INTRODUCTION

The world is complicated, unpredictable, and dynamic. Each successive generation must deal with changes that occur to natural ecosystems, the social and cultural environment, the global economy, and the technological landscape in ways heretofore untested by previous generations. Since the mid-twentieth century, the pace of global change seems to have increased at an exponential rate. Climate scientists warn that our planet is heating up at an accelerated speed, with increasingly powerful and dangerous natural events (such as floods, hurricanes, tornados, and wildfires) becoming the norm. Social mores and social capital are becoming more inclusive of human rights and social justice. Traditional cultures are transforming through migration, increased contact with outsiders, and the permeation of information and communications technology (ICT) in even the remotest parts of the world. The global economy is now so completely intertwined with local economies that economic and political events happening across the globe now affect even the small-scale economies of home. This is the nature of globalisation, and in 2020, very little in our everyday lives remains unaffected by it directly or indirectly.

Tourism is one of the most multifaceted socio-economic and political forces on the planet. It affects every one of the circumstances just noted and is simultaneously affected by them. Thus, tourism is a force for globalisation, as well as a product of globalisation. It connects people, places, and businesses across the globe, concurrently uniting and dividing people and places. This book provides a systematic look at the political, socio-cultural, and economic processes that bring about, and accelerate, globalisation.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the interdependent forces of tourism and globalisation. It examines the meanings and reach of globalisation, provides an overview of tourism’s relationships with globalisation, and outlines the general contents of the book.

GLOBALISATION AND TOURISM

Globalisation is the process by which the world becomes a smaller place. It refers to the linking of companies, governments, and people through trade, media and ICT, investments, and travel. These processes may be political, socio-cultural, economic, ecological, technological, or a combination of them all, as in the case of tourism (Butler & Suntikul, 2010; Dwyer, 2015). Globalisation denotes interaction, interdependence, and in some cases integration among sovereign states, multinational corporations, cultural groups, and individual people. It encompasses international trade, technology, the sharing of
ideas, education and research, cultural development, transportation innovations, poverty reduction, well-being, health and human services, liberalization of trade policies, human mobility, and many other elements of everyday life. From the perspective of tourism, globalisation entails a process that involves transnational ownership and investments; transfrontier marketing cooperation; outsourcing; the free movement of labor; and trade in goods, services, and knowledge (Hjalager, 2007; Timothy, 2017, 2018; Wood, 2000).

History is replete with early forerunners to modern globalisation. Ancient peoples everywhere traded what they had for necessities and other goods that they could not produce themselves (Parkins & Smith, 1998; Thompson, 2006). Some 3000 to 4000 years ago, long-distance trade was already occurring in the Mediterranean region and in Central and East Asia. In antiquity, the empires that ruled the Mediterranean (e.g. Greek, Egyptian, Assyrian, and Roman) and much of East Asia (e.g. the Shang, Zhou, Qin, and Han dynasties) forced a more interconnected world through their military might, as well as through trade (Bielenstein, 2005). The Silk Road (ca 120 BCE – 1500s CE), an ancient network of trade routes that stretched from East and Southeast Asia into Europe and along the East African coast, which particularly enabled trade in silk from China and gold, silver, and wool from Europe, is often a point of reference for early manifestations of globalisation (Timothy & Boyd, 2015; Wood, 2002; Xie et al., 2007). The Silk Road was also a means for the cross-pollination of art, culture, knowledge, religion, and technology. Other ancient trade routes developed through the centuries, focusing largely on specific products such as spices, salt, incense, frankincense, and tea, but also serving as settings for intellectual exchanges, religious diffusion, and cultural intercourse (Artzy, 1994; Keay & Salvucci, 2005; Shackley, 2002; Sidebotham, 2011).

The early Muslim conquests from 622 to 750 CE and the Arab Empire (until 1258 CE) saw the dissemination of Islam from Mecca throughout the Middle East, North Africa, parts of South Asia, and the Iberian Peninsula. Later, the Ottoman Empire (ca. 1299–1922) colonized much of the Balkans, North Africa, the Levant, and Anatolia, and established a strong trading economy both throughout the empire and with lands lying outside the empire’s borders. Art, culture, religion, military prowess, music, literature, cuisine, and science were some of the subjects and objects of globalisation under the Ottomans (Ágoston, 2005; Faroqhi, 2007).

European colonialism brought about an interdependence between European metropoles and their overseas colonies. The trans-Atlantic slave trade from Africa to the Americas flourished under various colonial governments, effecting one of the largest-scale victim diasporas ever to have occurred in human history (Cohen, 1997; Coles & Timothy, 2004). The two-way transmission of populations, ideas, food products, illnesses, animals, and plants (e.g. wheat flour, tomatoes, the Spanish language) between Europe and its colonies in the Americas from the 1500s to the 1700s, which became known as the Columbian Exchange, is another example of early modern globalisation. Many scholars also consider the foundation and commercial proliferation of colonial trading companies, such as the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company, to have created the world’s earliest multinational corporations (Jou, 2003; Roukis, 2004).

The nineteenth-century Industrial Revolution is frequently identified as the first and most impactful modern event (or set of events) to have accelerated globalisation in its current form (Passaris, 2006; Stearns, 2013). The most influential elements of the
Industrial Revolution were the mechanization of production and innovations in transport technology, such as steamships, steam trains, and eventually internal combustion engines. Automation simplified production processes, which reduced time requirements and labor costs. Goods such as clothing, rubber commodities, and steel products could be produced in larger quantities and at a much lower cost. This on its own was sufficient to stimulate increased global trade, but when combined with transportation innovations, which resulted in quicker travel times and more efficient movement of products, international trade and travel became unstoppable.

The deterioration of state sovereignty, nationalism, and the protective barriers associated with international borders constitute another modern phenomenon that is now a conventional process. This has enabled increased levels of trade, human mobility, industrial and ICT innovation, education, tourism, and environmental protection (Timothy, 2001). In addition to human mobility and trade, global alliances result in a freer flow of investment capital, as well as enhanced business partnerships and multinationalism, freedom of information, and shared military intelligence (Dwyer, 2014; Hampe, 2018).

Since the pivotal events of the Industrial Revolution, no other event or phenomenon in the modern era has propelled globalisation in the same way the internet and other ICTs have done (Castells, 2009). The internet has enabled instant information fluidity. GPS technology, mobile phone apps, and social media stimulate and support the growth of user-generated information, consumer-ready information, product reviews, free marketing platforms, and pan-global relationships. Mobile cellular technology provides data and global connectedness instantaneously nearly everywhere in the world. Virtual reality may help people experience faraway places they might never have an opportunity to visit in person, and augmented reality assists in ‘restoring’ historic places that have disappeared, providing new knowledge and enhancing visitor experiences. Artificial intelligence is currently being developed in ways that will assuredly affect both people’s ability to interact with one another and humankind’s ability to see the world (Huang & Rust, 2018).

Recent transportation technology is enabling faster and more efficient globalisation. High-speed trains and water-based modes now reduce travel times, diminish the need for intermediaries in the marketplace, and shrink transport costs. Thus, perishable goods (such as berries and fish) are increasingly available in uncommon places – fresh seafood in the desert, for example. Marginal regions (such as deserts and arctic areas) are becoming mainstream tourism destinations, as ‘marginalized’ peoples are becoming tourist attractions (Azarya, 2004), and transportation efficiency enables people to spend more time at the destination rather than in transit.

Although globalisation appears to effect many positive outcomes that can help the world socially, ecologically, and economically, it is not flawless, nor does it occur without considerable criticism and resistance. Those who argue on behalf of globalisation and its close cousin, neoliberalism, argue that less-affluent societies can benefit economically from increased trade and lower consumer prices, thereby improving the world’s overall standard of living. Critics, however, argue that globalisation spurs an unencumbered free market that continues to benefit multinational corporations and investors in the developed world at the expense of impoverished populations, traditional cultures, and local-scale enterprises elsewhere (Levin Institute, 2016; Smeral, 1998).

Others suggest that globalisation erodes the democratic principles of self-determination, as countries cede or lose control over their own affairs to outside global forces. Likewise,
much evidence suggests that cultures, and therefore social and personal identities, get lost through these integrative processes (Azarya, 2004; Nederveen Pieterse, 2015; Zürn & de Wilde, 2016). Similarly, the localities, people, and events that make places unique and attractive become homogenized through globalisation to the point where they lose their distinctive personalities, sense of place, and what makes them special for residents and tourists – a process referred to as *McDonaldization* and its allied concept, *Disneyfication* (Bryman, 1999; Ritzer, 2013).

**THIS BOOK**

The purpose of this book is to bring to light many of the elements of various globalisation processes that profoundly affect tourism, and to examine the ways in which tourism functions as a stimulator of, and conduit for, globalisation. The book is organized into six main sections that deal with many of the crossovers between tourism and global developments. The first section defines the term *globalisation* and examines the broad implications of globalisation and what these mean for tourism. In Chapter 2, Dwyer and Čavlek explore various elements of economic globalisation and the role of multinational corporations in the globalisation process, particularly as it pertains to foreign direct investments, competition, free trade, capital flow, technology transfer, human mobility, and social change. They pay particular attention to the effects of economic globalisation on the host destination, tourism service providers, and tourists.

Following Dwyer and Čavlek’s essay, Wearing, McDonald, Taylor, and Ronen (Chapter 3) consider the role of neoliberalism in growing the global marketplace, with increased competition for tourism experiences, products, and services. In particular they explore how neoliberal philosophies affect work, leisure, and tourism, and drive the commodification of destinations as consumable tourism products. They use the growing strength of the sharing economy as an empirical manifestation of neoliberalism’s role in the evolution of tourism.

In the fourth chapter, Rogerson looks at the effects of globalisation on tourism planning and development and concludes that globalisation causes specific places to look inward, to develop local capacities and cultivate place-based planning mechanisms that will help localities counter the global trends and patterns that affect them greatly but remain outside their control.

The world is clearly becoming a more mobile place, and people are able to travel more and further than ever before in history. This manifests in many different issues and outcomes related to globalisation. The second section highlights issues related to human movement, in particular with regard to mobilities, migration, and the transmission of disease through global processes. Hall, Amore, and Arvanitis conceptualize human mobility broadly, suggesting that it is far more than simply transportation from home to the destination and back. Instead, mobilities may manifest in many different ways before, during, and after a journey, and are determined through micro-, meso-, and macro-dimensions of globalisation in terms of capital fluidity, technological revolutions, cost, time, and meta-governance.

In Chapter 6, Williams expounds upon the globalising force of migration, and migration as a manifestation of human mobility that has important implications for tourism, individual agency, the development of networks, and the construction of social
institutions. All of these are modulated through technological changes that help make the world a smaller place for migrants and enhance their connections to their homelands.

In their chapter on the dispersal of diseases through tourism and globalisation, Sönmez, Wiitala, and Apostolopoulos demonstrate how travel networks function as channels for the spread of illnesses through augmented contact between increasingly mobile populations, as measles and Ebola outbreaks in 2019 indicate. Destination-specific health risks and risky behavior also contribute to the globalised effects of disease spread and can affect tourists who come in contact with contaminants in the destination. By the same token, destination residents may be placed at risk through their exposure to tourists.

Because safety and security play such a critical role in travel decision-making, destination development, and the flow of tourists, the third section focuses on geopolitics, conflict, and global security. In Chapter 8, Tucker examines the legacy of colonialism, considering dependency and the core-periphery relationships that once existed under colonial rule and continue in many cases today in the context of tourism. She also looks at the notions of ‘otherness’ and exoticism as intangible remnants of colonialism and how these function as part of the attractiveness of faraway places for tourists.

In Chapter 9, Timothy reviews the diminishing sovereignty of nation-states as they join supranational trading blocs and customs unions. He highlights the ways in which free trade, freedom of movement and global citizenship, economic integration, cross-border development, transfrontier transportation policies, and other manifestations of supranationalism facilitate the growth of tourism while simultaneously limiting the power of the state.

The focus of Chapter 10 is biosecurity. Therein Hall describes tourism as an agent of biological invasion of animal pathogens and alien plant species. International mobility, including tourism, is one of the largest culprits in biosecurity breaches, and some types of tourism (such as food tourism, wine tourism, agritourism, and ecotourism) have more potential to be pathways for biological contamination – something that requires better management done in a way that refrains from discouraging tourism while simultaneously protecting the biotic realm.

Recognizing the prominent position of terrorism in the media headlines in the twenty-first century, Prideaux (Chapter 11) provides an in-depth contemplation of the relationships between terrorism and tourism, in particular considering terrorism as a form of risk, the impacts of terrorism on tourism, and tourism’s response to terrorist threats. While there is truly an existential threat from extremist groups that desire to harm Western interests, including tourism, the media play a prodigious part in shaping people’s risk perceptions. Yet, though terrorist attacks in general do cause small declines in tourism demand, these reductions are generally short-lived. Security threats have not heretofore halted the steady upward trajectory of global tourism growth.

Continuing on the theme of security, Suntikul examines the multiple relationships between war and tourism. She reviews the traditional associations of war as a deterrent to travel and the growth of tourism, as well as the historical remnants of war, including monuments, as tourist attractions. However, in Chapter 12, she goes deeper to examine a niche form of tourism: ‘extreme war tourists’, people who visit active war zones out of personal interest, to experience the thrill of danger, or to support the devastated communities in a show of solidarity. There are even organizations (tour companies) that will arrange travel to active war zones for risk-takers, although there are many ethical concerns in doing so.
In Chapter 13, Gelbman provides a more upbeat outlook with regard to conflict and security by considering the role of tourism as a potential broker of peace in the world’s presently contentious geopolitical landscape. Gelbman notes that tourism could potentially help warm relations between origin and destination cultures and peoples, although the recent academic and media focus on overtourism suggests that mass tourism can also create rather contentious relationships between hosts and guests. Three types of tourism are suggested as being particularly meaningful in bridging antagonistic chasms: sport tourism; border-oriented heritage tourism; and visits to peace parks, the latter being especially important in how they are designed, marketed, and interpreted.

Section 4 addresses many of the population and environmental challenges facing the planet today. These include population growth and demographic pressures, climate change, resource depletion, the increasing intensity of natural disasters, and the need for better ecosystems management in the face of growing tourism. In Chapter 14, Sharpley speaks to the challenges of population growth in terms of its social, economic, and ecological impacts on the Earth. Demographic changes, including population growth, an ageing populace, and an increasingly affluent population, have extremely significant implications for demand for tourism, which will continue to affect the planet’s ecosystems and social environment.

The essay by Stovall, Higham, and Stephenson (Chapter 15) underscores the importance of anthropogenic influences on climate change and argues for a better planned global tourism system, governed by principles of tourism growth, for the benefits it brings about, while simultaneously mitigating the industry’s greenhouse gas emissions, particularly those associated with the aviation sector.

The focus of Chapter 16 is the connectivity among globalisation, tourism, and natural disasters. In this chapter, Ritchie and Jiang describe how tourism and globalisation, as well as media coverage, while providing some foundational solutions to disaster management, can concurrently exacerbate crisis situations. Much tourism takes place in disaster-prone areas, such as peripheral regions, volcanic mountainous areas, and coastal zones. The authors explore the need for increasingly resilient and adaptive crisis management measures everywhere, but especially in the most vulnerable regions of the world.

In the final chapter of Section 4, Mbaiwa, Mfogomotsi, Mbaiwa, and Siphambe provide a valuable overview of the implications of globalised tourism for ecosystems and the need for sound management. They consider the issues of greenhouse emissions and loss of biodiversity, as well as the social implications of an increasingly globalised tourism sector. Based upon the work of Dwyer (2015), Mbaiwa and his colleagues look particularly at the economic, technological, demographic, social, and political drivers of tourism, linking these to ecological problems and how such problems can best be mitigated through good management.

The chapters in Section 5 emphasize innovation and technology. Although innovation can be measured and understood in multifarious ways, this section specifically tackles transportation innovations, augmented reality, the globalisation of social media, and the development of smart destinations. Peters and Vellas (Chapter 18) set the conceptual tone by looking at the interdependence of globalisation and innovation, arguing that these two phenomena are symbiotic and that markets have to be increasingly innovative and competitive in a global marketplace that is becoming progressively homogeneous.
In Chapter 19, Duval and Macilree focus their attention on innovations in the transportation sector. They admit that transport innovation is extremely dynamic and always changing, which makes it difficult to assess at any given moment in time. They examine transport innovation within a tripartite framework of technology, commerce, and policy, suggesting that each of these elements carries management and policy implications that must be recognized when addressing matters such as alternative fuel, sustainable transport, autonomous vehicles, and technology’s role in enhancing the passenger experience.

Augmented reality (AR) as an innovative technology, and its use in tourism, are the focus of Chapter 20 by tom Dieck and Han. They place AR firmly within the burgeoning literature on technological innovation and address the potentials and challenges associated with its utilization in tourism. AR has considerable potential to be an educational tool, a marketing instrument, and a means of designing satisfying tourist experiences. Commentators, including tom Dieck and Han, suggest that AR has many functions, including value co-creation, but point out that it is also riddled with technological and consumer challenges.

Sigala follows tom Dieck and Han in providing a glimpse into both positive and negative relations between tourism and social media (SM). Most social media research tends to highlight the utilization of SM in marketing, e-word of mouth, and public feedback, but few scholars have investigated the ‘dark side’ of SM. In Chapter 21, Sigala asserts that although SM has the potential to co-create value in the tourism experience before, during, and after a journey, it is also just as likely to have a co-destructive power that detracts from the destination encounter and de-authenticates places and experiences.

In Chapter 22, Hannam takes a critical look at the role of smart cities and smart technology in modern tourism from a mobilities paradigmatic perspective. While smart technology can make destinations more interesting, accessible, and user-friendly for some visitors, for others it functions to close the desirable gap between technology-oriented home and technology-free vacation time and space. It also feeds the ‘extreme technology’ addiction that plagues so many people, even on holiday. Smart mobilities must be examined more critically as we consider smart transportation, spatial scales, border crossings, and smart bordering as means of segregating people and experiences.

Section 6 delivers a robust examination of contemporary trends and niches in tourism that have a salient connection to globalisation. Although there are countless trends in tourism, and new niches continue to be identified as viable forms of tourism, this section provides a sampling of some of the types and trends that are growing in importance in today’s tourism climate. Although all forms of tourism are directly related to globalisation, the chapters in this portion of the book concentrate specifically on the globalisation of religion and spirituality (Chapter 23), pop culture in its various forms (Chapter 24), volunteer tourism (Chapter 25), medical tourism (Chapter 26), and ‘last chance’ tourism (Chapter 27).

In Chapter 23, Olsen surveys the meanings and manifestations of religious tourism and spirituality. Since ancient days, pilgrimage, endorsed by organized religions, has been a key part of human mobility and continues to be a crucial element of tourism in the twenty-first century. However, the globalisation of religion has translated into many forms of religious or spiritually motivated travel that may not resemble traditional pilgrimages, and are not always part of any religion’s official doctrine. Spirituality is not synonymous with religiosity, and they frequently have different travel manifestations.
Globalisation, according to Olsen, has brought about more democratized sacred-site management, the transplantation of ethnic and diasporic groups beyond their traditional religious homelands and spiritual traditions, and the commodification of religious sites and spiritual traditions that are now a part of the broader tourism commodity chain.

In Chapter 24, Beeton acknowledges the important role of elements of popular culture (such as music, film, and television) in the growth of tourism, which is especially influential in East Asia and North America, although globalisation continues to spread pop-culture-induced tourism to places far beyond the norm. These include, among others, localities in Northern Ireland, Iceland, and Croatia that have recently reaped the tourism rewards associated with the *Game of Thrones* television series. As pop culture spreads throughout the globe via social media, television, movies, and music, what once constituted place-specific culture and entertainment has now, through various media processes, become global, as the popularity of Korean and Mexican soap operas outside of Korea and Mexico now indicates. Connections to pop culture have become marketable brands.

Chapter 25, by Henry and Mostafanezhad, delves into the volunteer tourism niche from a geopolitical perspective. Volunteer tourism is especially relevant to globalisation, as its product has both altruistic motives and elements of neocolonialism that drive millions of people each year to leave their homes in the developed world to spend their holiday time in less affluent countries. There the tourists/volunteers help people who may be incapable – or perceived as incapable – of helping themselves. Henry and Mostafanezhad examine volunteer tourism as an act of geopolitics: a source of power, a tool for state-making, a means for community development, and a crossroads of international relations.

Connell (Chapter 26) elucidates many of the reasons for the boom in international medical tourism, suggesting stimuli such as lack of adequate health insurance; the high cost of health care at home; the desire for certain procedures that might not be permitted at home but are available abroad; and state-run health care systems that often translate into long wait times for surgeries and other procedures, which can be bypassed by visiting foreign hospitals and paying out of one’s own pocket. Connell notes the unique geographies associated with medical tourism, where countries in the developing world now compete with one another to offer the highest quality health care to their affluent customers.

‘Last chance’ tourism is the focus of Chapter 27 by Lemelin and Whipp. This type of tourism entails people travelling to experience places or phenomena that are alleged to be on the verge of disappearing, such as polar bear habitats in northern Canada, low-lying coral atolls in the Pacific, and Arctic and Antarctic ice cover. Human-induced or -enhanced environmental changes (such as climate change, deforestation, and coral bleaching) are believed to be the primary culprits in the environmental evolution that endangers places, flora, and fauna. The authors provide an interesting evaluation of academic research into last chance tourism and conclude that because most attention regarding this matter has been given to natural environments, there is a pressing need for more research on cultural heritage-based last chance tourism, as cultural environments are also affected by human impacts and are also nonrenewable resources. As long as there are places in critical danger, there will always be bold travellers who want to see them before they disappear.

In the final piece, Chapter 28, Timothy summarizes the concepts and patterns identified and discussed throughout the book.
The contents of this book reflect the erudite expertise of many social scientists who address globalisation each time they write about tourism. Tourism is an inherently global phenomenon; it always has been and ever will be. Just as tourism is a carrier of globalisation, globalisation enables tourism to grow and thrive through the development of transnational corporations, increased cross-border trade, less fettered human mobility, enhanced technology and transportation, political changes, increased travel options, higher standards of living, and a growing global economy.

REFERENCES


Introduction


