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Globalisation and world tourism cities

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(2021) Globalisation and world tourism cities. In: World tourism cities: a systematic approach to urban tourism. Routledge, Taylor and Francis, pp. 29-58. ISBN 9780367629120

<http://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9781003111412-3>

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Chapter 2: Globalisation and world tourism cities

Chapter abstract

Book Title – World tourism cities: A systematic approach to urban tourism

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Chapter Number & Title – Chapter 2, Globalisation and world tourism cities

This second introductory chapter highlights how the process of globalisation affects cities, tourism in general, and world tourism cities in particular. Three initial dimensions of globalisation are identified and ways to measure them are examined (economic, political, and social). Later, three other factors in the PESTEL model are added and discussed (technological, environmental and legal/regulatory), and the impacts on city residents and visitors are considered as well.

The glocalisation concept is discussed as is how cities and tourism companies have adapted global concepts and ideas to better fit local circumstances. The merging of globalisation and localisation in tourism is illustrated through several good examples.

The connection of globalisation and world tourism cities is reviewed with respect to the gateway, influential, impactful, cosmopolitan, and recognised features. This is followed by a detailed discussion of six dimensions of globalisation, and the effects on city residents and visitors.

The chapter closes by deriving a summary from previous materials of the advantages and disadvantages of globalisation for tourism and world tourism cities across eight dimensions and perspectives (PESTEL-RV).

Learning objectives

1. Define globalisation and identify its dimensions.
2. Explain the KOF Globalisation Index (KOFGI).
3. Pinpoint how globalisation has impacted on cities.
4. Elaborate on how globalisation has affected tourism.
5. Describe how globalisation is influencing world tourism cities.
6. Explain the PESTEL dimensions of globalisation and the PESTER-RV model.
7. Summarise the advantages and disadvantages of globalisation for tourism and world tourism cities.

Keywords: Agglomeration; authenticity; climate change; cultural homogenisation; economic globalisation; globalisation; glocalisation; KOF Globalisation Index (KOFGI); multinationals; neoliberalism; political globalisation; social globalisation

There is a huge debate on the pros and cons of globalisation that has raged for at least 50 years. This controversial issue, along with urbanisation, is affecting world tourism cities at several levels and is worthy of consideration in this book. The authors chose not to take a stance on either side of the debate; rather the chapter follows a balanced treatment of globalisation and world tourism cities. The materials connect with the discussions on global cities, world cities, and world tourism cities in Chapter 1. The gateway, influential, impactful, cosmopolitan, and recognition features of world tourism cities are partially outcomes of globalisation. Figure 2.1 highlights the main contents of this book with most chapters touching upon the globalisation topic. For example, Chapter 7 elaborates on quality of life, Chapter 8 deals with sustainability, Chapter 9 discusses technology, Chapter 10 reviews crises, and Chapter 11 is about the rise of Asian cities (Figure 2.1).



Figure 2.1 Global map of book contents.

It is well recognised that tourism is a very open system that is readily and quickly impacted by a wide range of external factors. Morrison, Lehto, and Day (2018, p. 8) say that tourism is “greatly affected by external influences such as politics, demographics, technology, war, terrorism, crime, and disease”. Therefore, the multifaceted trends arising through globalisation are hard for city tourism to resist and adapting to change is often the best strategy.

What is globalisation?

We could say that the world is getting bigger (population growth and urbanisation), but also growing smaller (globalisation). Let us start with a simple definition that “globalization is the advance of human cooperation across national boundaries” (Boudreaux, 2008, p. 1). Another definition is that globalisation is “a process that erodes national boundaries, integrates national economies, cultures, technologies and governance, and produces complex relations of mutual interdependence” (Norris, 2000, p. 155). Dreher (2006, p. 1092) approximately defined three globalisation dimensions as follows:

- Economic globalisation: The long-haul flows of products, capital and services as well as information and perceptions that accompany trading.
- Political globalisation: The spread of government policies and initiatives across countries.
- Social globalisation: The communication and diffusion of ideas, information, images and people.

Glocalisation is a term also used in this discussion and is formed by combining globalisation and localisation. Robertson (1994, p. 36) said that glocalisation was a global outlook adapted to local conditions, or we could say being global but remaining local. The example of Jollibee Food Corporation in the Philippines is a good example of glocalisation.

Sweet tweet 9: Jollibee rules fast food in the Philippines

“Jollibee is the largest fast-food chain brand in the Philippines, operating a network of more than 1,400 stores. A dominant market leader in the Philippines, Jollibee enjoys the lion’s share of the local market that is more than all the other multinational fast food brands in the Philippines combined”.

Source: Jollibee. (2021).

Salazar (2005) provides another example of glocalisation from Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Here, certain local tourism guides were connected to a global network and trained in handling Western tourists. However, they conducted tours in an authentic and local way. The sales of mooncakes by Starbucks in China, Singapore and Hong Kong at Mid-Autumn Festival time is a third case showing glocalisation to fit the demands of the local market. In India, McDonald’s does not have any beef or pork on its menus. Further examples of glocalisation are provided later in this chapter.

Measuring globalisation

How do we measure globalisation is a question of great interest to tourism and world tourism cities. There are thought to be three dimensions of globalisation, namely economic, political, and social globalisation (Keohane and Nye, 2000). One of the measurement systems available is the KOF Globalisation Index, which “measures the economic, social and political dimensions of globalisation” (KOF Swiss Economic Institute, 2021). Table 2.1 shows the 20 most globalised countries in the world according to KOFGI 2020 (based on 2018 data). Eighteen of these are in Europe, with only Canada and Singapore being the exceptions.

Table 2.1 Top 20 KOFGI ranked countries

KOFGI Rank for 2020	Country	Globalisation Index, overall
1	Switzerland	90.8
2	Netherlands	90.7
3	Belgium	90.5
4	Sweden	89.4
5	United Kingdom	89.4
6	Germany	88.8
7	Austria	88.6
8	Denmark	88.0
9	Finland	87.70
10	France	87.7
11	Ireland	85.5
12	Norway	85.5
13	Czech Republic	84.88
14	Portugal	84.9
15	Canada	84.2
16	Hungary	83.8
17	Spain	83.8
18	Singapore	83.5
19	Cyprus	83.1
20	Estonia	82.9

Source: KOF Swiss Economic Institute. (2021).

The KOFGI ranking criteria include several that are directly related to tourism and world tourism cities. Under interpersonal globalisation, the number of international tourist arrivals is included. Migration counts the number of foreign or foreign-born residents, which relates to cosmopolitanism. Freedom to visit has the percentage of

countries for which a nation requires a visa from foreign visitors. International airports includes the number of airports that offer at least one international flight connection. Cultural globalisation calculates the number of McDonald's and IKEA stores. It can be assumed with some degree of confidence that the major cities in the 20 countries listed in Table 2.1 are also highly globalised.

Chapter 1 reviewed several city ranking systems that could be said to be reflections of globalisation, including the Global Cities Index (GCI, AT Kearney) and Global Power City Index (GPCI, Mori Memorial Foundation). The ranking systems highlight the cities that have fared well with globalisation and are highly connected worldwide. The 2019 Global Cities Index ranked cities on business activity (30%), human capital (30%), information exchange (15%), cultural experience (15%), and political engagement (10%). The GPCI has six criteria covering the economy, research and development, cultural interaction, livability, environment, and accessibility. Mastercard's Global Destination Cities Index (GDCI) is another reflection of city tourism globalisation as it measures the number of international visitors and their expenditures.

The authors suggest that there are other dimensions of globalisation that must be measured beyond the economic, political, and social. Later in the chapter, environmental, technological, and legal and regulatory dimensions are examined, as well as the effects of globalisation on city residents and visitors. This provides a more holistic approach to analysing and measuring globalisation.

Globalisation and cities

It can be said without little doubt that cities have been at the frontline of globalisation. Scott (2001, pp. 817-818) said "dramatic improvements in technologies of transportation and communication are helping to annihilate the barriers of space by bringing all parts of the world into ever closer contact with one another". This highlights the key role of transportation and travel in spreading globalisation, as well as hinting about the similar role of information communication technologies (ICTs).

The urbanisation trend is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3; however, the combined effects of urbanisation and globalisation are worthy of discussion here. Agglomeration (geographic and economic) is one of the outcomes of the fusion of these two trends. Generally, geographic agglomeration means the connecting of settlements or where urban areas swallow up nearby towns and rural areas (McCann and Acs, 2011). Table 1.1 in the previous chapter listed the 30 largest urban agglomerations (or mega-cities) in the world. Economic agglomeration is where industries or businesses cluster together in order to improve efficiency, productivity, and profitability (Duranton and Kerr, 2015). California's Silicon Valley is a great example of this phenomenon, which often is based on industrial specialisation.

Globalisation and urbanisation have led to significant movements of people into cities from home and abroad. Chapter 1 argued that cities can become more

cosmopolitan when they receive immigrants from other countries. However, immigration can also cause certain issues. For example, Ley and Tutchener (2001) found that immigration to Vancouver and Toronto in Canada led to significant increases in house prices and argued that this was caused by globalisation. Labour shortages in the tourism sector also cause some cities to “import” staff from other countries and examples include Macao and several cities in the Arabian Gulf. This often is labelled as migrant labour or migrant workers.

Sweet tweet 10: Migrant workers in the hotel industry

Baum (2012) conducted an analysis of migrant workers in the hotel industry for ILO. Some of his major conclusions were:

- There is a strong consensus in the hotel industry that migrant workers are vital to the operational viability of the sector and will remain so for the foreseeable future.
- Migrant workers are seen to benefit the industry in terms of the skills and commitment they bring to the organizational culture of hotel businesses.
- Migrant workers are recognized to bring a skills profile into the industry which is frequently unavailable in the local labour market.
- Hotel businesses benefit from the culturally diverse skills which migrant workers bring to their employment.

Source: International Labour Organization (ILO). (2012).

Chapter 9 is devoted to the topic of smart tourism cities and part of this smartness is attributed to technological innovations in urban areas. Breathnach (2000) wrote about transnational niche cities using the example of Dublin’s emergence as a call centre hub.

The competition from larger international companies and the influx of foreign capital is thought to put greater pressure on small- and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) located within cities (Smeral, 1998). Some SMEs are forced to close down. However, others have prospered by adapting to the new opportunities brought by globalisation (Dana, Etemad, and Wright, 1999), while also drawing upon their local advantages.

Other urban change processes that are at least partially ascribed to globalisation are aestheticisation and gentrification of neighbourhoods and businesses (Gravari-Barbas and Guinand, 2021). Simpson (2008), for example, discussed the aestheticisation (to global standards) of traditional cafés in Macao. Third places are venues where local people go to and socialise while there and local traditional cafés are among these.

Many of the writers on globalisation discuss it in the context of the post-industrialisation of cities, and also as a post-modern phenomenon. Many cities have lost the traditional industries on which they were most dependent and have had to adjust economically as well as to deal with global forces. One good case study for such a transformation is Cape Town, South Africa which is the topic for Short Break 5.

Short break 5: Cape Town – the adaptation of a global port

Cape Town, South Africa is a strategic port city that has been affected by global forces for around five centuries. Although originally based on trade, its waterfront has more recently been adapted for leisure and tourism purposes. Before the Suez Canal was built, Cape Town was an important port of call as ships rounded the Cape of Good Hope. It was also the debarkation port for immigrants to Southern Africa and played a significant role when diamond- and gold-mining boomed in South Africa.

There were 5.4 million arrivals into Cape Town International Airport in 2019, of which 4.1 million were domestic, 1.2 million were international, and the remainder were regional (Cape Town Tourism, 2020). The major sources of international visitors for the city are the UK, Germany, and USA.

According to Ferreira and de Villiers (2014), the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront (V&AW) (Figure 2.2) in Cape Town was “transformed from a brownfields shipping wasteland to a mixed-use development boasting public spaces of distinction”. This follows a global, post-industrial trend to regenerate waterfronts into lively spaces for residents and visitors. Baltimore (Maryland), Sydney (Australia), and London are just three other cities with successful waterfront regeneration projects. Ferreira and de Villiers conclude that, although considered by some as being expensive, the V&AW serves “as a reminder that Cape Town is a world-class city competing to attract affluent local and international tourists to the best ‘shoppertainment’ experience an African city can offer”. However, Mustago (2011) found that “75.3% (of survey respondents) perceived the dining experience in the V&A Waterfront as just a copy of the Western countries”.

There are other bright spots of Cape Town tourism and one of the most recognised is the city’s association with responsible tourism. Cape Town Tourism, the city DMO, notes that “Cape Town’s tourism industry has been at the forefront of responsible tourism practices, with Cape Town Tourism signing the Responsible Tourism Charter to support the principles of sustainable development and management of tourism” (Cape Town Tourism, 2021). In 2002, the city created the *Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism*. Booyens and Rogerson (2015) also discuss the flourishing of creative tourism in Cape Town.

Just like many world tourism cities, Cape Town is having to deal with a mixture of globalisation and locally-generated issues including safety and security concerns (George, 2003), urban gentrification (Visser and Kotze, 2008), poverty and slum-like

(township) areas (Burgold and Rolfes, 2013; Rolfes, 2010), climate change (Dube, Nhamo, and Chikodzi, 2021), and a water shortage crisis.

Discussion points:

1. How has globalisation affected Cape Town in positive and negative ways?
2. What has Cape Town done to globalise and to make its tourism offers more authentic?
3. Why are Cape Town's globalisation experiences typical of world tourism cities?

Sources: Bickford-Smith. (2009); Booyens and Rogerson. (2015); Burgold and Rolfes. (2013); Cape Town Tourism. (2020, 2021); Dube, Nhamo, and Chikodzi. (2021); Ferreira and de Villiers. (2014); George. (2003); Mustago, 2011; Rolfes (2010); Visser and Kotze. (2008).

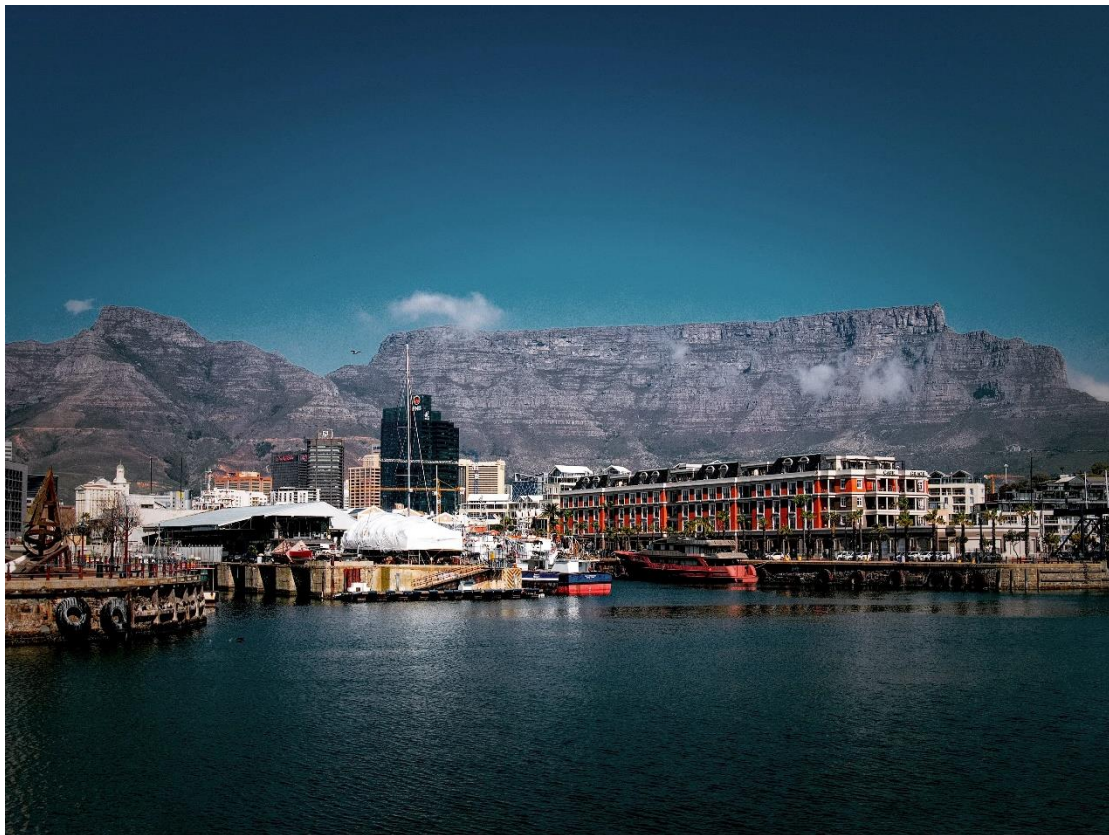


Figure 2.2 The V&A Waterfront in Cape Town, South Africa (Courtesy: Unsplash.com, Matthias Mullie).

Research on globalisation and tourism

The research on the interactions between globalisation and tourism reaches back to the early 1990s. Economically, tourism has benefited greatly from globalisation through the expansion of international travel. However, it could also be said that in 2020-2021, tourism suffered from de-globalisation as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic that swept the world (Niewiadomski, 2020).

The topics in the globalisation and tourism research literature have been with

respect to airlines, cruise lines, food consumption, medical and dental tourism, restaurants and coffee shops, and multinational tourism and hospitality companies. For example, Wood (2000) argued that globalisation affected cruise lines in several ways that included the use of flags of convenience, internationalisation, and labour migration. Morley (2003) connected globalisation with the formation of airline strategic alliances. Mak, Lumbers, and Eves (2012) developed a conceptual model to measure the impacts of globalisation on food consumption in destinations.

Several articles are published on how medical tourism has spread out around the globe (e.g., Chen and Wilson, 2013; Horowitz, Rosensweig, and Jones, 2007). There is considerable criticism and dubiousness expressed with respect to medical, health and wellness tourism. For example, Persaud (2005) questioned the value of travelling for cosmetic surgery. With a focus on Thailand, he also lamented about the skin whitening among Asian women. Martin (2009) picked the topic of reproductive tourism and found that national laws and regulations were lacking for this form of travel. Connell (2006), while noting the global growth of medical tourism, also highlighted that it was increasing the gap in health care for residents versus these international visitors. However, medical and dental tourism has brought benefits to poorer countries who have highly skilled doctors and dental surgeons, including the Ukraine, India and Malaysia (Jaapar et al., 2017).

The impacts of multinational or transnational companies in tourism is another popular topic (Feng, 2020). Much debate has resulted from the expansion of fast food companies, coffee shop and hotel chains, and theme park firms around the world. Interestingly, hospitality and tourism companies have been the direct focus of rather pejorative new expressions about globalisation including *Disneyfication*, *McDonaldization*, and *Starbuckization*, often accompanying the word *Americanization* (Ritzer, 2003). However, to be entirely fair to these companies, most have tried to localise their menus and service to adapt to the unique conditions in each country (Peterson, 2014). Disney is credited with glocalising its theme parks in Hong Kong and Shanghai to be more acceptable and appealing to Chinese guests (Matusitz, 2011; Yuan, 2019).

Sweet tweet 11: The man who drove McDonald's out of Iceland

McDonald's has restaurants in 118 countries and territories around the world. One of the countries that at the time of writing had no McDonald's was Iceland. The company had operated four restaurants there since 1993, which the local franchisee closed in 2009. Culture Trip ascribes McDonald's failure to local restaurateur, Tommi Tómasson (who operates Tommi's Burger Joints); however, it was more the effects of globalisation that caused the stores to be shut down. A CNBC documentary video indicates that the global financial crisis of 2008-2009 caused several profitability issues for Iceland's McDonald's despite their great popularity with diners.

Sources: CNBC. (2019). Culture Trip. (2020, 2021); McDonald's. (2021). Tommi's Burger Joint. (2021).

“Casinopolitan globalism” is a term that is being used to describe the spread of casino operations and other branded entertainment globally (Luke, 2010, p. 395). In particular, the Las Vegas-like developments in Macao and elsewhere are said to be examples of diffusion of the global casino culture around the world.

Sweet tweet 12: Exporting Las Vegas

The exportation of branded entertainment and culture are signs of the effects of globalisation on tourism development in several cities. Included are theme parks, casinos, and museums.

“The casinopolitanism of Vegas and Macao are the most concentrated, complete, and concrete manifestations of more of the planet’s multitudes’ advances toward more urbanized living in, for, and with the material ecologies of contemporary globalism. The salience of essentially packaged, scripted, and branded experiences brings Disneyland to Japan, Europe, and Hong Kong; the Guggenheim to Spain (Figure 2.3), Romania, and Abu Dhabi; or Vegas to Atlantic City, Sun City, and Macao”.

Source: Luke. (2010), p. 404.

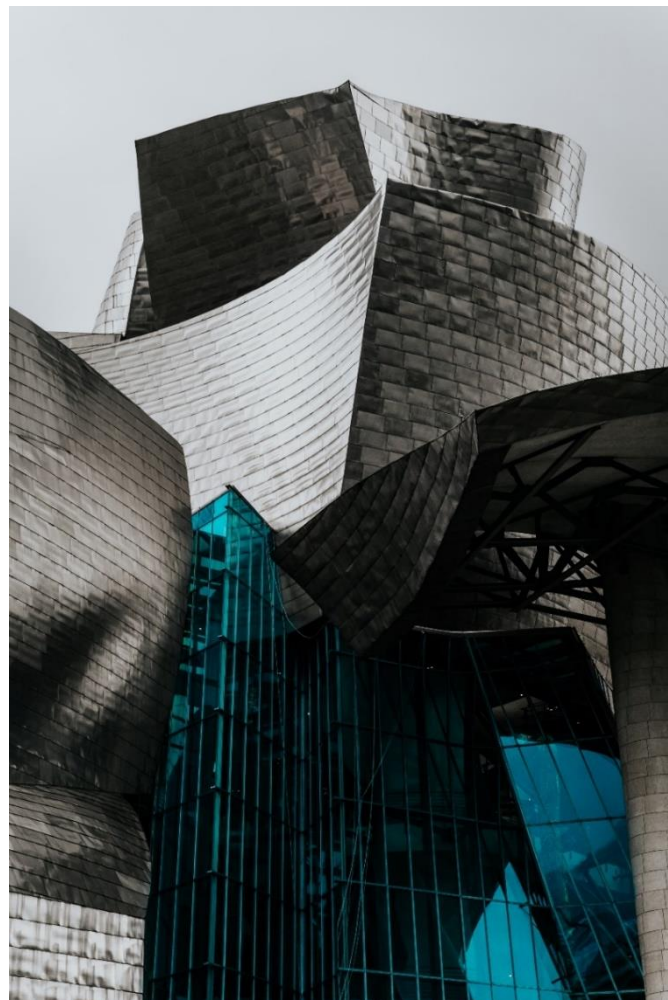


Figure 2.3 The Guggenheim in Bilbao, Spain (Courtesy: Unsplash.com, Vitor Pinto).

The impacts of globalisation on specific regions, countries and types of geographical areas is another area of the related tourism research. Countries that are examined in these studies include Australia, China, Indonesia, Japan, Kenya, Myanmar/Thailand, and South Africa (respectively by Faulkner and Walmsley, 1998; Zhang and Chiu, 2020; Sugiyarto et al., 2003; Kureha et al., 2005; Bruner, 2001; Parnwell, 1998; Heath, 2001). Globalisation's effects on tourism in the Middle East and South Asia have also been investigated (Hazbun, 2004; Mehmood et al., 2021). Islands are another focal point for globalisation and tourism research; for example, MacLeod (1999) examined the impact of tourism in globalising a Canary Island in Spain.

Several previous studies have considered the environmental impacts of globalisation through tourism. For example, Alola et al. (2021) concluded that an "increase in tourism arrivals and globalization is detrimental to the attainment of sustainable environmental quality in a long term". There has been a focus on the contribution of the transportation sector, and especially airlines, to greenhouse gas production (Leamon et al., 2019).

Tourism and travel are also associated with the spread of terrorism (Bianchi, 2007) and sex tourism (Clancy, 2002), and of course more recently with the transmission of COVID-19 (Chinazzi et al., 2020). The effects of globalisation through tourism have also been studied with respect to indigenous people (McLaren and Pera, 2002) and environmental quality (Alola et al., 2021). The contribution of travel and tourism to global warming and climate change are well documented.

Globalisation and world tourism cities

It has been said that "tourism is both a cause and a consequence of globalization. It accelerates the convergent tendencies in the world" (Azarya, 2004, p. 949). The increases in world tourism arrivals (up until the end of 2019) were fuelling globalisation, as people explored every corner of the planet. Also, tourism growth was spurred by numerous aspects of globalisation including freer trade, improved transportation, visa facilitation, and information communication.

Are world tourism cities a manifestation of globalisation? The answer would seem to be in the positive as world tourism cities have distinctive globalisation features. They are easily reached, well known, influential, impactful, and cosmopolitan. Thus, perhaps world tourism cities as well as the open-system nature of tourism render them more likely to experience the latest global trends.

One global trend that has swept worldwide is the increasing power of sharing economy providers, many of whom operate within hospitality and tourism (Belarmino, 2021). She says that the sharing economy is "the single largest disrupter traditional tourist firms have ever experienced" (p. 65) and mainly due to peer-to-peer accommodation and ridesharing (Figure 2.4).



Figure 2.4 The rise of sharing economy providers is a trend within globalisation. (Courtesy: Unsplash.com, taiQ)

Hjalager (2007) says that tourism is undergoing an irrevocable globalising process and suggests that this occurs in several stages. These are: 1) missionaries in markets; 2) integrating across borders; 3) fragmentation of the value chain; and 4) transcending into new value chains. She illustrates with several examples from Scandinavia that globalisation is not just a one-time effect; rather it evolves through several stages as the private sector and governments adjust to the new realities.

Gotham (2005) raises the issue of the commodification of local traditions in the context of the Mardi Gras festival in New Orleans, Louisiana. He talks about “above” and “below” effects, the former representing the influences of globalisation and the latter being localisation as a resistance to homogenisation. Gotham describes how local groups and individuals are opposing the commercialisation of Mardi Gras. He also recognises that the expansion of Mardi Gras through tourism has created an export market for Mardi Gras floats and other aspects of this festival.

Hudson (2010) describes how international tourism has transformed the Paharganj district in New Delhi, India. The image in Figure 2.5 of Paharganj is very typical of the nighttime scenes in most Asian cities where lower-priced hotels, bars, souvenir shops, convenience stores and various peddlers compete for the visitor’s attention.

Sweet tweet 13: Transnational urbanism and tourism in New Delhi

“Paharganj, a district of Delhi, is one of those places (a relay station in a world of flows). Like other global cities, Delhi is simultaneously anchored to the national base, yet interconnected to other cities in a shifting and unstable network of cultural, economic, and political nodes. Various categories of social actors can forge transnational relationships, operate on a multiplicity of scales, and create practices

of transnational urbanism. Tourists have been identified as one of those categories instrumental for this process”.

Source: Hudson. (2010), p. 372.

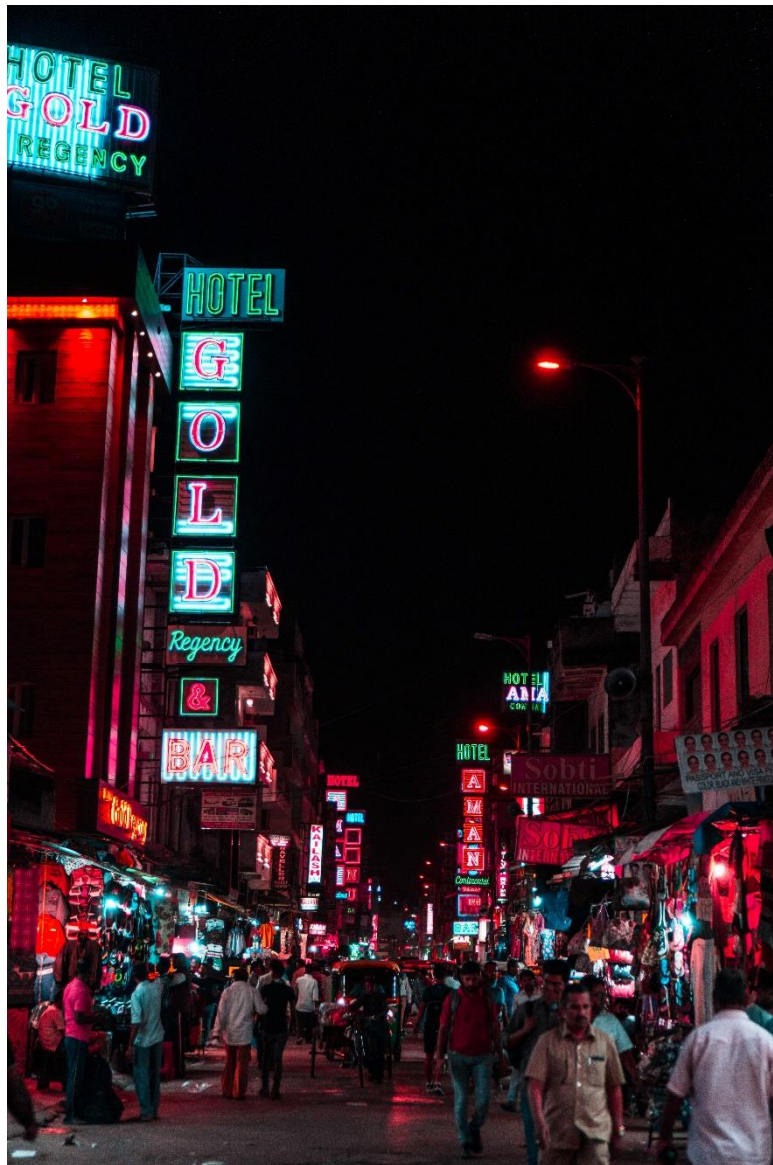


Figure 2.5 The neon light scene in the Paharganj district of New Delhi (Courtesy: Unsplash.com, Prateek Katyal)

Connecting world tourism cities with globalisation

The conception of world tourism cities in Chapter 1 was of urban areas that are globally connected and relevant. All five essential features of world tourism cities are associated with globalisation.

- Gateway: World tourism cities are conveniently linked to other parts of the world through transportation.
- Influential: World tourism cities are respected and what they do is significant nationally and internationally.

- Impactful: World tourism cities are leaders and have best practices that others follow, again in their own countries and abroad.
- Cosmopolitan: World tourism cities benefit from having residents and visitors from around the world.
- Recognised: World tourism are well known and recognised throughout the world.

Overall, there is significant research and on-the-ground evidence of the impacts of globalisation of tourism in general and world tourism cities specifically. Much of what has accumulated in the tourism research literature is not particularly positive, and especially with respect to the environmental and social-cultural influences of globalisation. However, there is an old saying that “there are two sides to every story” and a balanced consideration of all dimensions of globalisation is needed.

Having made the connection between world tourism cities and globalisation clearer, the dimensions of globalisation are now discussed. A PESTEL-RV framework of globalisation dimensions and perspectives is used to objectively explore the influences of globalisation on tourism and world tourism cities.

The PESTEL dimensions of globalisation

In the six sub-sections that follow, the dimensions of globalisation are expanded from three to six to follow the PESTEL model (political, economic, social, technological, environmental, and legal) (figure 2.6). The labels have been modified slightly to expand the meanings of each dimension. Thereafter, the effects of globalisation on city residents and visitors are reviewed. An attempt is made to weave into the discussions the negative and positive impacts on tourism.

PESTEL-RV review of globalisation



Figure 2.6 PESTEL-RV model

Political and governmental globalisation

Political globalisation occurs when countries officially join organisations such as the United Nations, World Trade Organization, European Union, ASEAN and other inter-governmental agencies. It represents the closer integration of a country's politics and policies with other nations in the world.

On a global basis, the United Nations (UN) is one of the most influential of these organisations. For example, the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for up to 2030 provide guidelines and targets in 17 specific aspects of sustainability (UN, 2021). SDG 11 is related to sustainability in cities to “make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable”. The SDGs are discussed in more detail in Chapter 8 including the *Voluntary Local Reviews* conducted by many cities related to implementation for SDG 11.

There are also several inter-governmental organisations within the UN system that exert a profound influence on tourism. For example, the UN World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2021b) has 159 member states. It is noteworthy that at the time of writing, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, UK and USA were not members of UNWTO. The UN agency for tourism introduces initiatives and mandates to which it asks its members to support. One example is the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET).

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) is another

UN agency that has a significant impact on global tourism. Chapter 1 mentioned UNESCO's World Heritage List (WHL) and the Creative Cities Network (UCCN). Some 194 state parties have signed the 1972 World Heritage Convention, which officially introduced the WHL. As the previous chapter highlights, WHL designations have increased the global recognition of several cities and caused growth in tourist arrivals.

A third UN agency is the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) that "is funded and directed by 193 national governments to support their diplomacy and cooperation in air transport as signatory states to the Chicago Convention (1944)" (ICAO, 2021). ICAO's strategic objectives are aviation safety, air navigation capacity and efficiency, security and facilitation, economic development, and environmental protection. The economic development of air transport includes, for example, the liberalisation of international air transport. Under environmental protection, ICAO's member states have agreed to tackle climate change and aviation emissions, aircraft noise, and local air quality.

The UN Environment Programme (UNEP) is a fourth agency that plays a role that impinges on tourism. For example, UNEP is working with UNWTO and the Ellen MacArthur Foundation on initiatives to deal with and curb the disposal of plastics in tourism destinations. This situation was exacerbated in 2020 with the indiscriminate disposal of COVID-19 PPE (personal protective equipment) (UNEP, 2020; UNWTO, 2021a).

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is a fifth UN agency whose recommendations affect food consumption in tourism. For example, FAO has developed the EMPRES (Emergency Prevention System for Food Safety) Food Safety Strategic Plan (FAO, 2021). EMPRES serves as "a key international system to assist in the prevention and management of global food safety emergencies, including the three pillars of early warning, emergency prevention and rapid response".

The World Health Organization (WHO) is a sixth agency of the UN that rose greatly in visibility during COVID-19. On March 11, 2020, WHO declared the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak a global pandemic (WHO, 2021). The agency has received significant criticism for its handling of the outbreak in its early stages; however, notwithstanding the validity of these concerns, WHO had crucial impacts on travel, tourism and hospitality in cities globally in 2020-2021.

De-nationalisation (Sassen, 2003) is argued to be the other side of political globalisation, where national governments are forced to introduce fresh legislation and regulations to meet the requirements and recommendations of inter-governmental organisations.

Economic globalisation

Countries around the world are becoming more dependent on each other based on trade and flows of capital, and this is the result of economic globalisation.

Sweet tweet 14: What is economic globalisation?

“Economic globalization refers to the increasing interdependence of world economies as a result of the growing scale of cross-border trade of commodities and services, flow of international capital and wide and rapid spread of technologies. It reflects the continuing expansion and mutual integration of market frontiers and is an irreversible trend for the economic development in the whole world at the turn of the millennium”.

Source: Gao. (2000), p. 1.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is often mentioned as an agent for economic globalisation. At the time of writing, WTO had 164 member states as well as 27 in observer status.

Sweet tweet 15: The World Trade Organization

“The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only global international organization dealing with the rules of trade between nations. At its heart are the WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world’s trading nations and ratified in their parliaments. The goal is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible”.

Source: WTO. (2021a).

The creation of WTO and various trade agreements among countries is said to reflect neoliberalism. This means a “new” perspective in which temporary forms of economic restructuring are more acceptable. Neoliberalism is understood to refer to “the process of opening up national economies to global actors such as multinational corporations and to global institutions such as the IMF and World Bank” (Larner, 2003).

Another phenomenon of economic integration is the regional trade agreement (RTA). According to the WTO’s RTA database at the time of writing, there were 343 such agreements across the world in 2021 (WTO, 2021b). The World Bank (2018) defines an RTA as “a treaty between two or more governments that define the rules of trade for all signatories. Examples of regional trade agreements include the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Central American-Dominican Republic Free Trade Agreement (CAFTA-DR), the European Union (EU) and Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)”. It also needs to be mentioned that there are many bilateral agreements between specific pairs of countries including ones relating to air transport.

The International Monetary Fund (2021) also provides information on other groupings of nations, the most well known of which might be the Group of 20 or G20, which was established in 1999 “to strengthen policy coordination between its members, promote financial stability, and modernize the international financial architecture”. Some of the G20 members are China, France, Germany, Japan, the UK and USA.

Social and cultural globalisation

The social dimension of globalization refers to the impact of globalization on the life and work of people, on their families, and their societies. Concerns and issues are often raised about the impact of globalization on employment, working conditions, income and social protection. Beyond the world of work, the social dimension encompasses security, culture and identity, inclusion or exclusion and the cohesiveness of families and communities (ILO, 2003).

The introduction of tourism into cities has received much criticism from scholars and others, which more recently has had a focus on the overtourism phenomenon. Sociologists and anthropologists in particular have had a heyday in coining terms to describe the rather odious effects of greater tourism activity on local people, cultures and well-being. As previously mentioned, these have included aestheticisation and gentrification, to which can be added commercialisation, commodification, cultural contamination, cultural (or transnational) homogenisation, touristification (or tourismfication), transculturalisation, and several other expressions. There is considerable validity to these adverse cultural and social impacts of tourism on cities and they must be dealt with in an appropriate manner. The solutions are complex and must consider the needs and expectations of local citizens whose lives and work are also being reshaped by other aspects of globalisation apart from tourism.

Technological globalisation

Technological globalisation represents the diffusion of new technologies across the world and is perhaps one of the most obvious manifestations of globalisation. The rapid adoption of information communication technologies (ICTs) has affected tourism and world tourism cities in many ways. Just one example, is the provision of Wi-Fi service in many cities in public areas (Figure 2.7) and within tourism businesses. This phenomenon is discussed in detail in Chapter 9 in the context of smart tourism cities.



Figure 2.7 Free Wi-Fi is provided in Milan. (Courtesy: Unsplash.com, Anastasia Eremina).

Several cities have put great effort and investment into providing free public Wi-Fi services. These include such large cities as Paris, Moscow, New York, Seoul, Hong Kong, and Tel Aviv, but also smaller ones such as Tallinn, Estonia and Perth, Australia.

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) is a (seventh) specialised UN agency that has a focus on information communication technologies (ICTs). ITU is “the intergovernmental body responsible for coordinating the shared global use of the radio spectrum, promoting international cooperation in assigning satellite orbits, improving communication infrastructure in the developing world, and establishing the worldwide standards that foster seamless interconnection of a vast range of communications systems” (ITU, 2020a). It estimated that at the end of 2020, 85% of the world’s population was covered by 4G mobile-broadband networks (ITU, 2020b). The same report found that in mid-2020, there were 105 mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants.

According to the Miniwatts Marketing Group (2021), there were 5.053 billion Internet users in the world in December 2020, equivalent to 64.2 percent of the total

population. The largest regional Internet market is Asia with 2.71 billion users, or 53.6% of all Internet users in the world.

The globalisation of information has created opportunities for global distribution and booking systems in travel and tourism. GDS (global distribution) systems have developed as well as online travel agencies (OTAs) and various booking platforms. Online travel review sites, particularly TripAdvisor, have flourished and gone global.

New technologies that are being introduced globally are affecting other aspects of tourism and especially in transportation and service provision. These include greater use of augmented and virtual reality, and artificial intelligence and robotics. Electric cars including the Teslas are not necessarily a new trend; however, they are now much more popular. Self-driving cars, also known as autonomous vehicles, are one of the most interesting trends that could revolutionise city travel in the future. Hotel service robots are another innovation being seen much more frequently in urban hotels.

Environmental globalisation

Grainger (2012) defines environmental globalization as increases “in global uniformity and connectedness in the language, regulations, and practices of environmental management”. There are several inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) dedicated to the conservation and preservation of the natural environment.

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) is “a membership Union composed of both government and civil society organisations. It harnesses the experience, resources and reach of its more than 1,400 member organisations and the input of more than 17,000 experts. This diversity and vast expertise makes IUCN the global authority on the status of the natural world and the measures needed to safeguard it” (IUCN, 2021).

Sweet tweet 16: The C40 network

Several world tourism cities belong to the C40 Climate Leadership Group including Bangkok, Beijing, London, New York, Paris, and Singapore. “C40 is a network of the world’s megacities committed to addressing climate change. C40 supports cities to collaborate effectively, share knowledge and drive meaningful, measurable and sustainable action on climate change”. It is a “global network of large cities taking action to address climate change by developing and implementing policies and programs that generate measurable reductions in both greenhouse gas emissions and climate risks”.

Source: C40. (2021).

In any discussion of the environment, the influence of non-governmental

organisations (NGOs) must be a topic. There are several powerful NGOs with an environmental orientation including Conservation International, Greenpeace, The Nature Conservancy, Ocean Conservancy, Oxfam, Rainforest Alliance, Sierra Club, and World Wildlife Fund (WWF). They conduct critical research studies, provide aid and assistance, build awareness of conservation and preservation issues and needs, and lobby governments and private companies. Most of these NGOs operate membership programmes.

Sweet tweet 17: The Nature Conservancy and Hong Kong – Building healthy cities

The branch of TNC in Hong Kong is deeply involved with the NGO's strategic priority to build healthier cities. They say that "by introducing nature into cities and reconnecting people to the natural world, cities can combat some of the biggest urban challenges, such as stormwater run-off, air pollution and heat islands". Their pilot cities include Hong Kong, Shanghai, Shenzhen and Melbourne, where TNC's work has a focus on:

- Integrating nature into urban planning and design
- Connecting people with nature
- Restoring natural infrastructure and wildlife habitats

Source: The Nature Conservancy (TNC) Hong Kong. (2021).

The World Wildlife Fund (WWF) is "using tourism as a conservation tool. Ecological accommodation and nature educational trails are some of many examples of how tourism is being used to promote nature protection in the Alps" (WWF, 2021).

Several countries operate NGOs as agencies assisting lesser-developed countries, which are sometimes referred to as aid or donor agencies. These include the US Agency for International Development (USAID), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), and the UK Department for International Development (DFID). These development agencies are often very influential in tourism development. For example, USAID is assisting with the design, implementation, and promotion of an alternative tourism development approach in the city of Esna, in the Luxor governorate of Egypt. (USAID, 2021).

Another interpretation of environmental globalisation takes the negative perspective with the spread of pollution and the impacts of global warming on the earth. Climate change and other related topics are discussed in detail in Chapter 8 on sustainability in world tourism cities. It suffices to say here that there is a huge body of research about the adverse effects of tourism on natural and cultural-heritage environments.

Legal and regulatory globalisation

Globalisation of law may be defined as the worldwide progression of transnational legal structures and discourses along the dimensions of extensity, intensity, velocity, and impact (Halliday and Osinsky, 2006). Regulatory globalisation is the process by which regulatory agencies extend their reach internationally (Macey, 2003). These two can best be exemplified by regional government systems such as the European Union (EU). For example, the European Parliament is vested with legislative powers that can result in new laws and supporting regulations that affect all member countries. The recent departure of the United Kingdom from the European Union (popularly known as the Brexit process) was at least partly motivated by the desire to be free from laws and regulations not established in the UK but in Brussels.

It is not only governments that regulate tourism, as private-sector companies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) also play a significant role. Self-regulation on a global level is in effect for some sub-sectors of tourism. The airlines are a good example here through such organisations as IATA (International Air Transport Association), which represents 290 airlines equivalent to 82% of total air traffic. Its key performance targets for 2021 were safety, financial resilience, industry restart, and environmental sustainability (IATA, 2021). For example, one of the environmental goals of IATA in 2021 was “achieving 2.2M tons of CO₂ offset through the IATA Aviation Carbon Exchange”.

Cruise Lines International Association (CLIA) represents “95% of the world’s ocean-going cruise capacity, as well as 54,000 travel agents, and 15,000 of the largest travel agencies in the world” (CLIA, 2021). CLIA’s articulated policies tend to be followed by its member cruise companies.

Sweet tweet 18: CLIA policies

“CLIA advances policies intended to enhance shipboard safety, security, and environmental stewardship, in some cases calling for best practices in excess of existing legal requirements”.

Source: CLIA. (2021).

There are numerous other industry groups that have policies, programmes, and initiatives that are influencing tourism globally. Some of these were mentioned in Chapter 1 including the World Cities Cultural Forum, World Tourism Cities Federation, and Destinations International. Yet other influential industry groups on a global scale are the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) and the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA). Apart from anything else, these groups are cultivating professional standards at a global level while also building practitioner networks that spread knowledge around the world.

The city resident and visitor perspectives (RV)

It is easy just to focus on the six globalisation dimensions and to lose sight of the human aspects involved. However, it is crucial to consider the impacts, positive and negative, on city residents and visitors. The impacts of tourism on local residents is the topic for detailed discussion in Chapter 7 where there is a particular focus on quality of life and well-being. One of the aspects reviewed in Chapter 7 is the overtourism phenomenon. The overcrowding and disturbance of the daily lives of residents are at the core of this problem, which appears to have been exacerbated by new spikes in tourist arrivals due to the growing capacity and use of sharing economy accommodation (P2P). The combined effects of overtourism and the COVID-19 pandemic have heightened the recognition that greater attention within cities must be paid to visitor management.

Visitors have also been greatly affected by globalisation in a variety of different ways. Many of them themselves are residents of other cities and so they share similar influences with those living in destination cities. The rapid development of ICTs has flooded people with online information on destinations. They can travel the world virtually without getting off of their sofas. Moreover, they can reach places more quickly and safely than ever before and have many more choices of places to visit and activities to be experienced. However, globalisation has introduced novel threats for visitors, including increasing crimes and scams, and a growth in terrorism aimed at them.

The loss of authenticity as perceived by visitors within destinations and a creeping sameness of places is said to be a consequence of tourism globalisation. However, authenticity is a contested concept in tourism and a debate is being had about whether it is objective or subjective, or a combination of both. Wang (1999) in one of the most cited works, suggests that authenticity has intra- and inter-personal dimensions, and that it is not only an objective concept.

Other people affected by globalisation are the tourism stakeholders within world tourism cities. Previously, the impacts on SMEs were highlighted as were the adaptations made by multinational firms in tourism in glocalising. Table 2.2 which follows elaborates on how tourism and tourism stakeholders are impacted through the PESTEL-RV dimensions.

Advantages and disadvantages of globalisation for world tourism cities

It is rather obvious from the foregoing that globalisation brings many good things to cities; however, in its wake also flow many serious issues and challenges for urban areas and city tourism. Now, it is crucial to pinpoint and itemise these advantages and disadvantages of globalisation for world tourism cities by deducing them from the foregoing materials. Some previous authors have written on this topic in the context of tourism in general (e.g., Theuns, 2008; Zmyślony, 2011). However, the authors introduce a new and more comprehensive framework for this identification through PESTEL-RV (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Advantages and disadvantages of globalisation according to PESTEL-RV framework

Dimensions and perspectives	Advantages	Disadvantages
Political and governmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater freedom of movement across borders (e.g., visa facilitation, visa-on-arrival) • Freer trade among countries • Increased priority and emphasis on transport and food safety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • De-nationalisation • Increase in terrorism • Refugee crises • Trade disputes • Loss of national identities
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growth in tourist arrivals including business/MICE • More foreign direct investment (FDI) • New markets for tourism sector • Greater alliances and cooperation among companies and organisations • Professionalisation of destination management • Availability of migrant workers • Reductions in poverty 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overcrowding and disruption of resident daily lives (overtourism) • Pressure on SMEs for survival • Global financial crises • Disruption of supply chains • Shortages of domestic labour pool • Sharing economy issues • Increased economic disparities • Economic leakage (repatriation of profits)
Social and cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing cosmopolitanism • Greater cultural understanding and acceptance • Enhanced diversity and tolerance • Greater harmony • Enhanced knowledge of other peoples 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural homogenisation or contamination • Loss of authenticity • Commodification of local traditions • Increases in undesirable activities (e.g., sex tourism, drunk tourism, etc.) • More crime and drug trafficking
Technological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction of ICTs with global communication • More information available through the Internet and mobile telephony • Faster and more convenient transportation • Power of social media (e.g., free promotion globally) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information overload • Fake news/false claims • Personal security concerns • Over-reliance on technology • Need for “digital detox”
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater concern for conservation and preservation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contribution to climate change and global warming

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stronger global environmental lobbying (e.g., NGOs) • More guidelines for sustainable, responsible and ethical tourism and travel • Increased importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demolition of heritage buildings and districts • Pollution of oceans and other bodies of water • Wildlife disturbance and land degradation • Water shortages • Indiscriminate disposal of plastic
Legal and regulatory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More standardisation in tourism • Potential enhancement of quality and service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Addition of more legislation and regulations • More formality and bureaucracy
City residents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improvements in infrastructure and amenities • Potential to enliven neighbourhoods and districts • More leisure and entertainment options • More income and employment opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of third places • Gentrification and aestheticisation • Commercialisation of traditions • Overcrowding • Threats of disease spread • Housing shortages and inflated real estate prices
Visitors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater choice of destinations • More availability of information • Faster and more convenient transport • Sharing economy benefits • Improved service quality • More varied experiences, activities and attractions • Improved safety and security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crimes and scams • Racial, ethnic and gender discrimination • Overcrowding • Overcommercialisation • Sameness of places

While acknowledging that Table 2.2 is not necessarily complete, the classification of pros and cons therein highlight the complexity of globalisation for tourism and world tourism cities. The impacts of globalisation in cities are likely to be the earliest and the most profound, with the effects gradually spreading out to peri-urban and rural areas. With many cities also dealing with rapid urbanisation (Chapter 3), this is accentuating the need for specialised and more professional city destination management, which is the focus in Chapters 4-6.

Summary comments

The world is globalising, and tourism is a powerful force in the process. Globalisation has been of benefit to city destinations around the world; however, most have had to pay a price in the transaction. The erosion of unique city identities and authenticity is a common criticism of the spread of globalisation. However, it is a

main premise in this book that there are already world tourism cities and others that aspire to be world tourism cities. These cities have the vision to be on the world tourism stage and thus globalisation is both a facilitator and a challenge.

Globalisation should be viewed from at least six perspectives – political and governmental, economic, social and cultural, technological, environmental, and legal and regulatory. Through the lens of these six factors globalisation has brought benefits to tourism cities, not the least has been economic growth. However, novel problems and issues have also been carried by successive waves of globalisation. These negatives include greater terrorism and pollution, and an increasing sameness of place. In addition, the perspectives of city residents and visitors must also be taken into consideration when weighing up the pros and cons of globalisation. It is crucial to objectively consider the impacts of globalisation on the lives of city residents and visitors.

Post-COVID, the increasing influence of globalisation on world tourism cities seems to be inevitable and the glocalisation route is one of the solutions. This will require a delicate balancing of what local residents expect and want, and what visitors are seeking in the blend of familiarity and novelty.

There are many who say that globalisation is a blessing while others deem it a curse; then there are those who call it a mixed blessing. However, notwithstanding these characterisations, it can be said that for world tourism cities it is a reality and part of their fabric. The trick is how to distil the benefits from globalisation while minimising the negative side-effects.

Thought questions

1. How has globalisation benefited tourism and world tourism cities?
2. Are authenticity and globalisation at two different ends of a spectrum? How can a tourism city simultaneously derive benefits from both?
3. How has globalisation negatively affected tourism cities?
4. How have multinational companies glocalised their products and service cultures to be more successful with international expansion?
5. In which ways will the COVID-19 pandemic alter globalisation in the future?
6. How do global issues and trends affect the behaviour of tourists when they are visiting cities?
7. There are often two sides to the effects of globalisation. Critics say that urban gentrification due to leisure and tourism demand harms local residents of the affected districts; others argue that this cleans up and beautifies undesirable and dilapidated parts of cities. What is your opinion on gentrification?
8. To lessen the globalisation impacts through tourism, should destinations including cities more tightly control visitor numbers? Why or why not, and how can visitor

volumes be controlled?

9. As Asia's power increases in the world, in what ways will the East influence the West?

10. Are people in general better off as a result of globalisation and why or why not?

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