

Asian Travel from EU Countries in the Emerging Global Economy

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Introduction

The globalisation trend of the past five decades has resulted in the freer movement of goods, capital, and people across borders. Most people who cross borders are considered international visitors, which the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) defines as 'any person who travels to a country other than that in which s/he has his/her usual residence, but outside his/her usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visiting is other than the exercise of any activity remunerated from within the country visited.' (United Nations 1994, 8).

The roots of tourism as a leisure product were established in 19th and 20th century Western culture. In both Europe and North America, tourism is promoted as being vital to life and health, and serves as a symbol of socioeconomic status (Sindiga 1999). Belief in these ideas has led to increasing demand for resorts and exotic cross-cultural tourist packages. The demand was also fueled by the emphasis in the mid-1960s of paid holidays as a central part of many compensation packages offered by employers and governments, more so in Europe than in the US (Truong 1990; Sindiga 1999). The combination of increased real income, paid holidays, changing attitudes towards tourism, and substantial growth in commercial aviation supported the development of international tourism in the latter part of the 20th century (Go 1997; Truong 1990).

As shown in Table 1, the world population more than doubled between 1950 and 1998; during the same time period, the number of yearly international arrivals increased 25-fold, from 25.3 million to 634.7 million. Those individuals spent more than US\$440 billion while traveling, accounting for more than 5 per cent of the world's GDP. On average, one out of every 99 persons entered a foreign country in 1950; by the late 1990s, that number was down to 1 of every 9. Clearly, the majority of these visitors come from developed countries, have the resources to take relatively expensive journeys for pleasure, or have the need to travel abroad for business. Developing countries view international tourists as a source of foreign exchange that can be used to boost their development aspirations (Lea 1988; Vellas & Bécherel 1995; Walton 1993). The World Bank (2001) reports that low-income countries¹ received 29.4 million international arrivals in 1999 and that their visitors spent US\$16.8 billion, accounting for 8 per cent of those countries' GDP exports.

According to WTO's forecasts, these growth trends for international tourism will continue for the next decade, despite the current potential for an economic downturn and the reduction in leisure spending that accompanies such slowdowns. The WTO estimates that the number of international tourist arrivals will reach 937 million by 2010, but that fewer will visit European countries (a predicted 51% of all international tourists in 2010 compared to 68% in 1970). The percentage visiting East Asian and Pacific countries will grow from 3 to 20 per cent during the same time period. In addition, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2001) predicts that by 2011, travel and tourism will generate 13.5 per cent (US\$1082.7 billion) of total GDP exports in European Union (EU) nations and 9.8 per cent (US\$130.2 billion) of total GDP exports in Southeast Asia.

In the first part of this paper, I will describe current trends in international tourism and discuss tourism's connection to the uneven distribution of global wealth, with a special emphasis on tourists from EU member states. In the second part, I will use data from Eurobarometer series surveys to analyze EU citizens' travel patterns, with a special focus on travel to Asia. In the third part, I will discuss the potential numbers of visitors from European Union countries who travel to Asia for sex.

The Global Economy and International Tourism

The question of whether economic globalisation leads to social development, better living standards, and greater life satisfaction is still being debated, even in light of the ten-fold increase in the world GDP (from \$3 trillion to \$30 trillion) and three-fold increase in average international per capita income since 1950 (UNDP 1999). According to a report published by the A. T. Kearney Global Business Policy Council (2000), countries that made the effort to integrate into the world economy since 1980 were rewarded with enhanced economic growth compared to those countries that were not as aggressive. World Bank (2000) statistics show that the number of people in the world living in extreme poverty (defined as living on less than US\$1 per day) decreased from 29 to 24 per cent (1.28 to 1.20 billion) between 1990 and 1998. This change was not uniform in all parts of the globe. The number fell sharply in East Asia and the Pacific, from 452 million (28%) in 1990 to 278 million (15%) in 1998, mainly because of China's exceptional economic growth; in the rest of East Asia the number fell from 92 million to 65 million. However, in South Asia the number of people living in extreme poverty increased from 495 million to 522 million during the same period; in sub-Saharan Africa the increase was from 242 million to 291 million.

Also according to UNDP (2001) figures, average Human Development Index (HDI) scores² for the 162 countries included in its report increased from 0.596 to 0.692 between 1975 and 1999; countries that had low HDI scores in 1975 improved the most (29% on average), while those who started out with high HDI scores improved the least (11% on average). The A. T. Kearney Global Business Council (2000) indicates that aggressively globalising countries³ experienced substantially faster and greater improvements in HDI scores and GDP growth, suggesting a direct correlation between integration into the world economy and improvements in quality of life measures.

Ardelt (1997) and Easterlin (1995) found that countries with higher per capita incomes tend to have larger numbers of citizens who rank themselves high on life satisfaction and happiness scales. As described above, highly globalised countries tend to be wealthy. No one has yet attempted to show a direct link between globalisation and life satisfaction, but research revealed by A. T. Kearney (2002) has indicated that people in highly globalised countries (e.g., Ireland, Denmark, and the United Kingdom) report higher self-perceived levels of well-being compared to people in countries without highly globalised economies.

At the same time that globalisation has brought prosperity to many countries, it has also increased inequality. In 1960, the income ratio between the richest one-fifth of the world's population and the poorest one-fifth was 30 to 1; that increased to 60 to 1 in 1990 and to 74 to 1 in 1997. By the end of the 20th century, 82% of the world GDP was controlled by the top one-fifth of the world's population, most living in the highest-income countries. Those same individuals controlled 86 per cent of world export markets, 68 per cent of foreign direct investment, and 74 per cent of the world's telephone lines; they accounted for 93 per cent of all Internet usage. The bottom one-fifth controlled 1 per cent of the world GDP, 1 per cent of all export markets, 1 per cent of foreign direct investment, and 1.5 percent of all telephone lines; they accounted for 0.2 percent of all Internet usage (UNDP 1999).

This uneven distribution of wealth and consumption is reflected in international tourism statistics. As shown in Table 2, most international travel originates in wealthy countries. Although the Industrial Seven countries are home to less than 12 per cent of the world population, by the late 1990s they accounted for more than half (57%) of all aircraft departures. Low-income countries contained 60 per cent of the world population but only 7 per cent of all aircraft departures. According to the WTO figures (Table 3), the number of people on international flights tripled between 1980 and 1998, from 159 million to 443 million; more than half of these travelers came from high-income countries (78% in 1980 and 61% in 1998). The relative decline serves as an indication that more people from low- and middle-income countries are traveling abroad, the result of reductions in airline operating costs and increased individual wealth.

The data in Table 2 also show that low- and middle-income countries increased their shares of international arrivals between 1980 to 1998; for low-income countries, the number doubled from 3.1

to 7.2 per cent, and for middle-income countries the increase was from 23.6 to 31.3 per cent. These increases may be partly due to the greater number of business trips taken by representatives of multinational corporations, or by expatriates working for those same companies in their overseas offices.

According to the data presented in Table 3, EU countries (excluding Luxembourg, for which no data is available) accounted for 41 per cent (263.5 million) of all international arrivals and 55 per cent (241.9 million) of international departures in 1998--a 50 and 71 per cent drop from 1980, respectively. Of the 14 member states (not including Luxembourg, for whom statistics were not available), Austria ranked first in gross departure rate in 1998--that is, Austrians made an average of 1.63 trips to another country that year. Second and third on the list were Sweden and Germany, whose citizens made just slightly over 1.00 trips to a foreign country on average. The lowest rates were for member states in southern Europe--Greece, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and France. These four Mediterranean countries also had the lowest per capita incomes among EU member states.

Gross departure rates reflect wealth, while arrivals reflect popularity. Central European countries have long been viewed as prime travel destinations--for instance, 262.5 million people visited the 14 EU nations in 1998, equal to 41 per cent of the world's international inbound tourists for that year. Those foreign travelers spent US\$173 billion during their trips, 39 per cent of the world total of tourism receipts. France was the most popular destination, receiving 70 million international tourists that year, or 27 per cent of the EU total (not including Luxembourg, for whom statistics were not available); it was followed by Spain (48 million) and Italy (35 million). Combined, these two countries accounted for 31 per cent of EU's international arrivals. France and Spain, the world's first and second most popular international tourist destinations in 1998, together hosted 19 per cent of all international arrivals and received 14 per cent of all money spent by international travelers. In comparison, the three northernmost European countries (Denmark, Finland, and Sweden) ranked lowest in terms of international visitors--6.5 million, or 2.5 per cent of the EU total.

Holiday Travel Patterns among EU Countries

According to Eurobarometer 48 survey data (Melich 1999a), more than half (54%) of all EU citizens took at least one holiday away from home in 1997; a small number of the respondents took three or more holiday trips that year. The majority traveled between June and August; approximately half spent two weeks away from work⁴. There were regional differences, with workers in northern European countries taking more holiday time than workers in the south. This difference is partly explained in terms of per capita income; the southern European countries of Portugal and Greece, along with Ireland, were among the lowest in both income and holiday travel rates; workers in prosperous countries to the north took more and longer holidays (Table 4). Reasons given for not taking holidays in 1997 were primarily related to finances (49%); one-fourth (23%) identified work-related issues as the main reason for not taking holidays that year.

In terms of gender, significant differences in holiday travel were noted for residents of Portugal, Finland, Ireland, and the former East Germany; higher numbers of male travelers were noted for Portugal and the former East Germany, but higher numbers of females were noted for the other two countries. In general, there was a direct association between age/years of schooling and holiday travel --that is, the 1997 data show that younger and better educated Europeans were more likely to travel (mean age 41, education to age 19 on average; for those who did not travel, the figures were 46 and 16). The mean age of holiday travelers was younger for lower-income countries, including Ireland, Greece, Portugal, and Spain.

Most of the Eurobarometer 48 respondents traveled within their own countries or inside the EU; 2 per cent said they visited non-EU European states, and 8 per cent traveled outside of Europe. These results support previous findings reported by The Economist (1995) and Go (1997) that the majority of international travelers are intra-regional. As shown in Table 5, about half of the respondents vacationed within their own countries in 1997; the chances of staying within one's own country during vacation were highest in the southern European countries of Greece, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, as well as among residents of southern France. This may be explained by a

combination of climate and economy. Southern European beaches have long been known as popular holiday destinations, but their per capita incomes are the lowest of all EU nations.

Residents in the smallest EU countries (e.g., Belgium, Luxembourg, Austria, and the Netherlands, as well as residents of northern Ireland) were the most likely to travel outside their own countries. Luxembourg citizens were the most likely to travel to another EU country in 1997 (90%), reflecting its tiny size and very high per capita income (US\$45,100); less than 1 per cent spent their holidays within Luxembourg.

Germans also ranked low in terms of staying home country during their holidays--only 28 per cent of former West Germans and 39 per cent of former East Germans did so in 1997. This is supported by Lundberg & Lundberg's (1993) general finding that Germans enjoy international travel; Eurobarometer 48 survey data show that more than two-thirds of the German respondents spent their holidays in other EU countries. Due to their higher per capita incomes, former West German residents ranked high (12%) in terms of travel outside of Europe; only 5 per cent of former East German respondents did likewise.

Overall, just under half (49%) of the respondents spent their holidays outside of their own countries but inside the EU in 1997 (Table 5). At the top of the list of international travelers were residents of Luxembourg, northern Ireland, the former West Germany, and Belgium. At the bottom of the list were Greece and Spain; less than 10 per cent of the respondents in those countries stated that they traveled to other EU countries. The top EU holiday destinations were Spain, France, Italy, Greece, Austria, and the United Kingdom.

Only 2 per cent of the respondents said that they had traveled to non-EU European states in 1997. This low rate can be explained by the lack of infrastructure for tourism; before 1990, the communist rulers of these nations did not view tourism as a means of earning foreign exchange. Among residents of the 17 EU entities (the former East and West German states were considered separately, as was Northern Ireland), residents in Belgium, Denmark, Finland, and the Netherlands were the most frequent visitors to former eastern bloc countries--approximately 15% of the respondents from those nations. Greek, Spanish, and Portuguese citizens (the poorest in terms of EU per capita incomes) ranked lowest in this regard; they were more likely to travel outside of Europe than inside the former communist countries of Eastern Europe. This may be explained in terms of rational consumption syndrome--that is, only the richest citizens in the EU's poorest countries can afford to travel abroad, and many of them prefer to experience completely different cultures, perhaps as a means of achieving social status among their peers.

Overall, 8 per cent of the Eurobarometer 48 respondents traveled outside of Europe, with residents of Northern Ireland and Ireland ranked first (15%), followed by Belgians, Austrians, and the British (14% each). Once again, Portuguese, Greeks, and Spaniards ranked lowest in this category. Income alone cannot explain this difference among nations, since both Ireland and Northern Ireland ranked very low in terms of per capita income, yet the Irish were the most frequent travelers outside of Europe.

Of those respondents who traveled during their 1997 holidays, 30 per cent said that they traveled with their spouse or partner, 29 per cent with family members (with or without their spouse/partner), 12 per cent with one or more friends, and 8 per cent solo. More than half of the respondents (56%) reported spending less than 1,500 Euro dollars during their trips, with approximately half being spent on accommodations. This pattern was almost identical for all EU countries.

Asian Travel from EU Countries

Of the 735 Eurobarometer 48 (Melich 1999a) respondents who traveled outside of Europe, more than 10 per cent (96 persons; 58 males and 38 females) traveled to Asia. Of these, 3 (all males, one from Austria and two from the Netherlands) visited Asia twice, and another Austrian male traveled to Asia three times. Specific destinations were not recorded as part of the data; it is possible that the 96 visited more than one Asian country during their 1997 holidays.

As the data in Table 6 show, most of these Asia travelers were Northern Europeans; Danes,

Swedes, Belgians, and Austrians accounted for 60 per cent of the total. Only one respondent from Southern Europe (Greece) reported visiting an Asian country; no respondents from Italy, Spain, Ireland, Northern Ireland, East Germany, or Portugal did so. Again, the disparity may be explained in terms of per capita income levels among EU countries, but it may also mirror the importance of climate. Greece, Spain, and Portugal are warm for most of the year and have plenty of beaches for their citizens to visit; Ireland is the one exception in this regard. But northern Europeans, wanting to escape their long, cold winters, are willing to spend their disposable incomes on vacation trips to Asian seaside resorts.

The mean age of respondents who traveled to Asia was 40 (41 for males, 39 for females)--approximately the same age as for holiday travelers within EU countries. Average age of final full-time education for these respondents was 21 (20 for males, 21 for females), or 2 years older than that for intra-EU travelers. In terms of occupation, few differences were noted between visitors to Asia and visitors to other countries. The largest percentage was retired persons (17%), followed by middle managers (15%), and white-collar employees and students (13% each).

As shown in Table 6, more than half of the European travelers to Asian countries (59%) were married or cohabiting; 32 per cent were single, 6 per cent divorced or separated, and 2 per cent widowed. For the most part, these numbers were similar to those reported for EU citizens who traveled to other regions of the world (Table 4). However, travelers to Asia were more likely to be single, divorced, or separated, and less likely to be widowed. In addition, even though more than half of the European visitors to Asia were married or living with a partner, only 11 per cent traveled with their spouse/partner; 16 per cent went with other family members, 19 per cent with at least one friend, and 39 per cent went alone (the remaining 35 per cent did not specify if they traveled alone or with another person). Most of these visitors went to rural destinations (mostly seaside resorts) instead of urban centers.

From the data collected via the Eurobarometer 48 survey, it is only possible to speculate on whether these travelers visited Asia for sex. A number of researchers have reported that Southeast Asia is one of the most popular destinations for sex tourism, with the biggest consumers being males from Japan, the United States, and Western European nations (Herold & van Kerkwijk 1992; Macan-Markar 1999; Manier 1996; Pereira 1996). Data culled from Melich's survey (1999b) showed that 62 per cent of the EU citizens believed that sex tourism involving children is very common; 44 per cent believed that sex businesses involving children were operating in their own countries. Portuguese were the most likely to believe that child prostitution was occurring within their own country (85%), followed by Greeks (65%), Dutch (61%) and Belgians (60%) (Table 7). The majority of the respondents also stated their belief that sex tourism involving children takes place in other parts of the world, including other EU countries (60%), Africa (69%), South America (70%), Central and Eastern Europe (71%), and Asia (85%). Belgians, Danes, Swedes, and Austrians were very likely (87 to 96%) to report a belief that sex tourism involving children was occurring in Asia; respondents from those four countries accounted for 60 per cent of all EU travelers to Asian countries in 1997. In the same survey, 68 per cent of the respondents believed that older men were most likely to take part in sex tourism involving children, followed by single men (53%), married men (43%), young men (35%), older women (15%), and young women (12%). More than two-thirds of the respondents agreed that poverty is the main cause of this social problem.

Due to moral and legal concerns, most sex tourists won't describe themselves publicly as such. In their study of German-speaking men who travel to Thailand, the Philippines, Kenya, Brazil, and the Dominican Republic, Kleiber and Wilke (1995, cited in Günther 1998) found that 78 per cent of their respondents disagreed with being classified as sex tourists even though they had sexual relations with one or more local women. However, according to data collected through their 1992 Survey of German Vacationers and Sex Tourists, 8.5 per cent of all German travelers had sex with persons whom they met during the holidays in 1992. In addition, Günther (1998) noted the ambiguity of the term 'sex tourist'--for example, some respondents rejected the label because they did not visit foreign countries with the intent of purchasing sex, but made the decision to do so once they arrived. Others claimed that they were not sex tourists because they did not exchange money, although they may have given valuable non-cash gifts to their sex partners.

Oppermann (1998) reported that engaging in sexual activity with people living in travel

destinations is not limited to males or solo travelers; he also pointed out that tourists frequently have sex with acquaintances that they meet in their tour groups, with or without monetary or gift exchanges. He estimates that in 1992, 2.2 million German tourists had sex with a previously unknown person, 'that may have been a fellow traveler, a local, or a prostitute' (p. 6).

Conclusion

Over the past 50 years, the world economy has become increasingly integrated, more countries are realizing prosperity, and more people are taking advantage of inexpensive airline tickets to travel to international destinations. However, the globalisation forces that have created these possibilities have also increased the unequal distribution of wealth and resources. These inequalities are evident in the movement of international travelers for both business and pleasure. Data collected by the World Tourism Organisation indicate that most international tourists live in the wealthiest countries, and that the most popular tourist destinations are shifting from North America and Europe to Southeast Asia and the South Pacific. This shift in preference is partly the result of globalisation forces that encourage more investment in, and therefore more business travel to, Asian nations.

Data culled from Eurobarometer series surveys show that more than half (54%) of all EU citizens took at least one holiday trip (averaging approximately two weeks in length) in 1997. The majority of these travelers (90%) spent their holidays in their own or other EU countries; less than 2 per cent traveled to non-EU European states, and 8 per cent traveled outside of Europe. Of those who traveled outside of Europe, just over 10 per cent visited Asian countries. Compared to other European travelers, Asian visitors were younger, had more years of schooling, and were more likely to be single males traveling alone.

However, there is a lack of any direct evidence that a certain percentage of visitors to Southeast Asian countries go there for the primary purpose of purchasing sex. The evidence is circumstantial--e.g., South Asian countries are ranked high as sex tourist destinations, and more than 85 per cent of all EU citizens believe that sex tourism involving children is taking place in Asia. With continued growth in commercial aviation, increases in real income and paid holidays, changing preferences for tourism destinations, and the promotion of international tourism as a means of earning foreign exchange, people from affluent countries will continue to travel to Asia for pleasure, to enjoy its natural and cultural attractions, and to take advantage of its low cost. As this movement of visitors across borders continues to be encouraged, it will also be accompanied by a steady stream of sex tourists.

Footnotes

¹ The World Bank (2001) defines low-income countries as those with a per capita General National Income (GNI) of \$755 or less in 1999. Middle-income economies had a per capita GNI of more than \$755 but less than \$9266, and high-income economies had a per capita GNI of \$9266 or more.

² A measure created by the United Nations Development Program to assess achievements in terms of life span, literacy, and overall quality of life.

³ This is a measure created by A. T. Kearney (2000) as part of its Global Business Policy. Aggressive globalisers are countries with globalisation indexes higher than 6.5% (e.g., Argentina, Chile, China, Hungary, and the Philippines); strong globalisers have globalisation indexes between 5 and 6.5% (e.g., Colombia, Poland, Portugal, Singapore, and Venezuela); average globalisers have indexes between 4 and 5% (e.g., Ireland, Italy, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States); moderate globalisers have indexes between 2 and 4% (e.g., Brazil, India, Israel, South Africa, and Thailand); passive globalisers have indexes between 0 and

2% (e.g., Australia, France, Japan, Korea, and Spain); and stalled globalisers have indexes less than 0.0% (e.g., Egypt, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mexico, and Turkey).

⁴ Workers in most European countries receive between 8 and 32 paid vacation days each year (Go 1997; Lundberg & Lundberg 1993).

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Table 1. World growth in population and international tourism, 1950-1998

year	world population (million)	<u>international tourism</u>		average person per trip	<u>international tourism</u>		gross departure rate
		arrivals (million)	receipts (million)		departures (million)	expenditures (million)	
1950 ^a	2516	25.3	2100	99	---	---	---
1960 ^a	3020	69.3	6867	44	---	---	---
1970 ^a	3698	159.7	17900	23	---	---	---
1980 ^b	4448	266.3	101399	17	159.0	102144	3.6%
1990 ^c	5292	461.5	265000	11	458.1	268275	8.7%
1998 ^b	5897	634.7	439969	9	442.7	365243	7.5%

Source: a. Lundberg and Lundberg (1993), International Travel and Tourism.

b. World Bank (2000), 2000 World Development Indicators.

c. World Bank (2001), 2001 World Development Indicators.

Table 2. International tourism by region, 1980 and 1998

region	aircraft	arrivals		departures		population	GDP	gross	average
	departures (1000)	(million)		(million)		(million)	(billion)	departure rate	person per trip
	1998	1980	1998	1980	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998
world	19654	266.3	634.7	159.0	442.7	5819.8	28228.1	7.6%	13.1
low-income countries	302	8.3	45.4	2.1	15.0	3499.9	1832.6	0.4%	234.0
middle-income countries	3677	62.8	198.9	33.2	161.3	1455.8	4159.0	11.1%	9.0
high-income countries	14674	195.2	390.4	123.6	266.5	864.1	22236.5	30.8%	3.2
Industrial Seven countries	11284	112.4	216.4	110.7	252.4	687.7	18684.3	36.7%	2.7
EU14 ^a	4191	132.6	262.5	113.0	241.9	373.9	8319.6	64.7%	1.5
percentage									
world	100	100	100	100	100	100	100		
low-income countries	6.6	3.1	7.2	1.3	3.4	60.1	6.5		
middle- income countries	19.0	23.6	31.3	20.9	36.4	25.0	14.7		
high-income countries	75.0	73.3	61.5	77.8	60.2	14.8	78.8		
Industrial Seven countries	57.0	42.2	34.1	69.6	57.0	11.8	66.2		
EU14 ^a	21.0	49.8	41.4	71.1	54.6	6.4	29.5		

a. Excluding Luxembourg due to the lack of available data.

Source: World Bank (2000), 2000 World Development Indicators.

Table 3. International tourism, receipts and expenditures among EU countries, 1980 and 1998

region	aircraft departures (1000)	arrivals (million)		departures (million)		receipts (million)		expenditures (million)		population (million) 1998	GNP per capita (US\$) 1998	gross departure rate 1998
		1980	1998	1980	1998	1980	1998	1980	1998			
EU14 ^a	4191	132.6	262.5	113.0	241.9	53163	172626	51999	170021	373.9		64.7
Austria	128	13.9	17.4	3.5	13.3	6442	11184	2847	9511	8.1	26830	163.7
Belgium	213	3.8	6.2	9.6	7.8	1810	5437	3272	8842	10.1	25380	77.0
Denmark	115	1.6	2.1	---	5.0	1337	3211	1560	4462	5.3	33040	93.8
Finland	119	1.3	1.9	.3	4.7	677	1631	544	2063	5.2	24280	91.2
France	692	30.1	70.0	7.9	18.1	8235	29931	6027	17791	58.7	24210	30.8
Germany	673	11.1	16.5	22.5	83.0	6566	16429	20599	46939	82.1	26570	101.1
Greece	91	4.8	10.9	1.4	1.9	1734	5182	190	1756	10.6	11740	18.3
Luxembourg	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	0.4	45100	---
Ireland	123	2.3	6.1	.7	3.1	472	3252	742	2374	3.7	18710	82.5
Italy	338	22.1	34.8	24.0	14.3	8213	29809	1907	17579	57.4	20090	25.0
Netherlands	188	2.8	9.3	6.7	12.9	1668	6803	4664	11174	15.7	24780	81.9
Portugal	98	2.7	11.3	---	2.4	1147	4853	290	2535	9.9	10670	24.5
Spain	388	22.4	47.7	18.0	13.2	6968	29737	1229	5005	39.6	14100	33.3
Sweden	223	1.4	2.6	2.9	11.4	962	4189	1235	7723	8.9	25580	128.3
UK	802	12.4	25.7	15.5	50.9	6932	20978	6893	32267	58.6	21410	86.8

a. Excluding Luxembourg due to the lack of available data.

Source: World Bank (2000), 2000 World Development Indicators.

Population Reference Bureau (2000), 2000 World Population Data Sheet.

Table 4. Holiday travelers among the 17 EU entities

region	total sample	holiday travelers			mean age (S.D.)	mean age completing full-time education (S.D.)
		total	male	female		
Belgium	1041	47%	47%	47%	39.8(15.7)	19.2(3.4)
Denmark	1000	76%	76%	76%	44.1(16.0)	22.1(5.3)
W. Germany	1026	51%	49%	52%	43.1(15.6)	18.4(4.2)
E. Germany	1036	53%	56%	51%	46.4(17.1)	19.0(5.0)
Greece	1012	44%	46%	42%	37.9(16.8)	18.2(5.0)
Italy	1011	52%	50%	54%	39.7(17.2)	17.9(4.3)
Spain	1000	49%	49%	49%	39.0(17.0)	17.0(4.8)
France	1005	54%	54%	54%	39.9(15.2)	19.0(3.7)
Ireland	1002	41%	38%	43%	39.1(16.2)	17.5(2.6)
Luxembourg	620	65%	64%	67%	46.7(19.1)	17.3(3.2)
Netherlands	1003	73%	73%	72%	41.4(15.7)	19.0(4.2)
Portugal	1000	33%	37%	29%	37.9(18.3)	15.6(5.0)
Britain	1064	57%	56%	58%	43.9(17.5)	17.5(4.3)
N. Ireland	311	38%	38%	38%	37.4(15.9)	17.3(3.0)
Finland	1032	66%	62%	70%	41.8(17.6)	20.5(5.7)
Sweden	1000	71%	70%	72%	43.6(17.0)	20.5(5.6)
Austria	1023	42%	42%	42%	40.1(15.7)	18.3(3.3)
total	16186	54%	54%	54%	41.4(16.7)	18.9(4.8)

Table 5. Holiday destinations among the 17 EU entities^a

region	domestic (%)	EU region (%)	non-EU Europe states, (%)	outside Europe (%)
Belgium	18.81	72.60	3.48	14.11
Denmark	52.23	58.27	4.33	9.06
W. Germany	28.27	75.38	1.92	11.54
E. Germany	38.91	67.64	2.00	5.09
Greece	92.55	7.90	0.45	1.35
Italy	75.62	25.14	0.95	5.33
Spain	89.41	9.78	0.81	3.26
France	83.46	20.40	0.37	7.35
Ireland	32.02	58.13	1.48	14.53
Luxembourg	0.49	90.12	0.49	10.86
Netherlands	35.16	67.17	2.88	8.65
Portugal	78.29	18.35	0.61	1.22
Britain	47.28	50.58	1.48	14.00
N. Ireland	8.55	80.34	1.71	15.38
Finland	57.39	31.92	2.93	5.12
Sweden	54.37	53.24	2.39	7.32
Austria	28.14	65.58	1.40	13.72
total	50.26	49.42	1.93	8.41
mean age(SD)	41.7(17.0)	41.4(16.3)	41.9(16.3)	40.9(15.4)
mean ed. age (S.D.)	18.7(4.9)	19.4(4.7)	20.5(5.5)	19.7(4.4)
marital status				
single	26%	28%	24%	30%
married	65%	63%	66%	61%
divorced/sep.	4%	5%	5%	4%
widowed	6%	5%	4%	4%

a. Multiple answers, figures may not add up to 100 per cent.

Table 6. Demographic characteristics of Asian travel from EU countries

region		number of visitors	mean age (S.D.)	mean age completing full-time education(S.D.)	marital status ^a					
					1	2	3	4	5	6
Belgium	total	12	31.7(12.8)	19.3(2.5)	7	3	1	1	0	0
	male	7	27.6(8.6)	20.3(2.2)	5	1	1	1	0	0
	female	5	37.4(16.3)	18.3(2.6)	2	2	0	1	0	0
Denmark	total	18	42.2(15.7)	24.3(5.3)	7	8	3	0	0	0
	male	7	46.1(19.6)	26.6(6.9)	2	3	2	0	0	0
	female	11	39.7(13.1)	23.0(4.2)	5	5	1	0	0	0
W. Germany	total	9	36.4(8.9)	19.7(5.3)	3	5	1	0	0	0
	male	6	37.5(8.8)	19.6(6.2)	3	3	0	0	0	0
	female	3	34.3(10.7)	20.0(4.2)	0	2	1	0	0	0
Greece	total	1	30.0(--)	19.0(--)	0	1	0	0	0	0
	female	1	30.0(--)	19.0(--)	0	1	0	0	0	0
France	total	6	42.2(15.4)	20.0(4.9)	1	0	1	2	1	1
	male	6	42.2(15.4)	20.0(4.9)	1	0	1	2	1	1
Luxembourg	total	4	37.0(15.7)	19.5(2.4)	1	3	0	0	0	0
	male	2	47.0(18.4)	18.5(3.5)	0	2	0	0	0	0
	female	2	27.0(1.4)	20.5(0.7)	1	1	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	total	7	45.3(15.3)	18.6(4.3)	1	5	1	0	0	0
	male	5	47.4(16.0)	18.2(4.9)	1	3	1	0	0	0
	female	2	40.0(17.0)	19.5(3.5)	0	2	0	0	0	0
Britain	total	3	56.0(3.0)	15.7(0.6)	0	3	0	0	0	0
	male	3	56.0(3.0)	15.7(0.6)	0	3	0	0	0	0
Finland	total	6	44.7(16.6)	22.3(4.8)	2	4	0	0	0	0
	male	2	40.0(4.2)	21.5(0.7)	0	2	0	0	0	0
	female	4	47.0(20.8)	22.8(6.2)	2	2	0	0	0	0
Sweden	total	17	41.3(12.8)	21.9(5.9)	4	8	3	1	0	1
	male	11	40.0(13.9)	20.2(3.9)	2	6	2	1	0	0
	female	6	43.7(11.5)	25.6(8.3)	2	2	1	0	0	1
Austria	total	11	37.0(13.8)	18.6(2.0)	5	4	1	0	1	0
	male	8	38.3(14.2)	19.3(1.2)	3	3	1	0	1	0
	female	3	33.7(15.2)	16.0(2.8)	2	1	0	0	0	0
total	total	96	40.0(13.9)	20.6(4.8)	31	46	11	4	2	2
	female	38	38.8(13.4)	18.1(9.2)	17	27	8	3	2	1
	male	58	40.8(14.3)	18.0(7.5)	14	19	3	1	0	1

a. 1, single; 2, married; 3, living together as married; 4, divorced; 5, separated; 6, widowed.

Table 7. Propensity of sex tourism involving children by region

region	sex tourism is common (%)	sex tourism takes place in					
		our country (%)	EU (%)	Central and Eastern Europe (%)	Africa (%)	South America (%)	Asia (%)
Belgium	80	60	70	83	83	83	93
Denmark	51	30	54	78	69	68	96
W. Germany	65	32	42	62	64	55	88
E. Germany	57	29	41	66	57	45	85
Greece	66	65	75	72	72	80	83
Italy	71	54	60	67	64	76	78
Spain	39	55	55	60	61	71	70
France	82	57	71	84	80	86	95
Ireland	40	26	46	55	56	55	67
Luxembourg	80	39	69	80	74	78	85
Netherlands	81	61	73	85	75	86	96
Portugal	69	85	84	72	73	76	75
Britain	47	31	48	57	57	59	72
N. Ireland	49	20	47	55	60	51	71
Finland	44	24	63	74	69	72	91
Sweden	58	34	65	82	75	74	96
Austria	71	27	44	65	76	58	87
total	62	44	60	71	69	70	85