu and Chung, 2001).

Movements of persons, travel and tourism are extremely sensitive to any political or social unrest; they require a climate of peace if they are to stimulate the social, economic and cultural development of society. Therefore, one would argue that lasting peace is a prerequisite for the continuing increase of travel. Travel is the most direct, objective and valuable tool for assisting mutual understanding, knowledge and tolerance (Goeldner, 1989). No other industry is better positioned to enhance trust, goodwill and respect amongst people. International tourist arrivals reached 690 million in 2003, and continue to increase rapidly. The economic importance of the tourism industry is another major factor in addition to the promotion of understanding between nations that has to be considered. Tourism is a major source of income and employment for many countries; it brings in significant amounts of

foreign exchange earnings that are crucial to many countries. Tourism also stimulates other industries and encourages private investment (Ap and Var, 1990). However, like any other industry, the tourism industry still has risks, the demand might decrease, which could have severe repercussions on a country. Political unrest and turbulent internal conditions in a country is another aspect that might severely damage and could even destroy that country's tourism industry.

Beyond its economic significance, tourism plays a role in promoting understanding and trust among people of different cultures. This is not only a precondition for emerging trading partners but also a foundation on which to build improved relationships towards the goal of world peace and prosperity (D'Amore, 1988a; 1988b; 1994). The role of tourism as an ambassador and vehicle of international understanding and peace has been recognised in the past by international bodies such as the United Nations and World Tourism Organisation (WTO) in the Manila declaration 1980. A significant landmark on the above topic was the first Global Conference, "Tourism a Vital Force for Peace", held in Vancouver in October 1988. It brought recognition that tourism by its many dimensions has the potential to be the largest movement because it involves people: their culture, economy, tradition, heritage and religion. The conference aimed to explore ways in which the world's hundreds of millions of travellers could, by increasing interests, improving attitudes, and engaging in various social and other activities, contribute to better mutual understanding and appreciation, an important contribution to world peace (D'Amore, 1987-8; 1994; D'Amore and Jafari, 1988). Thus, despite tourism's economic strength, terrorism and political turmoil present major challenge to the industry (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

### DISCUSSION

Research in the area of peace and tourism has received widespread attention from academicians and practitioners as well. The major focus of the research has been on international tourism, understanding international tourists' perceptions of tourism, cultural understanding, international goodwill, and tourism as a tool for promoting peace. Most research done so far (Var, Brayley and Korsay, 1989; Var, Schlutter, Ankonmash, and Lee, 1989; and Ap and Var, 1990) have found that most international tourists have a positive impression and believe that tourism is a major force in promoting world peace and cultural understanding (Khamouna and Zeiger, 1995).

Tourism is strongly dependent on peace and security (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996). In other words, tourism is impossible without peace, for instance, remarkably, Vietnam is now a holiday

destination. The need for safety and obtaining a secure environment is one of the basic conditions to ensure tourism. Tourism flourishes in a climate of peace and prosperity. Political unrest, war depressions and civil strife discourage tourism (McIntosh *et al*, 1995). In order to understand the relationship between tourism and peace, it is useful to examine the meaning of peace.

Discussion of the interrelationship of peace and tourism requires understanding the nature of peace and, consequently, of war. Peace, according to most dictionaries, is freedom from war, a precise definition until war is considered. War is strife between nations, or a state of open hostility between nations (Sykes, 1976). The nature of the concept of peace is very diverse. Beer (1990, p. 15) points out that many theorists deal with peace, but peace theory is not a unified whole. One definition says that within the context of tourism, peace applies to the concept of harmonious relations (Var *et al*, 1998). War is defined as "the clash of arms among countries" (Mihalic, 1996). International peace has been regarded since the beginning of history as a blessing and its opposite, war, as a scourge. Generally, peace is defined negatively as the "absence of war" or as the "absence of violence" (Galtung, 1990, p. 9).

A positive definition of peace with relation to tourism was found in Kim and Crompton (1990) who suggested that peace is a state which "removes logistical barriers to travel and psychological notions associated with fear for personal safety and antipathy from prospective hosts". Peace is a condition where military force is not currently being applied and is not reasonably expected or anticipated in the future whether that force be from external sources (Burnett & Uysal, 1990). A multidimensional definition of peace cited in D'Amore (1988a; 1988b), was the Russian definition: "It implies peace and tranquillity within ourselves, peace with our fellow humans and between nations, peace with nature and our spaceship earth, peace within the universe".

Peace for those concerned with academic or practical aspects of tourism must be redefined (Bregha, 1989). Peace is a condition where military force is not currently being applied and is not reasonably expected or anticipated in the future whether that force be from external or internal sources. The proposed definition recognizes that many places are not actively engaged in war but neither are they at peace in the sense that violence of military proportions would come as no surprise. Active war discourages tourists, but the prospect of war and widespread violence equally deter all but the most courageous travellers. The definition also admittedly avoids a gray area where gangsterism is sufficient to discourage tourists (Burnett and Uysal, 1990).

### Tourism and Peace

The role of political boundaries has become less of a dividing line and more a line of integration (Leimgruber, 1981; Minghi, 1991; Nijkamp, 1994). During the past decade, the world has undergone tremendous geopolitical changes, wherein the role of political frontiers has become that of a line of integration rather than simply a barrier to interaction. The easing of travel restrictions by many countries, and international cooperation in economic development has been at the forefront of these shifts in political ideologies. These changes have had significant impacts on international tourism (Timothy, 2000b). Recent research has confirmed the importance of tourism in borderlands areas (Gibbons and Fish, 1987; Essex & Gibb, 1989; Curtis and Arreola, 1989; Richard, 1993; Arreola & Curtis, 1993; Zhao, 1994a, b; Paasi and Raivo, 1998; Boyd, 1999). Furthermore, except for a few notable exceptions (Smith, 1984; Leimgruber, 1988), there is little information present in the literature to offer a conceptual basis for studying the relationships between political boundaries and tourism.

### The Nature of Political Boundaries

Between partitioned states, there are frequently many features in common. They may share not only common cultural history and traditions, but they may also have developed similar social patterns of behaviour. Although, in some case, they may have been part of plural society-with different cultures, religions and language groups, they at least used to share some common cultural links as well as administrative arrangements and perhaps official language(s). In some cases, partitioned states may still retain a common official language, religion, custom, and lifestyle, even if they claim the status of independent countries. More importantly, close social fabric and family relationships are likely to have developed between residents of partitioned states before partition, as for example between residents of what are now South and North Korea. Such relationships play a key role in subsequent tourism development (Mao, 1995).

Boundary studies have focused on comparative, and largely empirical, analyses of

specific boundary case studies (Prescott, 1987; Rumley and Minghi, 1991; Girot, 1994; Grundy-Warr, 1990, 1994; Schofield, 1994; Schofield and Schofield, 1994). Borders often limit contact between people and can function as lines of economic containment and military defense (Prescott, 1987). A boundary will be classified as to whether it is designed for defensive purposes, as a separator of cultures or ethnic groups, according to economic factor, as an ideological divide or as a simple legal divide (Boggs, 1940; Glassner and de Blij, 1980; Reitsma, 1983; Prescott, 1987; Leimgruber, 1989, 1998; Falah and Newman, 1995; Newman and Paasi, 1998). The borders between Israel and Jordan were areas of contention and conflict, militarized and hostile. Borders like these could be found in Central America (Nicaragua-Costa Rica) or between South and North Korea (Kliot, 1996, p. 4). In many cases they act as filters or barriers against influences considered negative or unwelcome by national government (Leimgruber, 1988).

However, in addition to their role as lines of separation, boundaries may also be viewed as lines of contact, places where similar or dissimilar cultures and economies converge. Many parts of the world are full of examples where political lines have been drawn through regions populated by culturally similar groups of people. This situation often gives rise to problems of territoriality, and contact between similar groups often goes unaltered by the presence of a political divide. Some open borders even allow a great deal of contact between dissimilar groups of people (Klemencic and Bufon, 1991; Minghi, 1991; Leimgruber, 1991; Lovell, 1994; Ossenbrugge, 1994). Subnational boundaries (e.g. provincial, country, etc) serve different functions from international ones (Timothy, 1995b). Figure 1 demonstrates a number of examples along this spectrum of permeability by Timothy (2001). Martinez (1994, p. 2) proposes four paradigms of borderlands interaction: alienated borderlands, co-existent borderlands, interdependent borderlands, and integrated borderlands (Figure 2).

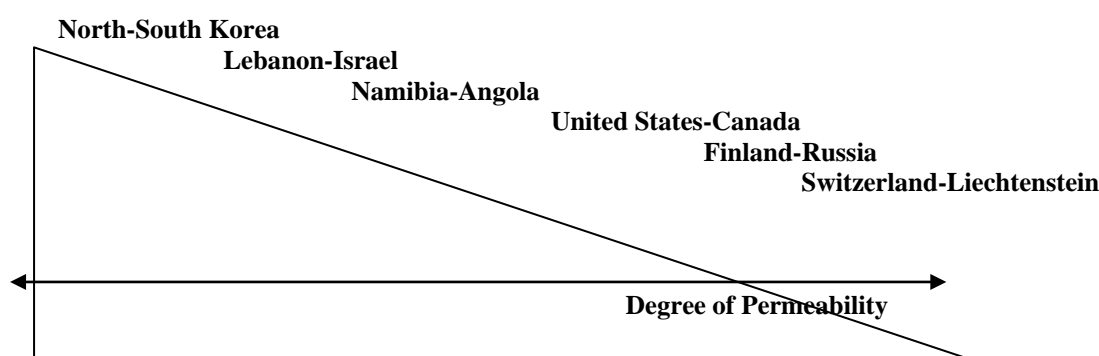


Figure 1: Boundary Permeability

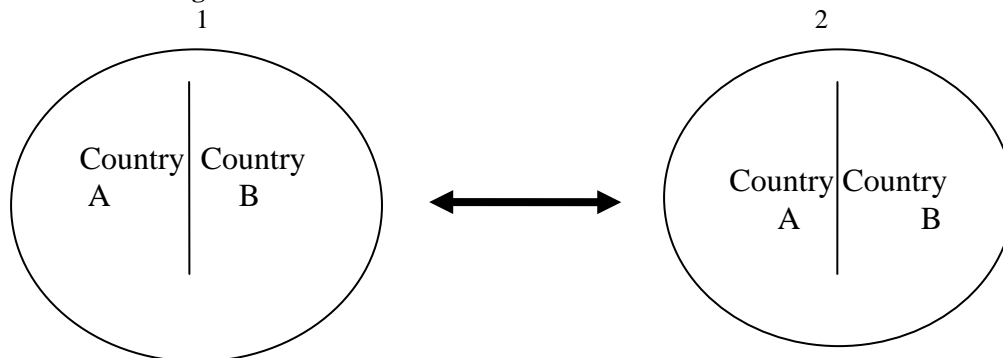
Source: Timothy, 2001

As previously mentioned, borders are commonly regarded as barriers or constraints, even in the context of tourism however, in many cases this goes beyond mere perception. Many examples exist where tourist flows between neighbouring countries are heavily restricted (e.g. many African and Middle Eastern boundaries) and even altogether prohibited (e.g. North and South Korea, partitioned Cyprus) as illustrated Figure 2. In fact, even after the Korean War, total peace or tranquility has not been established between the two Koreas. In addition, Matznetter (1979) has suggested that the longer the waiting period at a border and the more formalities associated with crossing it, the more it tends to become an obstacle for tourist. Again, the perceived distance increases (Timothy, 1995b).

**Tourism and Boundaries**

In many ways the existence and functions of political boundaries influence the nature of the tourism industry and the spatial development of many tourist destinations, especially in touristic regions adjacent to or bisected by, international frontiers. Matznetter (1979) has categorised the positions of international boundaries in relation to places of touristic interest into three broad types: (1) situations where the line runs between two touristic areas but at a significant distance from each; (2) situations where touristic areas touch a border, but only on one side; and (3) conditions where tourist areas about a boundary on both sides.

Figure 2. **Four Paradigms of Borderlands**

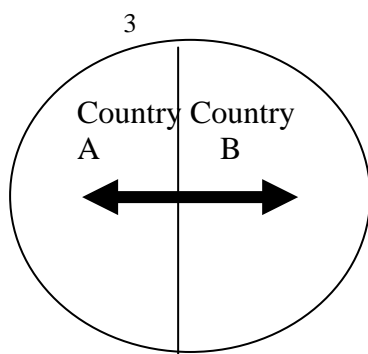


**Alienated borderlands**

Tension prevails, Border is functionally closed, And cross-border interaction is totally or nearly totally absent. Residents of each country act as strangers to each other (Middle East, Africa, Korea and Eastern Europe). acquaintances, but borderlands develop

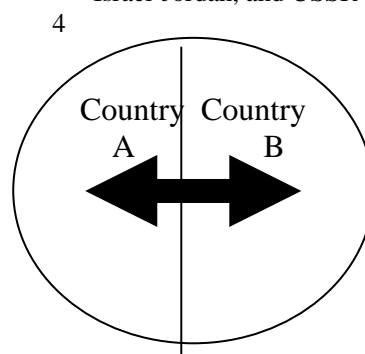
**Co-existent borderlands**

Stability is an on and off proposition. Border remains slightly open, allowing for the development of limited binational interaction. Residents of each country deal with each other as casual closer relationships (Ecuador-Peru, Israel-Jordan, and USSR-China ).



**Interdependent borderlands**

Stability prevails most of the time. Economic Stability is strong and permanent. and social complementarily prompt increased Economics of both countries are



**Integrated borderlands**

Cross-border interaction, leading to expansion of functionally merged and there is a borderland. Borderlanders carry on friendly and unrestricted movement of people and Cooperative relationships (USA-Mexico). Goods across the

boundary. Borderlanders perceive themselves as Members of one social system (Western Europe).

Source: Martinez, 1994

In the first situation the border is merely a barrier or a point of transit on the way to a more distant destination, and its influence on tourist flows depends largely on its degree of permeability. The second situation may remain the same for many years as tourism continues to develop on one side of the border only. However, in the event that tourists are permitted to cross the border easily, and given that the other side provides places or objects of interest, tourists from the developed side may begin to visit the non-developed side, thereby promoting the growth of tourism on both sides of the border until the situation becomes increasingly more like that in Matznetter's third example. In this instance, the cohesion between the two tourist areas in each side depends to a large extent on the degree of openness between adjacent countries. In areas of open borders, such as in the Lake Constance region of Central Europe, tourism often circulates across international lines so freely that the area's political fragmentation is often forgotten.

Along similar lines, some researchers have suggested that international, regional cooperation regarding such matters as tourism promotion on both sides of a border effectively reduces the role of the boundary as common problems in adjacent peripheral areas may overshadow national considerations (Leimgruber, 1989; Richard, 1993). In other areas, however, such as along the Gulf of Aquba in the Middle East, boundaries act as barriers, and although beach tourism is a major industry along each country's coast, it is usually not allowed to overlap political lines.

According to recent literature, and as indicated previously, tourism is a highly significant and growing industry in many border areas in much of the world. For example, Butler (1996, pp. 217) addresses the Berlin Wall, where there were major tourist attractions before the demise of communism. A frontier region, especially where this may border on other states or disputed areas may, therefore, represent an attraction precisely because it is something that most people do not experience in their normal lives. Several scholars (Eriksson, 1979; Leimgruber, 1989; Arreola & Curtis, 1993; Timothy, 1999) suggest that the level of attractiveness of border areas for tourists depends on a number of factors, including the natural, social and cultural environment near the border and the degree of freedom or difficulty in crossing it. However, in addition to the role of borders as filters or barriers to tourism, one of the most obvious relationships between the two is that of political boundaries as tourist attractions

(Arreola, 1999). It is this interface of differences which many travellers find fascinating about political boundaries.

In this study, the research is now focusing on cross-frontier cooperation in tourism planning and development (Leimgruber, 1998; Boyd, 1999; Timothy, 1998b, 2000b). Some scholars studying borderlands emphasise that the focus on cooperation is seen as promoting political harmony (Minghi, 1991; 1994; Newman, 1998; Timothy, 1998b; Sonmez and Apostopoulos, 2000). Kliot (1996, p. 5) notes the model of development of cross-border cooperation from a hostile, closed border with no cooperation to a border with substantial cooperation. Timothy (2001, p. 172) thus notes "Cross-frontier cooperation is particularly consequential in assuring that the principles of sustainability (e.g. equity, harmony, holistic development, and economical and cultural integrity) are supported". Cooperation in tourism between South and North Korea will be contingent on the same factors, which could unleash other forms of foreign income generation, especially joint venture exports. A benign political environment is a necessary condition for tourism development but it is far from sufficient. Problems range from the general economic situation (and especially shortage of electricity) to establishing a tourism infrastructure, transportation and personnel training. Then comes the marketing of North Korea as a tourism destination, a formidable task given its present image and fierce competition in the region. The impact of tourism on the social and political structure of North Korea is a contentious issue. North Korea is not alone in facing this challenge, which is common around the world, especially in small previously insulated countries. North Korea has long had modest inbound tourism but it was not until the beginning of the Mt. Geumgang venture in November 1998 that it moved into any form of mass tourism. According to Beal (2001b, p. 31), it is clear that whatever happens it will be the product of the same geo-political forces that will fashion the Korean peninsula as a whole. However, within those constraints, and challenging them, tourism can play a positive and special role. Thus, the following chapter explains the relationship between tourism and the borderland of the Mt. Geumgang tourism project between South and North Korea. Moreover, the methodology of this study examines the relationship between tourism and boundaries in a case study of South and North Korea, the role that borders and borderland environments of the DMZ development and cooperation for Korean unification play as tourist attractions through a tourist survey.

Tourism appears to be an increasingly important industry in many border areas, and it deserves more



attention by academics and practitioners alike if it is to be effectively planned and promoted. Boundary monuments, parks, natural wonders, relict boundaries, cross-border shopping, gambling, welcome centres and international enclaves are just some of the attractions which are currently contributing to the development of tourism in many border areas throughout the world (Maier and Weber, 1979; Curtis and Arreola, 1989; Timothy, 1995a; 1995b; 1996; 1998a; 1998b, 1998c, 2001). In particular, transfrontier parks, or border parks, provide a special category of national parks. These are protected areas located along the boundaries of countries and are increasingly recognised as "Peace Parks." Border parks, on each side of a frontier, offer the benefits of larger, contiguous protected areas, increased cooperation between nations, and improved international understanding (D'Amore, 1988a, b; 1994; Brock, 1991, Timothy, 2000a).

### **Tourism as a Peace Promoter**

In a report on the First Global Conference, Tourism – A Vital Forces for peace held in Vancouver, Canada, Jafari (1989) noted that there were "several scores of publishable contributions." Further conferences held in Montreal in 1994, Glasgow in 1999 and Jordan in 2002 were sponsored by the International Institute for Peace through Tourism (IIPT, 2002) which promotes tourism as a vehicle for promoting peace. According to the IIPT, tourism has a major role to play in promoting peace and several researchers have noted that tourism was used as a vehicle to promote improved relations between Spain and the rest of Europe during the Franco era (Ferrando, 1981; Anon, 1981). Hobson and Ko (1994) commented on the implications for tourism of the reestablishment of Chinese sovereignty over Hong Kong, Zhang (1993) examined tourism between China and Taiwan. Yu and Chung (2001) also examined travel between China and Taiwan identifying the potential for high and low level contacts to promote peace.

Many studies on the relationship between tourism and peace would argue that tourism does in fact promote peace. Nevertheless, others would dispute that claim and suggest that tourism, although it offers good opportunities for people of different cultures and countries to meet and learn more about each other, promotes understanding and acceptance of one another, and improves economic conditions, still does not bring about an absence of war as in the case of Lebanon, that, despite its popularity as a major tourist destination in the 1970's still slid into a major civil war. This is one example where tourism failed to prevent war (Brown, 1989).

In this study, a considerable and largely cohesive body of literature emerges from the contributions of scholars from different disciplines

(Sonmez, 1998). Tourism between countries is termed international, and travel within one country, domestic tourism (Pearce, 1987). Tourism, since it involves the movement of people from country to country and results in frequent economic, social and cultural exchanges, is likely to be a force contributing to world peace (Burnett and Uysal, 1990). Therefore, peace through tourism is not a new concept. In 1988, the first global conference, Tourism-A Vital Force for Peace, was organised by the International Institute for Peace through Tourism under the guidance of Louis D'Amore, a crusader of peace through tourism. And even before that, President John F. Kennedy expressed a belief in world peace through tourism when he declared (Khamouna and Zeiger, 1995):

*Travel has become one of the great forces for peace and understanding in our time. As people move through the world and learn to know each other, to understand each other's customs and to appreciate the qualities of the individuals of each nation, we are building a level of international understanding which can sharply improve the atmosphere for world peace.*

The very existence of tourism depends on peace. The relationship between tourism and peace has two dimensions according to Mihalic (1996). Here, consideration of tourism and peace is based upon the positive concept of peace as a harmonious relationship. This may occur at an individual-to individual or group level, or at any of the other two levels of international relations which have been identified. International tourism is regarded as a catalytic force for tension reduction and peace-building (Yu and Chung, 2001, p. 538).

Attempts to measure the relationship between tourism and peace are found in several social tourism studies (Ap and Var, 1990; D'Amore, 1988a, b; Burnett and Uysal, 1990; Var *et al.*, 1989, 1998; Kim and Crompton, 1990; Litvin, 1998; Anson, 1999). Ap and Var discuss the question, "Does tourism promote world peace?". For this purpose they carried out an explanatory survey of 56 Australians and 30 North American tourism professionals to examine how they perceive tourism as a promoter of world peace. They also focused on the perceived benefits and costs of tourism and sought to identify common parameters which quantify social impacts. Although tourism was viewed as an economic activity with positive impacts, it was not seen as a significant contributor to world peace. A low level of agreement (43%) and a high neutral response (40%) of the combined sample indicated a lack of agreement and uncertainty concerning the role of tourism and world peace.

On the other hand, Var, Schlutter, Ankomash and Lee (1989), examined the relationship between tourism and world peace in Argentina and Turkey. Both studies investigated whether tourism enhances

world peace and international understanding. In Argentina 77 research questionnaires were distributed to students in various universities in spring 1988. Argentina is the second most popular destination after Brazil in South and Central America both in terms of visitor and foreign exchange earnings. For this reason Argentina was chosen as a one of ten countries for an international pilot study on how nationals of host countries view tourism. The research findings revealed that more than 80 per cent of the students agreed with the statement that tourism contributed positively to international understanding. Additionally, 92% of the sample agreed that tourism promotes cross cultural exchange and over 61% perceived tourism as a vital force for world peace. In other words this research showed clearly the respondents' awareness of the tourism industry's potential for fostering international understanding and world peace. In Turkey the research questionnaires were distributed to two groups of university students. The first group was undergraduate students who had taken a tourism class and had some work experience in the tourism industry while the other group were students who studied business administration with no formal training or education in tourism. The findings were very similar to those of Argentina. On the question whether tourism promotes cross cultural understanding 90.7% responded positively. Similarly on the notion whether tourism promotes world peace a high level of agreement at 80% of all the respondents was noted. Both studies demonstrate clearly a strong support for the belief that tourism does indeed contribute to world peace among the university students. This contrasts with the findings from the Australians and American professionals.

World peace is an intangible attribute and the impacts of tourism on world peace is a difficult concept to quantify (Ap and Var, 1990). Burnett and Uysal (1990) conducted a study on the nature of peace in relation to tourism in Kenya, Costa Rica and Cameroon. Unlike Kenya, tourism in Cameroon and Costa Rica has developed after the establishment of peace. Their observation precluded the prospect that tourism causes peace but found that tourism is synergistically interactive with peace. According to Hall (1994), "the notion of tourism as a force for peace fails to appreciate the broad political dimensions within which tourism occurs". He further claims that "the idea that tourism is a force for peace is an overly simplistic interpretation of the complexities of tourism and international relations". A similar view was questioned by Var *et al* (1998) that raised the question as to whether the promotion of world peace is a realistic attribute or is it a mere platitude? Some have suggested that the relationship between tourism and peace is tenuous.

In the Korean experience the relationship between tourism and peace was highlighted in a political aspect. Kim and Crompton (1990) discussed the role of tourism and its potential for unifying the two Koreas. They distinguished between two tracks in diplomacy. Track one is the official channel of government relations that have failed in Korea while track two, diplomacy, is the unofficial channel of people to people relations, friendliness, harmony and active cooperation, and peace was found to be likely to emerge from a track two approach. Therefore this was recommended for Korea by the authors. They cited Richter (1983, p.324) who claimed that "governments use tourism as a diplomatic barometer of their closeness and affinity to each other", for they believe that increased personal interaction may break down barriers, reduce suspicion and facilitate mutual appreciation, and they pointed to the cultural agreement that was signed at the 1986 Geneva summit between USSR general secretary Gorbachev and the US president Reagan.

## CONCLUSION

In order to understand more fully the nature of partition in changing the political map of the world, we must integrate our abilities to develop theories of society and international relations on the one hand and to design methodologies appropriate to the study of specific cases on the other. As mentioned previously, for the most dramatic case of political change in recent years, one might look at the cases of Korea, Germany, Vietnam and China, all of which have been split into two or more segments since 1945. Two, Vietnam and Germany, have since been reunited, one by war and one by peace while the others remain separate and to some degree anomalous. Despite the often unsettled political climate which surrounds many of units, there is often considerable travel between them (Butler and Mao, 1995).

Generally, it has been documented that peace is good for most kinds of businesses, but for tourism it is absolutely essential (Ladki, *et al*, 2002). The definition of peace makes any suggestion that tourism causes peace patently absurd. Peace is caused by the absence of current or expected military violence. Tourism can only occur to any extent in a peaceful environment, but a hypothesis that tourism is interactive with peace is attractive. The advantages conveyed by tourism should logically encourage national cultivation of peaceful pursuits. National behaviour should avoid internal military violence and minimise the possibility of its attraction from the outside. The problem with the hypothesis is that what fields should accomplish the same thing and they seldom have. Furthermore, the proposed definition of peace applied to the case study suggests a need to refocus research on tourism's relationship to peace.

## REFERENCES

- Anon (1981) Una Política De promocion turistica para la espana de los ochenta. Informe/prooyesta final de la Investigacion sbhre folletos y cartelesturisticos. *Estudios Turisticos*, 69: 37-55.
- Anson, C. (1999) Planning for peace: The role of tourism in the aftermath of violence. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38: 57-61.
- Ap, J. and Var, T. (1990) Does tourism promote world peace?, *Tourism Management*, 11(3): 267-273.
- Arreola, D. D. (1999) Variability of tourists' attraction on an international boundary: Sonora, Mexico border towns. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 17(4): 19-29.
- Arreola, D. D. and Curtis, J. R. (1993) *The Mexican Border Cities: Landscape Anatomy and Place Personality*. Tucson: University of Arizona Press.
- Beal, T. (2001) Missed opportunities and blighted promise problems and prospects for DPRK tourism. *International Journal of Korean Unification Studies*, 10(2): 1-47.
- Beer, F. (1990) The reduction of war and the creation of peace. In Smoker, P., Davies, R. and Munske, B. (Eds.), *A Reader in Peace Studies* (pp. 15-20). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Boggs, S. W. (1940) *International Boundaries: A Study of Boundary Functions and Problems*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Boyd, S. (1999) North-South divide: The role of the border in tourism to Northern Ireland. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 17(4): 50-62.
- Bregha, F. (1989) Tourism, development, peace. *World Leisure and Recreation*, 31(4), 5-8.
- Brock, L. (1991) Peace through park: The environment on the peace research agenda. *Journal of Peace Research*, 28(4): 407-423.
- Brown, F. (1989) Is tourism really a peacemaker?. *Tourism Management*, December, 270-271.
- Burnett, G. W. and Uysal, M. (1990) On the nature of peace in relationship to tourism: Three cases. *The Tourist Review*, 2-6.
- Butler, R.W. (1996) The development of tourism in frontier regions: issues and approaches. In Gradus, Y. & Lithwick, H. (Eds.), *Frontiers in regional development* (pp.213-229). London: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Butler, R. and Mao, B. (1995) Tourism between quasi-state: International, domestic or what?. In R. Butler and D. G. Pearce (Eds.), *Change in Tourism: people, places, processes* (pp. 92-113). London: Routledge.
- Curtis, J. R. and Arreola, D. D. (1989) Through gringo eyes: Tourist districts in the mexican border cities as other-directed places. *North American Culture*, 5(2): 19-32.
- D'Amore, L. J. (1987-8). Tourism - The world's peace industry. *Business Quarterly*, 52(3), 78-85.
- D'Amore, L. J. (1988a) Tourism-A vital force for peace. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(2): 269-271.
- D'Amore, L. J. (1988b) Tourism - The world's peace industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(1): 35-40.
- D'Amore, L. (1994) Tourism: The world's peace industry. In Harssel, J. (Ed.), *Tourism: An Exploration* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edn.) (pp.112-117). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- D'Amore, L. J. and Jafari, J. (1988) *Tourism- A Vital Force for Peace (Pre-conference publication)*. Montreal: L. J. D'Amore and Associates.
- Eriksson, G. A. (1979) Tourism at the Finnish-Swedish-Norwegian borders. In Gruber, G., Lamping, H., Lutz, W., Matznetter, J. and Vorlauffer, K. (Eds.), *Tourism and Borders* (pp. 151-162). Proceedings of the Meeting of the IGTU Working Group – Geography of Tourism and Recreation Institut fur Wirtschafts- und Sozialgeographie der Johann Wolfgang Goethe Universitat, Frankfurt.
- Essex, S. J. and Gibb, R. A. (1989). Tourism in the Anglo-French frontier zone. *Geography*, 74(3): 222-231.
- Falah, G. and Newman, D. (1995) The spatial manifestation of threat: Israelis and Palestinians seek a 'good' border. *Political Geography*, 14(8): 689-706.
- Ferrando, M. G. (1981) Popular sport and sociocultural change in the Spain on the 80's, Physical Culture and Sports in the way of Social Groups, 2 Volumes. In F. Gras & G. Benkert (Eds.), *VII International Symposium of the International Committee for Sociology of Sport*,



- ICSS Vol. 2, Spain: Universidad Autonoma of Madrid.
- Galtung, J. (1990) Violence and peace. In Smoker, P, Davies, R. and Munske, B. (Eds.), *A Reader in Peace Studies* (pp. 9-14). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Gibbons, J. D. and Fish, M. (1987) Market sensitivity of US and Mexican border travel. *Journal of Travel Research*, 26(1): 2-6.
- Giro, P., Ed. (1994). *World Boundaries Vol. IV: The Americas*. London: Routledge.
- Glassner, M. I. and de Blij, H. J. (1980) *Systematic Political Geography* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley.
- Goeldner, C. (1989), Tourism- A vital force for peace. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 166-168.
- Grundy-Warr, C., Ed. (1990) *International Boundaries and Boundary Conflict Resolution*. Durham, UK: International Boundaries Research Unit (IBRU) Press.
- Grundy-Warr, C. (1994) Eurasia – World Boundaries Vol. 3. London: Routledge.
- Hall, C. M. (1994) Tourism in the Pacific Rim: Development, impacts and market. Melbourne: Longman.
- Hobson, J. S. & Ko, G. (1994) Tourism and politics: The implications of the change in sovereignty on the future development of Hong Kong's tourism industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(4), 2-8.
- International Institute for Peace Through Tourism (IIPT) (2002). <http://www.iipt.org/index.html/>. Visited 1 February, 2002.
- Jafari, J. (1989) Tourism and peace. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16: 439-444.
- Kim, Y. and Crompton, J. L. (1990). Role of tourism in unifying the two Koreas. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3): 353-366.
- Khamouna, M. and Zeiger, J. B. (1995) Peace through tourism. *Parks and Recreation*, 30, 80-86.
- Klemencic, V. and Bufon, M. (1991) The Italo Yugoslav border landscape. In Rumley, D. and Minghi, J. (Eds.), *The Geography of Border Landscapes* (pp. 86-103). London: Routledge.
- Kliot, L. (1996). Turning desert to bloom: Israeli-Jordanian peace proposals for the Jordan rift valley. *Journal of Borderlands Studies*, XI(1): 1-24.
- Ladki, S. M., Zein, B. and Sadik, M. W. (2002). Effect of the middle east peace process on pan Arab tourism industries. *Tourism Analysis*, 6(3/4): 267-272.
- Leimgruber, W. (1981). Boundaries as a factor in regional integration: Examples from Basle and Ticino. *Regio Basiliensis*, 22(2): 192-201.
- Leimgruber, W. (1988). Border trade: the boundary as an incentive and an obstacle to shopping trips. *Nordia*, 22 (1): 53-60.
- Leimgruber, W. (1989). The perception of boundaries: barriers or invitation to interaction?. *Regio Basiliensis*, 30(2): 49-59.
- Leimgruber, W. (1991). Boundary, values and identity – the Swiss-Italian transborder region. In Rumley, D. and Minghi, J. (Eds.), *The Geography of Border Landscapes* (pp. 43-52). London: Routledge.
- Leimgruber, W. (1998). Defying political boundaries: Transborder Tourism in a regional context. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 17(3): 8-21.
- Litvin, S. W. (1998). Tourism: The world's peace industry?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37 (August): 63-66.
- Lovell, A. (1994). Border regions in Central America. In Giro, P. O. (Ed.), *World Boundaries (Vol. 4, pp. 49-57)*, *The Americas*. London: Routledge.
- Mao, B. (1995). *Exploration of Partitioned State Tourism: The example of Partitioned China*. PhD Thesis, Canada: The University of Western Ontario.
- Maier, J. and Weber, J. (1979). Tourism and leisure behaviour subject to the spatial influence of a national frontier: The example of Northeast Bavaria. In Gruber, G., Lamping, H., Lutz, W., Matznetter, J. and Vorlaufer, K. (Eds.), *Tourism and Borders: Proceedings of the Meeting of the IGU Working Group – Geography of Tourism and Recreation* (pp. 61-73). Institut für Wirtschafts - and Sozialgeographie der Johann Wolfgang Goethe Universität, Frankfurt.
- Martinez, O. J. (1994). The dynamics of border interaction: New approaches to border analysis. In Schofield, C. L. (Ed.), *Global Boundaries: World Boundaries (Vol.1)* (pp. 1-15). London: Routledge.
- Mattews, H. G. (1978). *International Tourism: A*

- Political and Social Analysis*. Cambridge, MA: Schenkman Publishing Company.
- Matznetter, J. (1979). Border and tourism: fundamental relations. In Gruber, G., Lamping, H., Lutz, W., Matznetter, J. and Vorlauffer, K. (Eds.), *Tourism and Borders: Proceedings of the Meeting of the UGU Working Group – Geography of Tourism and Recreation* (pp. 61-73). Frankfurt: Institut für Wirtschafts- und Sozialgeographie der Johann Wolfgang Goethe Universität.
- McIntosh, R. W., Goeldner, C. R. and Ritchie, J. R. (1995). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: John Wiley.
- Mihalic, T. (1996). Tourism and warfare-the case of Slovenia. In Pizam, A. and Mansfeld, Y. (Eds.), *Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues* (pp. 231-246). London: John Wiley and Sons.
- Minghi, J. V. (1991). From Conflict to Harmony in Border Landscapes. In D. Rumley & J. V. Minghi (Eds.), *The Geography of Border Landscapes* (pp. 15-30). London: Routledge.
- Minghi, J. V. (1994). European borderlands: International harmony, landscape change and new conflict. In Grundy-Warr, C. (Ed.), *World Boundaries Vol. III: Eurasia*. London: Routledge.
- Newman, D. (1998). Transforming ethnic frontiers of conflict into political frontiers of peace. In Yiftachel, O. and Meir, A. (Eds.), *Ethnic Frontiers and Peripheries*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Newman, D. and Paasi, A. (1998). Fences and neighbours in the postmodern world: Boundary narratives in political geography. *Progress in Human Geography*, 22(2): 186-207.
- Nijkamp, P. (1994). *New Borders and Old Barriers in Spatial Development*. Aldershot: Avebury.
- Ossenbrugge, J. (1994). Economic interaction and cooperation along the German-Polish border. In Galluser, W. (Ed.), *Political Boundaries and Coexistence* (pp. 95-102). Switzerland: Peter Lang.
- Paasi, A. and Raivo, P. J. (1998). Boundaries as barriers and promoters: Constructing the tourist landscapes of Finnish Karelia. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 17(3): 30-43.
- Pearce, D. (1987). *Tourism Development*. London: Longman.
- Pizam, A. and Mansfeld, Y. (1996). Introduction. In Pizam, A. and Mansfield, Y. (Eds.), *Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues* (pp. 1-10). Chichester: Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Prescott, J. R.V. (1987). *Political Frontiers and Boundaries*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Reitsma, H. A. (1983). Boundaries as barriers – The predicament of land-locked countries. In Kliot, N. and Waterman, S. (Eds.), *Pluralism and Political Geography: People, territory and state* (pp. 259-269). London: Croom Helm Ltd.
- Richard, W. E. (1993). International planning for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(3): 601-604.
- Richter, L. (1983). Tourism politics and political science: A case of not so benign neglect. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10(2), 313-335.
- Rumley, D. and Minghi, J. V. (1991). *The Geography of Border Landscapes*. London: Routledge.
- Schofield, C. H. (1994). *World Boundaries Vol. I: Global Boundaries*. London: Routledge.
- Schofield, C. H. and Schofield, R. (1994). *World Boundaries Vol. II: The Middle East*. London: Routledge.
- Smith, S. L. J. (1984). A method for estimating the distance equivalence of international boundaries. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22 (3): 37-39.
- Sonmez, S. (1998). Tourism, terrorism and political instability. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2): 416-456.
- Sonmez, S. F. and Graefe, A. R. (1998). Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 112-144.
- Sonmez, S. F. and Apostolopoulos, Y. (2000). Conflict resolution through tourism cooperation? : The Case of the Partitioned Island-State of Cyprus. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(3): 35-48.
- Sykes, J. B. (1976). *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
- Timothy, D. J. (2001). *Tourism and Political boundaries*. London: Routledge.
- Timothy, D. J. (2000a). Tourism and international parks. In Butler, R. and Boyd, S. (Eds.), *Tourism and National Parks* (pp. 263-282). Chichester: John

- Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Timothy, D. J. (2000b). Tourism planning in Southeast Asia: Bringing down borders through cooperation. In Chon, K. S (Ed.), *Tourism in Southeast Asia: A new direction* (pp. 21-38). London: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- Timothy, D. J. (1999). Cross-border partnership in tourism resource management: International parks along the US-Canada border. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7(3/4): 182-205.
- Timothy, D. J. (1998a). Collecting places: Geodetic lines in tourist space. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 7(4): 123-129.
- Timothy, D. J. (1998b). Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 6(1): 52-68.
- Timothy, D. J. (1998c). Tourism and international borders: Themes and issues. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 17(3): 3-7.
- Timothy, D. J. (1996). Small and isolated: The politics of tourism in international exclaves. *Acta Turistica*, 8(2): 99-115.
- Timothy, D. J. (1995a). International boundaries: New frontiers for tourism research. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1: 141-12.
- Timothy, D. J. (1995b). Political boundaries and tourism: borders as tourist attractions. *Tourism Management*, 16(7): 525-532.
- Var, T., Ap, J. and Van Doren, C. (1998). Tourism and world peace. In W. F. Theobald (Ed.), *Global Tourism (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)* (pp. 27-39). Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Var, T. and Brayley, R., Korsay, M. (1989). Tourism and world peace: Case of Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16: 282-286.
- Var, T., Schlutter, R., Ankomash, P. and Lee, T. H. (1989). Tourism and world peace: the case of Argentina. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 431-443.
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (1995). *Middle East-Mediterranean Travel and Tourism- A New Perspective*. London: WTTC.
- Yu, L. and Chung, M. H. (2001). Tourism as a catalytic force for low-politics activities between politically divided countries: The cases of South/North Korea and Taiwan/China. *New Political Science*, 23(4): 537-545.
- Zhang, G. (1993). Tourism across the Taiwan Straits. *Tourism Management*, 14(3): 228-231.
- Zhao, X. (1994a). Barter tourism: a new phenomenon along the China-Russia border. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(3): 65-67.
- Zhao, X. (1994b). Barter tourism along the China-Russian border. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(2): 401-403.
- Economist (1997). <http://www.economist.com>